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The Impact of Inclusion on Teachers in a Mainstream Secondary School

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ABSTRACT

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THE IMPACT OF INCLUSION ON TEACHERS IN A MAINSTREAM SECONDARY SCHOOL

by Leigh Louisa Jerwood

This thesis considers the inclusion of pupils with special educational needs and the consequent impact of this policy on teachers in a mainstream secondary school. The evidence gathered through this case study suggests that inclusion has not been a positive experience for all teachers and pupils at the school.

The introduction to the thesis establishes the growing importance of inclusion in mainstream schools and outlines both the format of the work and the values and assumptions of the researcher. Chapter one is divided into two sections, the first describing the national policy context and the second, the case study school's approaches to implementing national special needs policies prior to this research. The literature review explores issues surrounding inclusion and its implementation in mainstream schools. Definitions of inclusion, the terminology used and ideological views held are discussed. Managing the necessary changes and understanding teachers' views on inclusion are also considered. It is recognised that little evidence is available about teachers' views on inclusion nor on the practicalities of achieving it. Chapter three, the methodology section, explains the methodological perspective used, the design of the research, steps taken and approaches used to gather teachers' views. This data is subsequently presented and discussed in chapter four and summarised and concluded in chapter five within the context of five key issues:

- The nature and extent of the impact of inclusion depends upon how teachers define "inclusion" and whether or not they perceive it to be a positive strategy
- Inclusion is influenced by teachers' perspectives of "who" is to be included and the implications of that
- Inclusion is inevitably perceived as problematic because the demands it makes directly conflicts with other legislative demands on the providers of education
- The competence and attitude of individual teachers are key factors in determining how they view the concept of inclusion and how well they achieve it
- The impact of inclusion is likely to depend upon whether it is a well managed change or merely another initiative imposed upon teachers

Finally, there is a suggestion that for teachers and pupils to experience inclusion as a positive event, the key issues and management recommendations raised in this research need to be considered and translated into action that 're-shapes' the landscape of practice.

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INTRODUCTION

The Green Paper, "Excellence for All Children" (DfEE, 1997) highlights a concern with raising standards in British schools and with relocating resources to provide practical support for pupils with special educational needs. At the heart of the paper lies the recommendation that schools become more inclusive:

> We want to see more pupils with SEN included within mainstream primary and secondary schools. We support the United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organisation (UNESCO) Salamanca World Statement on Special Education 1994. This calls on governments to adopt the principle of inclusive education, enrolling all children in regular schools, unless there are compelling reasons for doing otherwise. That implies the progressive extension of the capacity of mainstream schools to provide for children with a wide range of needs. (DfEE, 1997:44)

The Green Paper highlights two important factors. Firstly that inclusion is a concept of international significance (UNESCO, 1994; Clarke et al. 1995; Sebba and Ainscow, 1996; Pijl et al., 1997) and secondly, that the whole topic has implications for mainstream schools in the way their practices and structures are administered.

This process of inclusion appears to have been gaining momentum during the 1980s and 1990s, though Simmons (1998) believes the Green Paper (DfEE, 1997) reflects for the first time that a government had

> subscribed to the Salamanca World Statement (UNESCO, 1994) and was vigorously supporting the principle that children with special needs should, wherever possible, be educated in mainstream schools. (Simmons, 1998:9)

If schools are destined to become more inclusive what exactly does that mean for teachers and schools? As the Assistant Headteacher charged with SEN (special educational needs) provision in an 11-18 mainstream secondary school in Hampshire, one is faced with the challenge of ensuring that inclusion is successful. This necessitates that all children are included into the full life of the school, both socially and academically. Having taught at the school for thirteen years inside-knowledge of the procedures and practices currently operating in the school is useful in helping to accomplish the task. It is relatively easy to get the children through the door, but ensuring that their experience is both relevant and appropriate and that their needs are being met is not always as straightforward. It is clear

that in order to achieve this state one is reliant on the staff team in its entirety to make it happen. Staff are charged with enabling children to be accepted by their peers, to access learning programmes and to function successfully in their classrooms.

Focus of the Thesis

This thesis focuses upon inclusion, that is, the concept that all children, regardless of their ability, have the right of access to their local educational environment and, within that shared environment, the right for their diverse strengths, qualities and potential to be maximised.

The existing literature demonstrates that much research to date has concentrated on attempting to define the meaning of the term "inclusion" and establish philosophical beliefs and ideological convictions about these rights (Dessent, 1987; Skrtic, 1991 and 1995; Sebba and Ainscow, 1996; Murray and Penman in Webster, 1999; Feiler and Gibson, 1999; Clarke et al. 1999; Farrell, M., 2000). Educationalists and researchers continue to argue about definitions, whilst the literature suggests that scant regard has been paid to the effects of the whole initiative on teachers and schools. The "why" of inclusion has been debated, without the practicalities and implications for teachers and schools being explored to the same degree. It is for this reason that I want to focus my research on how inclusion has affected teachers and how they have responded to more complex individual needs in the classroom.

Research Question

In an attempt to make some contribution to the research on inclusion I have investigated the subject from the perspective of the teachers who are required to implement the initiative. The following key research question is considered "What has been the impact of inclusion on teachers in a mainstream secondary school?"

It is likely that the key research question will generate views on associated issues. Other subsidiary research questions which may be answered by this research are: "How well is

the policy of inclusion working at the school?" " What strategies do teachers need to facilitate inclusion?" and "Is it possible to include all pupils?"

Outline and Limitations of Study

In order to answer the research question the research has been framed as a case study in my own school. It must be made explicit therefore that whilst the results might probe deeply into the impact of inclusion at the case study school, the evidence is only focused on one school. A single case study may represent an atypical situation and whilst the results might be fruitful in developing hypotheses to be tested in other schools the results are not directed at broad generalisations. Data-collection methods in the case study include both interviews and questionnaires. Semi-structured interviews are used to raise issues important to staff across a range of managerial and experiential levels. Questionnaires, in the form of opinionnaires, were then devised for all teachers, using the interviews, to frame the questions and issues seemingly relevant to staff. This form of method triangulation was chosen to limit potentially inaccurate data caused by a small sample of possibly unrepresentative teachers being interviewed. Consistency of data between the interviews and opinionnaires would help to suggest that the data was more reliable. Despite this I was cognisant of the fact that my own personal bias might affect the way the research question was framed and the subsequent collection and interpretation of data. The need to be self-critical and to reflect upon the steps taken in the research and the gathering of data were vital if I was to feel confident that the findings were a true representation of the situation in the case study school. Additionally I was conscious of possible difficulties due to my dual role as both teacher and researcher and how my presence would affect the data collected. Clarifying my role to staff, maintaining confidentiality and being clear about boundaries were essential and important. These issues are discussed more fully in the methodology section.

Values and Assumptions

Given that I have a commitment to inclusion and that I am researching my own school, it is important to establish my own value position. It is my personal view that as far as possible all children should be educated in a mainstream school alongside their peers. However, if this situation is achieved to the detriment of the child or has an adverse effect

upon others then the perceived benefits of inclusion will be non-existent. In other words it has to work in practice not just for ethical reasons. I start the research with the following assumptions about inclusion in the case study school:

- Staff feel overwhelmed by the increased demands posed by inclusion
- Inclusion is not a positive step for all children
- Managing poor behaviour in the classroom is problematic
- Teachers feel that they receive little support in helping them manage a variety of SEN pupils
- Teachers believe their training has not been adequate to meet the needs of all children
- School reforms during the 1980s and 1990s have led to teachers feeling a loss of professional identity whilst their workload has been increased

Bearing in mind these assumptions I will need to explore these, and other issues raised through the literature review, with teachers in the case study school. As a teacher researching in a familiar setting treating the case study environment as "anthropologically strange" (Hammersley and Atkinson, 1995) will be necessary in order to make explicit the presuppositions taken for granted as a culture member. Additionally it will be important that my presence in the field does not intentionally influence the teachers, although it would be impossible to state that my presence was not an influencing factor on the data gathered. The choice of questions and how these are framed to teachers must be carefully considered so that interviewees do not provide information based on what they believe I want to hear, thus leading to my stated assumptions being confirmed.

Outline of Chapters

The thesis has been divided into the following chapters:

- Chapter One places the research in context. It is divided into two sections. The first section considers the policy context and the second section describes the case study school, in particular how far the school had reached in implementing national special needs policies prior to this research.

- Chapter Two explores the available literature. Definitions, ideologies, managing change and the consequent impact upon schools and teachers are all discussed.
- Chapter Three explains the methodology employed to research the topic. The research is structured as a piece of qualitative research and the research design is of a case study in my own school.
- Chapter Four presents and discusses the data from the interviews and opinionnaires under five key issues. Interpretations are made in order to give meaning to the teachers' views.
- Chapter Five concludes the research by summarising the impact of inclusion on teachers at the case-study school. Finally implications for further research and management recommendations are suggested.

CHAPTER ONE

CONTEXT AND BACKGROUND TO INCLUSION

1.1 INTRODUCTION

Chapter one places the research in context. It is divided into two sections: the first part describes the national policy context and the second part identifies the specific context of the case-study school prior to this research.

1.2 NATIONAL POLICY CONTEXT

Whilst inclusion may have been explicitly mentioned for the first time in the Green Paper, "Excellence for All Children" (DfEE, 1997) the concept is certainly not new. Its growth had undoubtedly developed from previous national legislation. Tracing this development is crucial in understanding how inclusion has affected and impacted upon teachers and schools. This section explores the development of special needs from the 1944 Education Act (Ministry of Education, 1944) through to the revised Code of Practice (DfES, 2001).

1.2.1 1944 Education Act

In 1944 when the Education Act was launched there was no such concept as inclusion. Children with any form of special need were identified via eleven categories of disability and these categories of handicap required special arrangements separate from mainstream schools. The most severe physically and mentally handicapped children were termed ineducable and assigned to be cared for by the local health services. In essence the Act focused on what was wrong with pupils and concentrated on a mere 2% of children with the most severe difficulties. Muncey and Palmer, (1995:125) observe that this categorisation "appealed to medical practice in the design of procedures for the identification of, and provision for special needs." Special schools were designed in order to cure pupils or to care for them away from more normal youngsters. The segregated 2% followed a specialised curriculum, which concentrated on physical development, language and communication and social and personal skills.

1.2.2 1978 Warnock Report

It was not until a far reaching review of all aspects of Special Educational Needs, undertaken in 1978 by the Warnock Committee (DES, 1978), that the categorisation of children according to disability was revoked. In its place came a continuum of need with up to 20% of children requiring some form of special needs help at some point during their schooling. It advocated a move towards integrating children with special educational needs into ordinary schools and a move away from the segregation of children into special schools started to take place. The notion that special needs provision should be additional or supplementary, rather than as previously, separate or alternative, had been generated, in policy if not fully in practice.

1.2.3 1981 Education Act

The 1981 Education Act (DES, 1981) enacted some of the recommendations of the Warnock Report. It was increasingly felt that ordinary schools were normal for all pupils and that special schools should only be an option if absolutely necessary. Unfortunately resources to accompany pupils into mainstream schools were not always forthcoming. There was a move away from the medical model with its "SE forms" towards "Statements" and professional "advice". The introduction of Statements of Special Educational Need focused on the 2% deemed to have difficulties over and above those usually catered for in mainstream schools. This Statementing procedure was designed to match provision to the individual needs of the child. It was legally binding for the LEA to ensure the provision was being made and parents were to be consulted at every stage of its development. Russell (1994) recognised improvements in assessment procedures, provision, parental contribution and increased integration evident in the 1981 Act despite the fact that the Act did not altogether work within the spirit of the Warnock Report.

Whilst the 1981 Education Act did not significantly reduce the number of children attending special schools there was evidence of "a slowly increasing number of children whose needs were being met in mainstream schools through Statements" (Williams and Maloney, 1998:16).

1.2.4 1988 Education Reform Act

By 1988 the Education Reform Act, (DES, 1988) called for a National Curriculum for all children. It represented a formal entitlement for special needs children to participate in areas of the curriculum experienced by other children. Unfortunately stating that all children had entitlement to the National Curriculum and ensuring success was achieved was not easy. Heward and Lloyd-Smith (1990 in Bowe et al., 1992:123) recognised that the very Reform Act which supposedly aimed to increase their integration, itself posed significant problems:

> Bringing this powerless and politically unattractive minority [those with learning difficulties] into closer relations with the mainstream after such a lengthy period of rigid categorisation and segregation was a difficult task requiring considerable commitment and resources, neither of which has been evident in the 1981 Act and its implementation.

Heward and Lloyd-Smith saw the onset of a National Curriculum as a real threat likely to exclude children with special educational needs from mainstream integration.

Perhaps more significantly the Education Reform Act goes further by placing provision for special educational needs within a budgetary and a market context as well as a curricular and assessment framework. Special needs provision needed to be weighed and justified against other forms of staffing and expenditure. Open enrolment, increased parental choice, Grant Maintained Status and Local Management were all issues impacting upon schools in a way that was likely to affect schools' attitudes towards pupils with special educational needs. In this new atmosphere of competition, market forces could easily affect the underlying philosophies on special needs provision held by schools in an adverse fashion.

1.2.5 Deficiencies noted in 1981 Education Act

In 1993 both the House of Commons Select Committee (1993) and the HMI/Audit Commission Report "Getting in on the Act" (1992) observed that the 1981 Education Act was deficient in three main areas:

1. Lack of clarity about what constitutes special educational needs and about respective and reciprocal responsibilities of LEAs, school, parents and pupils, and child health and social services;
2. Lack of clear accountability by schools and LEAs for the progress made by pupils at the earlier stages of assessment and the accountability of schools to the LEAs for the resources they receive;
3. Wide variations and inconsistencies between LEAs as to which children received statements.

1.2.6 1993 Education Act

An attempt to address some of these criticisms can be detected in the 1993 Act (DfE, 1993). Parental rights were extended by creating a new independent tribunal to hear appeals and attempts to speed up the statementing process were made by setting time limits for each stage. The Secretary of State was required to devise a Code of Practice (DfE, 1994) giving practical guidance to LEAs and schools on their responsibilities to children with special educational needs. In fact the Code of Practice (DfE, 1994) became a key element in the national educational scene for a number of years.

1.2.7 1994 Code of Practice

Growing out of the 1993 Act, the Code of Practice (DfE, 1994) aimed to reaffirm and consolidate special needs principles and practices prescribed in earlier policies and to respond to some of the criticisms levelled at the then current practice. The key principles of the Code were that children with special educational needs should have "greatest degree of access to a broad and balanced education, including the maximum possible access to the National Curriculum." (DfE, 1994, Section 1.2)

Five fundamental principles are outlined in part one of the Code. These relate to continuity of needs and provision; curriculum access; reference to the pupil's wishes when determining provision; inter-agency working; and parent-agency collaboration. One may see this as a further move away from the "medical model" of special needs towards a view that special needs are directly related to provision. Norwich (1996:100) refers to "a

continuum, based on the assumption that there is no clear and categoric distinction between the handicapped and the non-handicapped." It is this continuum of need that is a vital part of the Code and in essence is a re-statement of the Warnock principles.

The second part of the Code builds on Warnock's idea of a staged approach to assessment. The framework for managing special needs in school is contained within a series of five stages. It is expected that all pupils with special needs will be at one of these stages and that the majority will fall within the first three stages, the school-based stages of pupil assessment. The minority requiring formal assessment will progress to stages four and five.

The Code attempts to diminish the gulf between special needs' pupils who possess statements, Warnock's 2 per cent, and those who do not, Warnock's 18 per cent. It also recognises that the 18 per cent will be taught in mainstream education thus reinforcing a notion of inclusion rather than exclusion from mainstream provision. In order to manage these pupils schools are required to keep an up to date register of all pupils who have special educational needs. Furthermore schools must have a special needs policy. This must contain specific information on: the school's special needs objectives; the arrangements for co-ordinating special educational provision for pupils with special needs; the admission arrangements; any special needs specialism and any special units; the name of the school's Special Needs Co-ordinator; information about the school's policies for the identification, assessment and provision for pupils with special needs and information about the school's arrangements for partnerships with bodies beyond the school. A short paragraph (2:26) refers to the in-service training of staff needing to be incorporated within the SEN policy document. Unfortunately there is no specific mention of the necessary skills to teach and manage pupils with special needs that are required of the very staff upon whom the success of the initiative rests.

This increased pressure for including children with special needs demands that clarity exists in the roles and responsibilities delegated to the school and the staff. In particular greater emphasis is placed on the role of the Special Educational Needs Co-ordinator and the school's governing body. The latter has a statutory duty to ensure that pupils' special

educational needs are met and they must report annually to parents on the details of the special needs policy as well as the numbers of pupils at the school who have special needs and how the resources available will be allocated to meet their needs.

The Code therefore placed huge demands on schools to evaluate their current practices, to re-write their special needs policy and to have regard to the Code in all areas of special educational needs. It changed the way that special needs provision was managed in mainstream schools (Derrington, Evans and Lee, 1996; Williams and Maloney, 1998).

1.2.8 1996 Education Act

The subsequent Education Act (DfEE, 1996) encouraged the move towards more inclusive practice, by reflecting a clear expectation that most pupils with special educational needs would be taught in a mainstream school. This Act did not distinguish between special educational needs and disability and it was apparent that children might fall within one, two or all of the definitions laid out in the Children Act 1989, the Disability Discrimination Act 1995 and the Education Act 1996.

1.2.9 1997 Green Paper "Excellence for All Children"

It was not however until the Green Paper, "Excellence for All Children" (DfEE, 1997) that the term inclusion became more widely used and a chapter was dedicated exclusively to "Increasing Inclusion" (Chapter 4:52). A vision of more inclusive practice, to be achieved by 2002, concludes this chapter:

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

However, whilst this paper may be said to have encouraged the education of yet more children with special needs into mainstream schools, on the other hand it also threatened to

weaken childrens' right to the provision required to meet their needs (Simmons, 1998). According to Simmons four areas of the document may potentially jeopardise the legal framework: a reduction in the number of statements of special educational need; an erosion of the LEA duty to specify details of provision in the statement; a weakening of the Annual Review process and the necessity of the SEN Tribunal to consider an LEA's policy in relation to provision offered to children.

1.2.10 1998 Meeting Special Educational Needs: A Programme of Action

Following on from the Green Paper "Meeting Special Educational Needs: A Programme of Action" (DfEE, 1998a) confirms the government's vision and key principles and highlights the fact that responses to the Green Paper had shown a "strong consensus" to the proposals made (DfEE, 1998a:3). David Blunkett (DfEE, 1998a:3) points out that the government will respond to parents' requests for more inclusion:

> We recognise the case for more inclusion where parents want it and appropriate support can be provided. We agree that special schools should continue to play a vital role as part of an inclusive local education system.

Inclusion by now is high on the government's agenda and indeed they declare it is "a cornerstone of our strategy" (DfEE, 1998a:23). To achieve this increased inclusion £8 million was made available through the SEN Standards Fund and £20 million through the Schools Access Initiative for the period 1999-2000. Aims were established to promote inclusion and develop the role of the special schools by:

- From 1999, requiring LEAs to publish information about their policy on inclusion in their Education Development Plans;
- Reviewing the statutory framework for inclusion (section 316 of the Education Act, 1996);
- Identifying and disseminating good practice by special schools in developing practical links with mainstream schools, and promoting special schools' contribution to an increasingly inclusive education system;
- Ensuring children with SEN are treated fairly in schools' admissions procedures;
- Providing financial support, including through the new Social Inclusion: Pupil Support Standards Fund programme, for projects that aim to improve provision and raise achievements for children with emotional and behavioural difficulties.

1.2.11 2001 The New Code of Practice

The simplification of the Code of Practice (DfE, 1994) was announced in the Green Paper (DfEE, 1997) and arrival of the consultation document (DfEE, 2000) confirmed that the majority of children would be educated in mainstream schools with only a "very small minority" requiring intervention by the LEA to determine and provide alternative provision (DfEE, 2000:2). In addition it contained an important section on "Inclusion and School Admission" (DfEE, 2000:4) establishing that a school could not refuse to admit a child, even if the school felt unable to cater for the child's special educational needs. The five staged system of Identification, Assessment and Provision established in the Code of Practice (DfE, 1994) was replaced by a model of two stages called School Action and School Action Plus (DfES, 2001).

Having identified the national picture with regard to special educational needs and in particular the increasing emphasis on "inclusion" I want to consider next the development of special needs provision in the case study school.

1.3 THE CONTEXT OF INCLUSION AT THE CASE STUDY SCHOOL

The case study school is an 11-18 Foundation School in Hampshire. It has, during the last thirteen years, undergone significant changes in character and size in addition to the normal changes experienced by all educational establishments in the climate of reform, development and competition.

1.3.1 Researcher's Role at Case Study School

I was appointed as Special Needs Co-ordinator, my first position in the role of a middle manager, in 1988. Since my appointment I have attempted to keep abreast of legislation and develop the special needs provision accordingly. I have also been given additional responsibilities as a middle manager and more recently as a senior manager on the leadership team. Since 1990 I have been in charge of junior school liaison and transfer to secondary school. In 1992 I became TVEI (Technical, Vocational and Educational Initiative) co-ordinator and when that ended I took over the planning and organisation of Open Events and the writing of the school prospectus. Promotion to the Leadership Group

in November 2000 gave me responsibility for the development of Key Stage 3 provision and enabled me to be more involved in the strategic management of the school.

1.3.2 Changes to SEN procedures at the Case Study School

In 1988 schools were considering their position in the light of the Education Reform Act and the National Curriculum (DES,1988). Matching the needs of pupils with special needs and the requirements of the National Curriculum was difficult but provided the school with the opportunity to review its procedures with regard to children with special education needs.

Prior to the retirement of the Head of Special Needs the school had been operating a "remedial" department. This department taught all pupils with learning difficulties. The pupils spent most of their week together and rarely, with the exception of physical education, mixed with the more "normal" pupils. The subsequent arrival of myself as the newly appointed and re-named Special Needs Co-ordinator heralded a new era. My appointment was viewed with scepticism and when the school, like many other schools at that time, adopted the concept of a "whole school approach," (Hegarty et al., 1982) some existing heads of department actively strove to make my job difficult. For teachers at the school the change was swift, with no training, no consultation and, more importantly from their view-point, change was imposed by the Headteacher. Consequently, the movement towards SEN pupils being part of the "normal curriculum," and by now the National Curriculum (DES, 1988), was not generally welcomed. Some staff were outwardly aggressive towards both myself and the change. Bion (1961) calls this reaction "Fight or Flight." The change affected all staff directly as they found themselves teaching these more "difficult" pupils. Perhaps this lack of staff involvement is symptomatic of how schools tackle change and not related to special needs issues. However, the change certainly created extra work for staff by increasing their teaching load and requiring them to deal with potential problems related to managing the learning and behaviour of additional pupils in the classroom. In some cases the integration of children with special needs impinged on people's value systems. The special needs policy had changed but staff did not agree with the policy. Consequently the early attempts at fostering a "whole school approach" were not highly successful. Pupil needs were diverse, implementing the

National Curriculum was paramount and harmonising pupil needs with the National Curriculum was a difficult task.

1.3.3 Impact of the Code of Practice

During the next six years all teachers found themselves teaching pupils with special needs. French was no longer a subject for the elite but a requirement of the National Curriculum for all pupils. No longer were children with special needs regarded as the sole responsibility of the Special Needs Department. However lack of ownership by all teachers was still an issue, but, in September 1994 the arrival of the Code of Practice (DfE, 1994) provided both myself and the School with the opportunity for a major overhaul of special needs provision. Along with many schools I saw the potential of the Code of Practice for raising the status of special needs whilst at the same time wondering how all its demands could be met.

Although the Code recommended whole school involvement in the development of the special needs policy in reality this task fell to myself as special needs co-ordinator. My role developed from that of a special needs teacher, responsible for teaching most of the pupils in a conventional classroom situation, to that of a manager of provision, trainer of staff and delegator of resources. Administration became a significant part of the role. Bowers and Wilkinson (1998:120) look at the development of the special needs co-ordinator's role and contemplate whether it "has become bureaucratised by the Code or whether the Code has introduced ideas which have been responded to in bureaucratic or procedure-based ways." I would suggest the former relates to my own circumstances. Patterson (1994) and Pyke (1995) considered that the Code required very little input over and above what good schools were already doing whilst opposing views believed that the administrative burdens supported by the Code were an impossibility (Bibby, 1994; Dalton, 1994). It is clear that for some special needs co-ordinators role changes have led to stress and overload (Bowers and Wilkinson, 1998; Low, 1995; Derrington et al., 1996). In my own particular situation the role change was an opportunity to increase my status and I was keen to take on additional responsibilities and develop the role further.

One of the greatest impacts of the Code at the school was the registering of pupils with special needs. We had previously attempted to keep a register, but it would be true to say that this was constantly out of date, pupils were omitted and it contained scant information, nothing like the information now required by the Code. The Code required the register to record a child's stage and inform the school's approach at the next stage. Paragraph 2.25 of the Code advises:

> Schools should keep a register of all children with special educational needs.... The school's SEN coordinator should have responsibility for ensuring that the register and records are properly kept and available as needed. (DFE,1994: Paragraph 2.25)

Registering pupils at the correct stage was certainly a time consuming business. Derrington et al. (1996) reported that this was a frequent concern of secondary schools. Registering pupils at stage 5, those in possession of a statement, and at stage 4, applications for formal assessment, were easily organised. Arranging where to put other pupils at stages 1-3 was more difficult due to the fact that other staff often held relevant information that was not always accessible.

1.3.4 Monitoring Pupil Progress

Monitoring the progress of pupils listed on the special needs register became "bureaucratised" (Bowers and Wilkinson, 1998:120). Pupils registered at stage 2 and above were required to have formalised Individual Education Plans, commonly known as IEPs. These needed to be based on a rigorous assessment of the child's needs and include specific objectives which could be easily monitored and reviewed on a regular basis with parents and other professionals. Time and teacher workload became a significant factor in the generating of the IEPs whilst teacher skill and knowledge of SEN conditions and practices contributed to their quality.

In order to bring about the necessary changes to the special needs policy and practices at the school staff received in-service training. This explained the continuity of special needs provision and the role all staff had in the identification, monitoring and reviewing of pupil progress. Fullan (1990 in 1991:319) regards such staff development as "both a strategy for specific, instructional change, and a strategy for basic organisational change" as well as a vehicle to change the culture of an organisation.

The monitoring and reviewing of all pupils on the register proved to be a time consuming and paper-pushing exercise reflecting comments by Bowers and Wilkinson (1998:120), Bibby (1994) and Dalton (1994), who all remarked on the lack of time to complete procedures initiated in the Code of Practice (DfE, 1994). Structures and practices to minimise the workload on teachers were tried, but the IEP came to be seen, as in many schools, "principally as a bureaucratic demand, as opposed to an aid to effective practice" (Cooper, 1996:115). Attempting to facilitate IEPs in the classroom through targets, knowledge, skills, concepts and attitudes being made applicable to curriculum subjects was encouraged. This would then give the IEPs "a life of their own in the classroom" Carpenter (1997:19). Butt and Scott (1994) recommended that the most effective use of the IEP was within the context of a whole school approach to special educational needs, a policy that required the client-centred values, underpinning the IEP, to be central to the school ethos. It would be true to say that whilst teachers comply with the policy and are involved in individual target setting, the quality of the targets, their effectiveness and subsequent reviewing remain an issue for the school to address.

Involving parents in monitoring their children's progress was a practice that the school had always endeavoured to achieve. Legislation too was emphasising "partnership with parents" (DfE, 1994; DfEE, 1997; DfEE, 1998a). Teacher and parent consultations were held once a term for the majority of pupils, but for those with complex needs more regular liaison took place. Although it was not possible to hold IEP review meetings for every child on the special needs register the plan, in the form of the latest IEP, was sent home and parents encouraged to contact if they had any observations or concerns. Thus parents were kept informed of their child's progress and future targets.

1.3.5 Audit Funding

In 1995 Hampshire delegated additional funds for managing the Code to all schools via their special needs audit. Although it brought funding directly into schools it added an extra layer of bureaucracy and confusion by its references to "steps" rather than "stages" of which there were 3 not 5. The funding enabled administrative support to be given to Heads of House who were also suffering from the excessive paperwork stimulated by the Code. It allowed computers to be purchased including "Successmaker", an integrated

learning system for pupil support and the SENCO Sims programme for managing all aspects of the Code. A significant benefit of the audit was the financial freedom to buy in extra Educational Psychology advice. This became a valuable service for parents who had previously had to wait long periods to see the LEA Psychologist.

1.3.6 Meeting diversity of need – learning difficulties

Although the school was admitting all pupils regardless of ability, pupils' needs were not always being met and at times an application for formal assessment was made to enable a pupil to access special schooling. In 1997 it was felt that adaptations to the curriculum would, for a small group of pupils, avoid this need for "special school" education. Consequently a "Basic Skills" programme began with two small groups of year 7 pupils. The aim was to run a highly structured literacy programme in place of a Modern Foreign Language. This was a potentially retrograde move for pupils with significant levels of literacy deficit. It is questionable whether these pupils would have required such input had they benefited from the more structured approach to the development of literacy skills at Key Stage 1 and 2 now apparent in the Literacy Strategy (DfEE, 1998b). The "Basic Skills" groups were aimed at pupils whose reading ages were below 8 years. Parent consultation took place and all supported and wanted their child to be involved in the group. Norwich (1996:100) believes that special educational needs provision is "both about what is part of the mainstream and about what is distinctive and different." The "Basic Skills" programme was closely monitored by the senior management team who were impressed by the strategies used and the motivation of pupils, who were seen to be failing in other areas of the curriculum.

1.3.7 Meeting diversity of need – behavioural difficulties

Special needs provision was not only about adapting to the varying learning, physical, sensory and language impairments, but the needs of pupils with behavioural difficulties. It was coping with the needs of this group of pupils that was becoming, for most teachers, the hardest to manage. In order to do this a behavioural support teacher was appointed in December 1997 to help manage and support pupils at risk of being excluded. This was an innovative step and recognised as such at the OFSTED inspection in April 1998.

Individual support, anger management and modified timetables were all part of the special needs strategy to meet the needs of pupils with behaviour problems.

In September 2000 further changes to the curriculum were made to ensure the needs of all children were being met. Twelve year 10 pupils were given a different programme from the now traditional diet of ten GCSE (General Certificate of Secondary Education) examinations. In its place they began a course which incorporated a Work Related Programme alongside a reduced number of GCSEs (DfEE, 1998a:27). This course emphasised the Key Skills necessary in the working environment and allowed a practical subject such as motor mechanics, construction or hairdressing, to be studied at one of the colleges, leading after an extended work placement to a NVQ (National Vocational Qualification) level 1 certificate.

1.3.8 Inclusion growing

As systems and procedures were becoming established at the school so too was a steady increase in the number of pupils with statements requiring support (Figure 1.1). It is difficult to highlight a specific time when a greater range of special needs pupils seemed to become included, but it was becoming clear that all staff were starting to teach a wider range of pupils with special educational needs and the majority of them did not have a Statement of Special Educational Needs. At no time did the school actively change to a policy of including more children. The whole inclusive initiative seemed to be happening without the school making a conscious effort to become more inclusive. If pupils applied for admission to the school then they were likely to be admitted. Consequently staff were starting to find that they were teaching pupils with various Special Educational Needs.

Figure 1.1 Number of Statements at the school

Year	Statements	Year	Statements
1988-1989	4	1995-1996	15
1989-1990	8	1996-1997	19
1990-1991	11	1997-1998	21
1991-1992	10	1998-1999	20
1992-1993	12	1999-2000	16
1993-1994	8	2000-2001	15
1994-1995	14	2001-2002	12

(The figures show the maximum number of statements in one year. Not all pupils remained in the school for the whole of a year)

The increased numbers of SEN pupils being taught at the school also meant there was a need for additional human resources in the form of LSAs (Learning Support Assistants). These were employed to support and enable pupils to access the demands of the curriculum. Training for assistants was vital as they often came from varied backgrounds. Whenever possible assistants studied for a qualification in learning support such as the City and Guild's Certificate in Learning Support. Additionally in house induction programmes and training for all staff, including LSAs, identified the various types of special needs found in the school and addressed appropriate ways to meet those needs through effective support and planning.

In Hampshire, a Draft Inclusion Policy was launched July 2000 (Hampshire County Council, 2000) following a series of Inclusion Briefings. This was the first formal acknowledgement by the LEA (Local Education Authority) that inclusion was happening in Hampshire and was to be encouraged. The message from the LEA conveyed to Hampshire schools the need for all schools to address inclusion, as fewer children would be attending special schools. How the teachers in the focus school reacted to this inclusion policy statement is not known as it was not discussed with the staff nor freely circulated amongst them. The Headteacher at the case study school, however, was vociferous in his condemnation of the policy and wrote the following two comments on the paper:

> They are trying to make a practice out of a philosophy and it doesn't work because all descriptors are ambiguous or contentious.
>
> This is a hopeless piece of work. I gave up reading it feel free to throw it.

It certainly seemed from this reaction that he held strong views about the policy. What was not clear was whether this reaction was due to the impact of inclusion or the policy document. Understanding how he views the impact of inclusion on teachers and the school would be important information to gather for the research.

1.3.9 Additional School Changes

Whilst process changes have undoubtedly taken place within special needs, significant changes in character have also taking place at the school. In 1991 a major change occurred when the school achieved Grant Maintained Status. Further changes in 1992, the change in the age of transfer at year 7 instead of year 8, and subsequently in 1994 on acquiring a sixth form served to compound a feeling of a change culture within the school with little time for consolidation. The final major change for the school came in September 1999 when the school was returned to the authority due to the ending of Grant Maintained Status. In its place came the new title Foundation School Status and with it a reduction in funding for human resources and training needs. Staff were forced to adapt to bigger classes and reduced opportunities for training and personal development. Coping with this did not seem compatible with increased inclusion.

It is relevant to remember that concurrent with these specific school changes and increased inclusion nationally, the 1980's and 1990's served to create a market-place environment, a competitive approach to education whilst at the same time undermining the professionalism of teachers. Many initiatives were and still are at the forefront of governmental thinking. Schools must be seen to be achieving favourably in league tables through their National Curriculum Key Stage testing if they are to survive and attract pupils. OFSTED reports need to demonstrate value added progress for pupils. Year on year progress is mandatory. Underachieving schools and staff are named and shamed.

Ensuring that all children are included into the full life and work of the school does not necessarily equate with the cut and thrust of this market place mentality. It is certainly difficult to rationalise the raising of school standards, accomplishment in league tables and in particular examination results, with the increasing demands of inclusion. It is interesting to question whether teachers believe they are successfully meeting the needs of all pupils and whether inclusion has the potential, as suggested by the Green Paper (DfEE, 1997), for raising standards.

At the case study school internal policy developments have led to all teachers taking a more active role in the development and delivery of special needs policies and practices.

Additionally teachers have found themselves having to teach and manage pupils with a greater and more complex range of special needs. How inclusion has impacted upon teachers and how they are meeting the needs of this diverse group of pupils is the question this thesis will attempt to answer.

1.4 SUMMARY

This chapter has summarised the development of SEN legislation and policies since the 1944 Education Act. The development of SEN provision and in particular the growth of inclusion is traced through the legislation. The steps taken by the case study school to address the changes in SEN legislation and the subsequent action of changing policy into practice to meet the needs of SEN pupils is described.

In the following Literature Review issues pertinent to inclusion are explored. Definitions of inclusion are examined, ideological views and philosophical beliefs about the value of the initiative are discussed. Managing change and identifying relevant issues for teachers about their experience of inclusion are considered.

CHAPTER TWO

LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1 INTRODUCTION

This review considers literature that has focused upon the key issues surrounding inclusion and its implementation. At the heart of it lies the problem of definition, terminology and ideological views. Another central theme explored in this chapter is managing the changes surrounding special needs provision and its impact upon schools and teachers. In an attempt to listen to the voice of teachers individual comments and opinions have at times been taken from SEN magazines and articles. As a consequence some of these views and opinions are not the result of large scale research.

It could be argued that the education of all children in the mainstream, on a continuum of need, is nothing more than Warnock (DES, 1978) re-stated in a different form. National legislation may have merely reiterated the "continuum of need" approach under the banner of inclusion. However if one moves into the political arena for a moment, disparities of perception certainly exist. David Blunkett, when working as the Education and Employment Secretary, understandably considered increased inclusion to be the "most far-reaching review of SEN provision since Warnock" whilst Nick St Aubyn MP suggested inclusion was nothing more than "a money-saving exercise under the guise of some warm words" (Hansard, 1997 in Simmons, 1998:9). Thus these differing views tend to illustrate that, as inclusion becomes part of educational policies and jargon, defining its precise meaning and looking at what inclusion means in reality, is increasingly beneficial in limiting interpretations and ensuring best practice is advanced.

2.2 DEFINING INCLUSION

Although inclusion seems to be at the heart of the Green Paper (DFEE,1997) there is no attempt to define its meaning. In fact it was clear from the study "Effective Practice in Inclusion and in Special and Mainstream Schools Working Together" (Ainscow et al. 1999a) that much confusion surrounded the meaning of inclusion in relation to educational provision. Many stakeholders, within the LEAs included in the study, saw the initiative "as simply involving a move of students from special to mainstream schools, with the

implication that they are 'included' once they are there" (Ainscow et al. 1999a:1). This "geographical" view seems to grow out of the notion of "integration" found in the Warnock report (DES,1978).

In 1996 the Council for Disabled Children produced a policy statement on inclusive education (National Children's Bureau, 1996). This statement acknowledged that much integration practice was the sharing of communal space or activities with mainstream counterparts. However the Council's working definition of inclusion declared that "inclusion requires striving for the optimal growth of all pupils in the most enabling environment by recognising individual strengths and needs" (National Children's Bureau, 1996:7).

Sebba and Ainscow (1996) go further in iterating the distinction between the notions of integration and more contemporary "inclusion". Whilst integration was concerned with the mere location of pupils into the mainstream, the term inclusion refers to the reorganisation of schools and requires innovations in both teaching styles and curriculum design.

> Inclusion describes the process by which a school attempts to respond to all pupils as individuals by reconsidering its curricular organisation and provision. Through this process, the school builds its capacity to accept all pupils from the local community who wish to attend and, in so doing, reduces the need to exclude pupils. (Sebba and Ainscow, 1996:9)

They recommend that a definition of inclusion should reflect three criteria. Firstly that inclusion should be viewed as a process rather than a fixed state; secondly there should be some reference to the link between inclusion and exclusion and, finally, emphasis should be given to restructuring teaching approaches, pupil groupings and the use of support.

In a similar vein Smart (2000:4) believes that inclusion "proposes willingness to restructure approaches in response to the diversity of pupils' needs." Rather than making the child fit the system of the school, Smart suggests it is about the school including children whatever the nature or extent of special need. It is about flexibility in approach, adaptability and willingness to change to enable all pupils to succeed. However just when we seem to be gaining some precision in definition Kilfoyle (1997 in Farrell, 1998:13)

seems to use the terms "inclusion" and "integration" interchangeably! Pearpoint and Forest (1992:xvii), on the other hand, describe inclusion as the first step on the road to integration:

> The word 'inclusion' implies shutting the door after someone has come into the house. Some people still think you can speak of integration without inclusion. Integration, however, begins only when each child truly *belongs* as part of the whole school community. Inclusion is the first necessary step.

This is an interesting contrast with the sequence purported by Sebba and Ainscow! From this account it is easy to see why Feiler and Gibson (1999) believe that the terminology of inclusion may be open to multiple interpretations.

Another term "educational inclusion" is adopted by Farrell (Farrell, M., 2000:35) as distinct from "mainstream inclusion". He believes that the former avoids the implication that venues other than the mainstream are inferior and argues that when placing special needs pupils in mainstream schools the effectiveness of the venue in raising academic, personal and social standards must be paramount. Farrell therefore appears to give credence to the notion that it is possible to include by using special schools, rather than this being the exclusive province of mainstream schools.

Rather than attempting to define the meaning of inclusion, some confer inclusion as a human rights issue (Baehr and Gordenker, 1992; UNESCO, 1994; Forlin and Forlin, 1998; Vaughn in Goodwins, 1999). All children are seen as having a right to an education giving equality of opportunity and the development of individual potential. This can be translated to mean that all pupils should be included into mainstream classrooms regardless of their disability. It is this right that Thomas (1997:103) proposes as a definition of inclusion:

> ... it is about a philosophy of acceptance and about providing a framework within which all children (regardless of the provenance of their difficulty at school) can be valued equally, treated with respect and provided with equal opportunities at school. In short, accepting inclusion means moving from what Roaf (1988) has called an 'obsession with individual learning difficulties' (p.7) and disabilities to an agenda of rights.

It would appear that there is no consensus of opinion when attempting to define inclusion. Ainscow et al (1999b) identified that LEA officers defined it in a variety of ways, some of

which seemed to be no different from earlier definitions of integration. Farrell (2001) identifies that the new draft Code of Practice does little to improve this situation:

> ... the new draft Code of Practice seems to take a view of inclusion that is solely about placing pupils with SEN in mainstream schools and not about improving the practices that should take place within schools to make them inclusive environments for all children. (Farrell, 2001: 7)

Definitions of inclusion have so far concentrated on the needs of pupils with special needs, but they can also be extended to embrace many other groups of people including race, class, gender, sexuality, poverty, unemployment, culture, gifted, those whose first language is not English and pupils at risk of failure because of alcohol or drug abuse. The focus in this study is specifically aimed at the inclusion of children with special educational needs.

In summary one could postulate that an underlying principle of inclusion would seem to consist of two dimensions. Firstly that all children regardless of their ability have the right of access to their local educational environment – equality of opportunity and secondly within that shared environment their diverse strengths, qualities and potential are maximised to the full – management of diversity.

2.3 THE IDEOLOGY OF INCLUSION

To date fewer research studies have been based on the practical aspects of inclusion as opposed to the philosophical and ideological argument. Garner and Gains (2001:20) consider that inclusion has been introduced into schools "without any real debate and on the flimsiest of research evidence that is universally applicable". It might seem that ideology has taken precedence over common sense. Ideological convictions rather than empirical evidence have been at the heart of the inclusion debate (Mittler, 2000). Sebba and Ainscow (1996) in particular highlight the fact that debates have taken place at the philosophical, political and social level.

> Many of those who are supporting the idea [of inclusion] are raising the question why is it that schools throughout the world fail to teach so many pupils successfully? (Sebba and Ainscow, 1996:6)

Skrtic (1991 and 1995) suggests that SEN provision exists purely to hide the failings of mainstream schools. Dessent (1987) went as far as to suggest that special schools do not

have a right to exist and Murray and Penman (1995 in Webster 1999:31) view segregation as offensive. Views that imply human rights are being denied if pupils are not being educated in the mainstream suggest that the inclusion of all children in mainstream schools is required for human rights to be maintained (Shaw in Farrell, M., 2000). However Garner and Gains (2001:20), long time advocates of inclusion, are concerned by the "headlong dash" to achieve full implementation without considering the implications and support necessary for its success.

Inclusion is not always viewed in a positive light and Daniel and King (1997) highlight three adverse outcomes of an inclusive strategy: limitations of parental choice; one size fits all approach and a reduction in the amount of money spent on special needs provision. Arguments that are based solely on human rights may therefore appear logically and conceptually naïve (Farrell, P., 1997; Farrell, P., 2000). Low (1997) argues that the basic right should be for all pupils to receive a good education and this should give parents the right to choose a special school. Wilson (1999; 2000) further highlights the rights of mainstream pupils who may become disadvantaged by SEN pupils being placed in a mainstream school. Unless "responsible inclusion" takes place (Garner and Gains, 2001:20), whereby suitability of school to accept more SEN pupils is examined, schools and pupils might be sacrificed to achieve an ideal.

Whilst inclusion is high on the government's agenda (DfEE, 1997; DfEE, 1998; DfEE, 1999; DfES, 2001) and has gained momentum it is difficult to consider its impact without also considering exclusions which have increased (Parsons and Castle, 1998). There are obvious connections between the two and both require consideration if inclusion is to be developed and exclusions reduced (Sebba and Ainscow, 1996; Booth, 1996). This is an issue which we will return to later in the chapter.

Even when moves towards enabling more children to attend mainstream school are encouraged and accepted, much debate surrounds the quality of that inclusion into the life of the school. One such issue is the segregation of included pupils once they are given access. Feiler and Gibson (1999:148) contend that grouping children by ability "is antithetical to the spirit of inclusion and can be limiting or harmful to those unlucky

enough to be assigned to a 'low ability' group." Clarke et al. (1999) question whether any school can be fully inclusive whilst Farrell (1999 in Goodwins, 1999:8) believes that inclusion always involves some segregation:

> In reality, inclusion within mainstream schools often requires children with SEN to receive specialist help, and this can segregate them from their peers because they are treated differently.

Adopting the approaches of special schools in the form of "individualised responses, based on assessments and systematic programmes of intervention" are seen by Ainscow (1997) as counter-productive and not feasible in the mainstream. This view might be seen as running counter to the management of diversity, but supports the idea that once mainstream access is gained segregation type practices should not be encouraged. The very use of learning support assistants and individual education programmes, direct outcomes of the Code of Practice (DfE, 1994), whilst attempting to aid inclusion, may not have facilitated total access in some schools.

Wedell (1995) believes that responding to individual pupil needs does not have to be regarded as segregation. Indeed he believes this approach is acknowledging pupil diversity. Ainscow (1997:5) develops this notion further in a way that incorporates concern for the diversity of the whole class as opposed to mere individuals. He is cognisant of the fact that to achieve more inclusivity developmental work is necessary for the whole school and is not just about fitting individual pupils into a school. Meeting the needs of the whole school population and thereby raising achievement for all is the message he seems to applaud.

Ainscow's recommendation that school's increase their whole school developmental work is endorsed in Farrell's "educational inclusion". He recommends a partnership type arrangement between mainstream, special schools and pupil referral units. If all venues were equally valued and staff in each worked together then learning needs might be better met through more relevant and appropriate methods (Farrell, M., 2000).

Ideological views certainly differ in regard to what constitutes good inclusion. There seems to be three main thrusts: Firstly that inclusion is about access to mainstream

schools; secondly that it must involve integration into all situations with no segregation type practices and finally that schools other than the mainstream can enable pupils to gain curriculum access.

2.4 INCLUSION AS A CHANGE TO BE MANAGED

The pace of educational change accelerated throughout the 1980's and 1990's. Technological and scientific change has outpaced attitudinal change creating difficulties for some people in reconciling old values to new circumstances. Immense complexities of change post the 1988 Education Reform Act have jeopardised trust, commitment, co-operation and common purpose (Bowe et al. 1992). Schools have become more competitive in the market place, seeking to gain their fair share of available finances, whilst at the same time being aware that an increase in special needs pupils would be likely to deflate their position in the league tables. Teachers have, in general, felt under pressure, overloaded, stressed and juggling with increased administration and a multiplicity of roles.

> It is axiomatic that morale among teachers is low, due to a combination of government policies that many teachers dislike, persistent industrial action through the middle 1980s, a widespread feeling that the social status of teachers has declined, and the need to adapt to extensive radical changes in the curriculum. (Torrington and Weightman, 1989:522)

Change has seemingly been thrust upon teachers against their wish. Fullan (1991:84) believes that "the essence of educational change consists of learning new ways of thinking and doing, new skills, knowledge and attitude, etc." It is about altering practice within an organisation and an individual's perception of their role and responsibilities. This takes time to achieve (Dalin, 1993). The process of change needs to be understood by everyone involved in that change. If change is to happen in schools then the long process of adaptation, development and implementation needs to be managed by each individual school (Dalin, 1993).

Peters (1987:4) demands that flexibility and love of change is a necessary part of any successful organisation "Excellent firms don't believe in excellence – only in constant improvement and constant change." This would lead us to believe that all organisations, including schools, should experiment, adapt and seek change at every opportunity.

However innate conservatism and resistance to change is a factor noted by Ferguson (1982 in Whitaker, 1993:21) and attributed by him to schools not having to compete for customers:

> Schools are entrenched bureaucracies whose practitioners do not compete for business, do not need to be re-elected or to attract patients, customers, clients. Those educators who would like to innovate have relatively little authority to change their style.

Everard and Morris (1996:182) disagree that schools do not have customers. A school has many customers – parents, pupils, governors, employees and government to name just a few. They look at the key principles expounded by Crosby, Juran and Deming and state they are just as applicable to schools as they are to commercial organisations. One such principle is quality:

> Quality is meeting or exceeding the expectations of the customer. Therefore you need to find out what those expectations are and constantly monitor the extent to which you are satisfying them. (Everard and Morris 1996:182)

This is increasingly true since parents have been given the right to choose schools on the basis of school performance. Quality is associated by Peters (1987:468) with change. He emphasises that "constant change is thoroughly consistent with pursuing perfection in quality and service." Changing or developing each individual school so that all pupils are able to achieve their potential (Ainscow,1997) would concur with Peters' view.

The problem with any change is that it is far more difficult to manage than most people imagine it to be. Everyone starts with a different feeling about its desirability and the co-operation of everyone cannot be assumed. Peters (1987) recognised that change can threaten people, especially traditional supervisors and middle managers. People are comfortable with old ways and may feel that they will lose status and control in new situations. The learning of new skills can seem traumatic. The end result is often not fully rationalised at the beginning and the real need for change is not understood. Obstacles can include such things as lack of support, resources and the inevitability that the change will involve much conflict and hard work.

Schein (1969) suggests that changing attitudes is crucial in achieving successful change programmes. He believes it is something which happens over time and has three phases –

"unfreezing" making an individual ready to change, "changing" in which the direction of the change is determined and new attitudes learnt and "re-freezing" in which the new attitudes become part of the person. If this model is related to inclusion then the following steps have to be considered. Initially the "unfreezing" will be about preparing teachers to accept a wider range of special needs pupils in their lessons. This will involve the teachers understanding why the change should happen and themselves believing in it. Unless this "unfreezing" happens then the subsequent steps will not be successful. Once teachers are pro-inclusion then the second step "changing" is about giving teachers the skills to manage the pupils through training and resources including material, human and time to enable the change to be effective. The final step "re-freezing" is when the whole practice becomes part and parcel of the teachers' day to day practice.

It is likely that educational change fails more times than it succeeds because the actual process of achieving the change has been neglected. Change is an on going process and not a one-off event. What happens at one stage of the change process will automatically affect the subsequent phases. Fullan (1991) also recognises that staff must be ready for change if the change is to be successful. It is the leader's role to help them see the need for the change. Unless staff understand the need it is unlikely that the change will be successful. Fullan (1991) identifies nine other factors that interact with the need for change and affects its implementation. These are organised into three main categories relating to (a) the characteristics of the innovation, (b) local roles, and (c) external factors. With so many factors influencing and interacting with change it is crucial that attention is given to the management of the change. Including children with SEN in mainstream schools is a major change and as such requires the process of managing the change to be handled sensitively and sensibly. Teachers need to understand the reason for change and then to be empowered to manage this change.

In any attempts to manage successful change a key element must be strong leadership. Unless the leader has effective skills in managing change then the outcome may result in staff not understanding the need for the change in the first place. Consequently an effective leader must be able to establish a clear vision and harness staff skills in the direction of the required change (Schein, 1969; Fullan, 1991). This leadership role falls,

in the main, to the Headteacher of each school. However, the drive to increase inclusion and manage the consequent change has been generated by the government. Everard (1994:47) points out that

> Some government advisers in the Department for Education (DFE) have shown themselves to be unprofessional in the skills of managing change. The various bodies of wise men and women who have been assembled in Councils, Authorities, Task Groups, Working Parties and kitchen cabinets have contributed much wisdom on what should be, but little common sense in how to make it come about.

Whilst this speaks of change with regard to the National Curriculum the comments could easily be directed at the government's attempts to manage inclusion. Everard's criticism of the government's management of change is attributed to the different time scales of politicians and educationalists "A week is a long time in Politics. Half a decade is a short time in education." (Everard, 1994:47) He recognises that change requiring a cultural adjustment is about learning and learning takes time. No cultural change is brought about by force and demands. With this in mind inclusion will not be successful if teachers do not recognise the value or need to include more children currently taught in special schools.

Ware (1999) suggests that for inclusion to succeed in schools change must be internally driven and must begin at the smallest unit – the level of classroom practice. One might question whether this is indeed the smallest unit or whether teachers should begin at the level of individual pupils. In order to achieve such a bottom up approach teachers need to be in support of the inclusive movement. Teachers may be required to embrace new beliefs and for some teachers this means giving them the knowledge and evidence that inclusion can work. Beyond beliefs they need to understand the relationship between philosophical principles and concrete diagnosis and treatment, to adapt to the changing roles and role relationships between themselves and others and, to manage differing abilities and attitudes in the classroom. Evidence suggests that unless teachers are committed to philosophical beliefs success will be limited (Antonovsky, 1987, Kronick, 1988, Elkins, 1992, Firestone and Pennell, 1993).

Staff development is therefore crucial in any change programme and without it changes may lead to feelings of loss, anxiety and struggle amongst staff (Marris, 1975, in Fullan,

1991). It may be true to say that many teachers have not yet mastered the skills of differentiation needed to teach their current range of ability yet alone face the prospect of a wider range of needs requiring teaching through the increasing amount of inclusion.

Research into inclusion must go beyond the rhetorical and the ideological and focus upon the practical day to day applications for teachers who are at the chalk face of the initiative. It is an undeniable fact that teachers are a huge component in the process of including more SEN children in mainstream education and effective management of that change is tantamount to ensuring that inclusion is successful. With this in mind it is necessary to look not only at the inclusion process from an ideological viewpoint, but in terms of change management in the same way one would if a major restructuring or procedural change were about to be instigated in another industry or commercial enterprise.

2.5 CULTURAL CHANGE

All institutions, including schools have their own individual personalities and idiosyncrasies. These are often called culture. Culture can pervade the work, approaches, beliefs, values and attitudes of everyone within an organisation. However it is difficult to define aspects of each organisation's individual culture because culture is implicit within organisations. Deal and Kennedy define culture as "the way we do it around here" or "what keeps the herd moving west" (Deal and Kennedy, 1983:4).

If one examines some attempts at defining organisational culture it appears that it is concerned with the unwritten rules and acceptable norms encompassed within the organisation. Schein (1985) deems culture to be:

> Observed behavioural regularities, including language and rituals; norms that evolve in working groups; dominant values espoused by an organisation; philosophy that guides an organisation's policy; rules of the game for getting along in the organisation; and the feeling of climate conveyed in an organisation. (Schein, 1985 in Stoll and Fink, 1996:81)

When considering organisational culture it is necessary to look at the deep seated beliefs held by the people within the organisation, by the formal structures, visual images, rules and procedures, communication systems and ways of working. Schein (1985) argues that the term "culture" should be reserved for the

> deeper level of basic assumptions and beliefs that are shared by members of an organisation, that operate unconsciously, and that define in a basic "taken-for-granted" fashion an organisation's view of itself and its environment. (Schein, 1985 in Stoll and Fink, 1996:81)

The culture of a school is therefore likely to contribute to the way that teachers approach and work with SEN pupils. If patterns of beliefs, symbols, rituals, myths and practices develop over time in organisations then schools are likely to be entrenched in ways of working which have evolved over time. If traditionally schools have not had to work with certain SEN pupils then to suddenly have them included in a school will impact upon the teachers and the school's culture. Frederick (in Brown, 2001:17) notes that adapting to SEN pupils is more about the culture of the school "the barriers are more in the mind" than the changing and adaptation to buildings. It is about the willingness on the part of everyone to be inclusive and welcome all students into their local school.

Prosser (1999) names the individual aspect of a school's culture its "unique culture." This has been formed by historical context, environmental factors and people. It would seem likely that this "unique culture" will affect how each school will react to any change. He also recognises other cultural factors which interrelate, coexist and contribute to the overall school culture. These other cultures he terms "generic" – the way all schools are similar; "perceived" - the culture that parents and local community perceive of the school, based on their observations and interactions; wider – the affect of outside influences on the school. If we consider the wider culture with regard to schools then we must recognise that political and societal influences have impacted upon and affected schools. Years of criticism, by the government and media, have sapped public confidence in, and the morale of, teachers.

All schools will consist of a dominant culture and subcultures of various groups. Prosser (1999) identifies two views on school culture. The first is "as a holistic entity that pervades and influences everyone within a school" (Prosser, 1999:14). His second perspective is that

> school culture is the result of multiple interaction: multiple in that individuals and groups who form sub-cultures are influential, and in the sense that there is two-way interaction between school culture and sub-cultures (Prosser, 1999:14).

In this second perspective departments and interest groups are seen to have their own cultures separate from the dominant culture. Whilst subcultures might be viewed as

impacting upon the dominant culture it is wise to remember that subcultures can be influenced by the more dominant, broader aspects of culture. Subcultures may be formed by many different groups of people including teachers, governors, parents and pupils. The latter, as Patterson, Purkey and Parker (1986) observe, can have a marked impact on a school:

> Attention must be paid to the peer culture of students, especially in secondary schools. The extent to which the student culture values academic success or willingly complies with school rules, will affect their achievement. Since student peer culture influences student performance, school staff members must [know] whether the dominant peer culture adds to or detracts from the school's mission. (Patterson, Purkey and Parker, 1986:101)

If the student peer culture impacts upon the dominant school culture then the nature of the peer group will be important to manage if the school culture is not to be adversely affected by this subculture.

If inclusion is to be successfully implemented in mainstream schools then changing the culture of the school may be necessary. In the past much change literature surrounding "changing the culture" has been focused on a change of managerial practices. Marshall (1993:255) believes that change needs to tackle "the thorny issue of how to shift the value system and organisational culture in which past practices" are embedded.

Change, and cultural change in particular, impinges upon people's value systems. Values are those aspects of people's beliefs (the things they hold to be fact) that they have particular strength or interest in and are reflected in what they do and say (their attitudes). Consequently changes in beliefs are difficult as they challenge these core values of individuals. Beliefs therefore tend to be buried at the level of unstated assumptions (Schein, 1992).

The fact that much organisational culture is rooted in events of the past and sustained through stories, rituals, symbols and language of each new generation entering the establishment means that culture can be entrenched and resistant to change. Problems associated with institutional culture and slowness of educational change are evident in many establishments (Sarason, 1971; Deal and Kennedy, 1983; Handy, 1985; Reid et al.,

1987). The very fact that organisations have chosen people because of their cultural fit can work against an organisation when cultural change is on the agenda.

The implication for schools is if they are not "moving" or changing then they must be standing still or declining with the consequence that they must be an ineffective school (Stoll and Fink, 1996). Rapid technological changes and competition in the form of league tables are placing challenges upon schools to change and improve. But are teachers able to adapt to this changing environment? Lortie (1975 in House, 1979:8) ascertained that recruitment, socialisation patterns and work structure made teaching a conservative occupation regarding change and innovation. His study demonstrated that for many teachers career and work rewards were primarily linked to personal contact with children and the job was filled with uncertainties about the ultimate effects on the children. These factors led to a teacher belief system in which conservatism, individualism and "presentism" were dominant. Lortie recognised that, unless the teacher subculture became more collegial, change would be likely to arise outside of the profession with teachers defensive towards it. Lorite's predictions could largely be said to have come true with the educational reforms of the 1980s and 1990s. School staff have been left out of policy debates, but have had to implement the succeeding educational changes (Stoll and Fink, 1996). This has led to schools becoming "fundamentally conservative institutions which have historically resisted change and sought to preserve continuity with their past experiences" (Stoll and Fink, 1996:5).

The policy changes in special needs have certainly meant that schools and teachers have had to adapt and change to different methods and pupils in mainstream schools. To what degree each school has achieved this goal may be due to a school's unique culture and situation. Cultural change is unquestionably anxiety producing because the assumptions that stabilise the world must be given up (Schein, 1992). One wonders what has been the impact of teaching more children with a wider variety of SEN on teachers in the case study school and whether cultural change has been necessary or is in need of attention.

2.6 IMPACT OF INCLUSION UPON TEACHERS

If it is possible to identify the factors that underpin successful inclusion then it may well be that these can serve to inform other situations where inclusion is being attempted. Understanding how inclusion has impacted upon teachers and schools is therefore important to investigate. It is not sufficient to state it is a right and teachers automatically accept the situation without considering the impact upon teachers. Knowing how teachers feel about inclusion, what has been difficult and what has worked well is crucial in planning for and managing successful inclusion. Whilst much literature is devoted to the rights of the individual with special educational needs it falls to mainstream teachers and schools to facilitate those rights and enable access physically, educationally and socially.

It is naïve to assume that increasing the number, range and severity of pupils with special educational needs in mainstream schools will have no impact on teachers and schools. It is not always obvious what that impact has been due to the literature aiming, in the main, at increasing the process of inclusion. If teachers are to manage inclusion then the first step, as in any change programme must be to seek their views.

2.6.1 Teachers' Views on Inclusion

Whatever the ideological views of theorists on inclusion and there is much to support them, less evidence exists to show that teachers are either uniformly in favour of it, or indeed do they consider mainstream schooling appropriate for some children (Feiler and Gibson: 1999). This is perhaps not surprising when one considers the effects of change upon people.

A number of sources suggest that "teachers are not universally supportive of inclusivity" (Feiler and Gibson, 1999:148-149). Garner (2000:113) observes that

> It is widely acknowledged that the concept of inclusion, as indeed SEN itself, is received with various degrees of understanding and commitment across the teaching profession; and, commensurately, it varies in emphasis from school to school.

Responses from teachers, parents and other professionals to a debate on inclusion delivered through the medium of the journal "Special" suggested that there "are some

serious weaknesses in the way in which inclusion is being presented and realised in the current climate" (Garner and Gains, 2001:21). Evidence gathered through this debate identified 122 responses concerned about the practical aspects of inclusion in addition to 30 responses relating to the philosophical principle.

Ward, Center and Bochner (1994 in Feiler and Gibson, 1999) noted that experienced teachers held "cautious views" on inclusion whilst a study of student teachers' attitudes towards inclusion demonstrated that there was no major consensus in its favour (Ward and Le Dean, 1996 in Feiler and Gibson, 1999). An analysis of research, considering 28 studies, into teachers' perceptions of inclusion found that only 40% of teachers believed inclusion to be a realistic goal for most children. It is worth noting that teachers were not considering inclusion for all children, but for most. Even less teachers, 33%, thought that a mainstream classroom was the best placement for a pupil with disabilities (Scruggs and Mastropieri, 1996). Researchers have found that teachers' attitudes and beliefs about inclusion are largely dependent on individual teacher's acceptance of children with disabilities (Ward, Center and Bochner, 1994; Forlin et al., 1996a; Scruggs and Mastropieri, 1996) and their experience of inclusion in reality (Semmel, Abernathy, Butera, and Lesar, 1991) which returns us to the importance of managing change. Farrell (2001) considers that progress towards more inclusive practice has brought about positive developments in the education of SEN pupils, but recognises that everyone does not agree with this view. Some Headteachers would identify pupils with statements and a high percentage of pupils on stages 1 to 3 of the Code of Practice (DfE, 1994) as directly affecting a school's GCSE scores (Norwich and Lunt, 2000; Farrell, 2001). Teachers' beliefs about inclusion would seem to be crucial for its successful realisation and I will explore these further in my own research.

Inclusion is not merely an issue for British schools. Booth and Ainscow's "International Study of Inclusion in Education" (Booth and Ainscow, 1998) recognises a variety of perspectives and approaches. A study of inclusive practices (Forlin et al. 1996b:129) in Western Australian primary schools demonstrates that teachers were not "overly accepting of the policy". In general teachers felt that children with a disability should not be included in mainstream classrooms on a full-time basis. However greater acceptance was

shown for physical as opposed to learning difficulties. When both difficulties were in evidence a rapid decline in acceptance was noted.

Whilst teachers may feel this way towards pupils with sensory, physical or learning difficulties they may be even less welcoming to those with emotional and behavioural difficulties (Wilczenski, 1992). Indeed the teaching unions have "expressed considerable disquiet at the prospect of the further inclusion of pupils with emotional and behavioural difficulties" (Farrell, 2001). This may be due to the adverse effects of their presence on the education of other children (Lindsay, 1997; Feiler and Gibson, 1999).

Let us consider some of the areas that might be affecting teachers' views of inclusion. We shall begin by considering the impact of including pupils with behavioural problems.

2.6.2 Issues adversely affecting teachers' views about inclusion

Behaviour

Inclusion is not easy and the inclusion of pupils with behaviour problems can be stressful for teachers (Male and May, 1997; Bailey, 1999). It may of course not be appropriate for pupils with the most severe behaviour problems to become included in mainstream schools (Brown, 2001). The very presence of pupils with behavioural difficulties can make lessons impossible to teach. In such situations what do teachers do? In an effort to help teachers manage this problem the government passed legislation, section 505a of circular 10/98 (DfEE, 1998), making it easier for them to legitimately remove disruptive pupils from the room if the learning of other pupils is threatened. This may have the benefit of temporarily dealing with the problem, but it does not seem to fit within the overall spirit of inclusion, although it may have a pacifying effect on the parents of other pupils. If teachers are not coping with disruptive pupils who are currently in mainstream schools it is questionable how they will cope with more serious problems. What can teachers do when the behaviour of some pupils is detrimental to the learning of the majority? In some situations, and this is not a new problem, removing pupils from the school, not merely a lesson, may seem like the only answer when dealing with certain persistently disruptive pupils.

David Blunkett, as Education and Employment Secretary, saw the way forward as increasing the number of learning support units in schools to over a thousand within two years (Griffiths, 2000). He viewed the learning support unit as a way of keeping difficult pupils within the school system without damaging the educational opportunities of others, hence section 505a of circular 10/98 (DfEE, 1998). Managing transfers in and out of the support unit however, will require much thought if they are to become more than just "sin-bins".

This approach begs the question will teachers view this as a satisfactory plan to accommodate pupils with behavioural problems? If teachers are not coping with poor behaviour in the classroom then they might see it as a solution. But will the support units enable the pupils to access appropriate education which will equip them for a useful role in society? On first appearances this model does not appear very inclusive, but of course the definition of inclusion depends on whether other environments are viewed as enabling inclusion (Farrell, M., 2000).

Sebba and Ainscow's (1996) definition of inclusion recognises an inevitable link between inclusion and exclusion. If schools are attempting to become more inclusive then that implies that they will be excluding fewer pupils. Booth and Ainscow, (1998:3) look at this inclusion and exclusion process and recognise a "comedy" existing where previously excluded pupils are welcomed in the front door at the same time as others are ushered out the back. It is easy to see that schools may be welcoming pupils with learning, physical or sensory difficulties whilst those with behavioural difficulties are leaving via the back door. Of course pupils with severe challenging behaviour may never find themselves part of the number welcomed in through the front door! It is worth remembering also that behavioural problems may not only be caused by those pupils with EBD (Emotional and Behavioural Difficulties), but by pupils with a variety of other special needs. Teachers are concerned with the symptoms not just the cause.

A Scottish study which specifically looked at how well pupils reintegrated into mainstream schools from EBD special schools found that very few pupils were able to

return successfully to the mainstream (Lloyd and Padfield, 1996) because mainstream staff were resistant to including pupils with behavioural problems.

> Mainstream schools are saying "gi'e us peace!' The current climate in schools will lead to more barriers to reintegration; the job will be harder and harder." (Headteacher of a day special school)
>
> The teachers' work load means that they are saying "no, no you are not dumping any more kids on us." (Headteacher of a special school in Lloyd and Padfield, 1996:181)

This may imply that teachers perceive themselves as a dumping ground. The study does not identify the factors which prove restrictive to inclusion, but "a high level of targeted financial support" was recognised by both mainstream and special schools as "central to successful reintegration" (Lloyd and Padfield, 1996:182).

Whilst one might presume that resistance to including pupils with emotional and behavioural difficulties may be due to lack of financial support and the effect on other pupils, there is undoubtedly a stress effect upon the teachers managing them (Male and May, 1997; Bailey, 1999). It is easy to see that teachers will not want additional pupils with behavioural problems in the mainstream if their very presence is going to make teaching much more difficult and stressful than it is already. It will of course depend on what is important to teachers, in particular their values and beliefs.

In some schools superheads have been employed to turn failing schools around. Torsten Friedag, the first of such superheads, was brought into Islington Arts and Media school under the government's Fresh Start Programme to do such a job. In his newly appointed role as superhead he was faced with having to manage a core of very difficult pupils. He found that turning the school around was an impossible task due to the large number of pupils with behavioural problems and no power to exclude. He argues that "headteachers must retain the power to expel the most disruptive pupils" (Waterhouse, 2000:13). In Friedag's situation, failure by the governors to back his decision to exclude the ringleaders in a school riot resulted in the culprits being reinstated at the school, demoralisation for Friedag and the school staff and, ultimately the resignation of Friedag.

The government has subsequently changed its guidelines to make it easier for heads to exclude the most disruptive pupils. We might recognise here a conflict of ideologies in the paradoxical approach of the government. On the one hand the government is making it easier to exclude pupils whilst on the other hand they have set a target of reducing exclusions by one third by 2002 (Evans, 2000h). Permanent exclusions have been on the increase hitting a peak of 12,300 in 1997-1998, but action to reduce this number resulted in a fall of 1,900 during the period 1999-2000 (Evans, 2000h). Inevitably if exclusions are to be reduced then this will place additional pressure on schools to keep disruptive pupils in schools, add to the stress levels of teachers and increase conflict between school managers and teachers. Jacquie Smith, Schools Minister, insisted that the cutting of exclusions

> ... is being accompanied by decisive action both to get disruptive pupils out of the classroom and to ensure that excluded pupils get a full-time education (Evans, 2000h:4).

Perhaps it's only by increasing the participation of all pupils into the mainstream curricula, culture and community through appropriate management that more pupils will succeed, reduce the pressures to exclude (Booth and Ainscow, 1998) and thereby increase the process of more inclusive schooling. Unless schools can change or learn how to do this there will be times, as shown in Friedag's situation, when exclusion rather than inclusion may be in the interest of the school (Waterhouse, 2000).

If schools are going to manage a greater range of SEN pupils in the mainstream, particularly those with behavioural problems, then teachers' workload will increase. It is hard to imagine that additional work, by bringing more complex individuals into the mainstream, will encourage teachers' views to be pro-inclusion. It is worth considering teachers' workload at this juncture.

Workload

The fact that the pace of change in organisations, including schools, is undoubtedly increasing has already been referred to. Coping with this change may to some extent depend upon the ability of staff to adapt (Dean, 1985). On the other hand the skill of managing the change relies upon different factors, not least the sensitivity of the agent of

change to the climate and conditions of the time. In the current climate it would be true to say that teachers are overloaded with work (Nigel de Gruchy, 1999 in Goodwins, 1999:8).

Nigel de Gruchy, current secretary of the NASUWT teacher's union suggests that the government is attaching too much weight to the rights of the individual child, without considering the context of the rest of the class and school (Nigel de Gruchy, 1999 in Goodwins, 1999:8). In effect the government is not considering how teachers will find the time to successfully meet the individual needs of more pupils with special needs nor how this will impact on all children as a result of individuals exercising their rights.

Workload, is closely linked to a lack of time to successfully do one's job. A survey by Male and May (1997) into stress, burnout and excessive workload identified the latter as a major source of stress for special needs teachers in mainstream schools:

> Pressure arising from a relentless requirement for the completion of paperwork, including documentation relating to the National Curriculum, report writing, annual reviews and the implementation of the Code of Practice, including the preparation of Individual Education Plans (IEPs) was cited by significant numbers of teachers as being a source of stress but was most pronounced for ordinary school SEN teachers and MLD teachers, with 41% and 39% respectively reporting paperwork as being a significant stressor (Male and May, 1997:138)

It would seem to follow that as more subject teachers in mainstream schools are required to manage the learning of children with special needs, then they too will have this increased workload resulting from the added special needs administration which, of course, will be additional to subject demands which we already understand to be considerable.

All governments are keen to make their mark whilst in power. If the government is to convince teachers that inclusion is important and will not create an excessive workload then one way in which they might demonstrate their commitment and provide a further insight into their value systems (Lindsay,1997:56) is by facilitating inclusion through adequate resources being made available to mainstream schools. If teachers' views are to be positive towards inclusion then adequate resources must be made available or again this

will create more of a workload and ultimately affect their views on whether the children should be in mainstream education.

Resources

The Professional Association of Teachers (PAT) representing around 35,000 teachers and lecturers in the UK, whilst supportive of inclusive principles, believes that plans to push forward integration on the cheap are damaging for both pupils and teachers. The general secretary of PAT, Kay Driver, proclaimed "Integration into mainstream classes works where there is adequate funding and support" (Driver in Archer, 1999a:5). This would suggest that inclusion cannot be about penny-pinching. Richard, a SENCO (Special Educational Needs Co-ordinator) in a secondary school felt that

> In some cases children with quite severe learning problems are being used as trophies for a doctrine which is convenient because it is cheap ... and the signs are that children will receive even less protection in the future ... so that their "inclusion" will be nothing more than a tick in a box. We do our best here, and I think we are a good school. But I know that we aren't really meeting the needs of some of the young people here because we're not equipped for it. (Garner and Gains, 2001:21)

Pijl (1999) goes so far as to suggest that the way teachers act in the classroom is dependent upon the resources available to them. He sees resources as going beyond the traditional idea of materials but also covering time and skills.

> ... the term resources does not refer only to the teaching methods and teaching materials, but also to the instructional time available and to the knowledge teachers have acquired through training and experience. All these resources can be used for education. (Pijl, 1999:55-56)

It stands to reason that resources, including time, must be available if effectiveness is to be increased and teacher stress reduced. Gains (1992:50) questions why it is that "senior politicians and others ... refuse to fund the necessary resources to do the job."

It is not good sense that teachers, pupils and parents accept inclusion without the necessary resources to implement it. At Maunds Wood County Primary School in Harlow, where there is an attached specialist unit for children with complex physical and neurological impairments, an argument between the LEA, parents and the charity Scope ensued regarding resources necessary for inclusion to succeed. Parents and Scope maintained that

> While Essex's inclusive policy is, at face value, extremely positive and forward-looking, the LEA does not have enough resources to back it up (Archer, 1999f).

An earlier report by Coopers and Lybrand (1993) noted that pupils with physical disabilities had access to all teaching space in only 265 primary schools and 10% of secondary schools in England. They also pointed out that to provide adequate toilet facilities for children with physical disabilities in all primary schools would cost £59 million. With other costs incurred in other areas of provision is it not a case of fund it to make it work or come up with a different policy?

Obviously resources will not only be needed to adapt buildings, for many, access will be about meeting the needs of pupils in the classroom. Will funding be available for this? Kate Griffiths, a SENCO in a mainstream secondary school in West Yorkshire, believes that long term planning is currently hindered by the LEAs procedure of attaching money to statemented pupils (Goodwins, 1999). This creates a situation where the school is dependent on the number of statemented pupils it receives each year to meet the needs of all pupils with special educational needs. If one bears in mind that the government is also trying to reduce the number of statements, as evidenced in the new Code of Practice (DfES, 2001), then a situation which relies on statements for funding may start to crumble when it finds itself with less finance at the same time as more complex individual needs are included.

Inevitably for inclusion to work it is going to cost money. Thomas (1999) questions where the money is to support this movement. He proposes two answers to his question. Firstly that funding is tied to special schools and not readily available to support a pupil when transferring to mainstream provision.

Thomas' second point is that schools have to be encouraged through levies imposed on those that over-exclude or refuse to admit disabled youngsters. Perhaps financial incentives encouraging schools to admit troublesome pupils and directed also to special schools who demonstrate good integrative and outreach efforts might encourage more inclusion. Thomas (1999) cites the Somerset Inclusion Project as one such system working to the benefit of a more inclusive society. Certainly careful auditing of resources

will be necessary to assist in the redeployment of resources to where they are most needed (Slee, 1999).

Whilst a financially rewarding approach may encourage schools to become more inclusive and indeed perhaps reduce exclusions, it will not necessarily be an incentive for all and it will not guarantee quality provision. Schools in Milton Keynes find themselves in the bottom 30% of LEAs for their performance in the Key Stage 2 tests and will therefore not be in the category of schools benefiting from additional resources (Lake, 2000). It would seem that teachers finding themselves in areas like this are faced with an uphill battle compared to teachers in more advantaged areas. Certainly one cannot imagine teachers' views being pro-inclusion if they find themselves in one of the "bottom 30% of LEAs" and denied the necessary resources to make inclusion work.

Controversially Dr Marks, a former government adviser, recommends an end to the government's policy of placing pupils with significant learning difficulties in mainstream schools owing to the fact that it is not clear whether money is being properly spent. He urges an increase in academic selection between schools and for the introduction of the practice of repeating a year when standards are not reached. He acknowledges

> Many people may recoil from a fundamental review of such a sensitive area of educational policy. But, given the present lack of clarity about where all the money is going, it is surely time to ask some fundamental questions in the interests of all the pupils involved. In particular, should all these children be included in mainstream schools or should existing special schools be retained and developed? (Marks in O'Leary, 2000:6).

Financial resources are understandably an issue for teachers and schools, but training and expertise may also be a pre-requisite in teaching pupils with special educational needs. Most change programmes will require an element of staff development (Fullan, 1991).

Staff Development

Notwithstanding the fact that inclusion for some teachers will necessitate changes in beliefs and values it may also demand that new learning styles, skills and strategies be employed in the classroom. Moving all children into mainstream education implies that all teachers have the skills necessary to teach them. Merely locating children in mainstream

classes does not empower teachers to meet their needs. Any change programme requires, as previously stated, teachers' views and perceptions to be favourable to the change and that is created, in the main, through knowledge and understanding. Staff development is the vehicle by which knowledge, understanding and practical advice is given to teachers.

If inclusion is more than getting everyone into the mainstream then we have to consider how teachers will enable pupils with special needs to access the curriculum and make individual progress relevant to their needs. "Inclusion is more than just having a special needs child sitting in a mainstream classroom" Darlington (in Goodwins, 1999:11). He identifies several reasons why mainstream schools find it difficult to meet the needs of complex needs, including resources and staff training:

> Most mainstream schools find great difficulty in meeting the challenges of children with profound disabilities and complex learning difficulties. Many mainstream schools don't have the high concentration of trained staff, they don't have the equipment, they don't have the pastoral systems – and they do have the tension between a very real wish to include children with special needs and the demands on the school to meet higher performance targets. (Chris Darlington in Goodwins, 1999:11)

So if mainstream schools do not have these skills how are they going to develop them?

One way that increased support and understanding for inclusive schooling could be targeted would be through pre-service teacher education courses. Garner (2000:113) noted that

> .... during their school placement many students receive only nominal direct input on practical matters relating to such fundamental SEN issues as legislation, identification, assessment and behaviour management; they are much less likely to have opportunities to debate the principles and practicalities of inclusion.

Recent data gathered through research suggests that knowledge of special needs issues in initial training programmes is a matter of concern in countries who are actually supportive of inclusive practice (Pijl, 1999). Improving initial teacher training programmes would allow the opportunity for staff to examine personal beliefs in relation to alternative views with the consequence of enabling teachers to grow professionally (Brownlee and Carrington, 2000).

Without adequate training for teachers, reports such as the one commissioned by the NAS (National Autistic Society), "Inclusion and Autism: Is It Working?" may serve to highlight the fact that teachers "lack the necessary expertise, time and specialist support required to cope with *(in this case)* autistic pupils in the classroom" (Evans, 2000g:3). Whilst this is directed specifically at autism and inclusion it is not difficult to recognise that other special needs conditions are also likely to demand the same high level of understanding and skill.

In the earlier definitions of inclusion three main thrusts were identified: inclusion meaning access to mainstream schools; inclusion encompassing a totally inclusive environment within all aspects of the mainstream, and inclusion expressing a broader notion of access to appropriate learning environments, including special schools. In all of these definitions staff development will be a crucial factor if staff are to feel empowered to meet the needs of the pupils.

2.7 INCLUDING PUPILS WHEN THEY ARE IN MAINSTREAM SCHOOLS

We must remind ourselves that inclusion assumes that all children have the right to attend their local mainstream school. If this is the case then all mainstream schools will need to facilitate inclusion for all. So how do mainstream teachers do this?

It is true that many pupils with special educational needs require considerable input from professional outside agencies and will continue to do so despite inclusion within a mainstream environment. This presupposes separate staffing, resourcing, curriculum and planning to be the solution. However a truly inclusive education system should surely have less need for the IEPs (Individual Education Plans) and PSPs (Pupil Support Plans) which signal special needs help is being given. Ensuring curriculum access via appropriate teacher delivery, rather than the identification of individual elements of difference might be a more appropriate method of meeting individual learning needs. Ainscow (1997:5) stresses

> ... inclusion is not about making marginal adjustments but rather about asking fundamental questions concerning the way in which the organisation is currently structured.

Kay Driver, the general secretary of PAT (Professional Association of Teachers) agrees that "The structure of the curriculum is not suitable for all SEN pupils" (Driver in Archer, 1999a). Protagonists of inclusion will accede to the fact that the curriculum is not suitable for all, but would probably go further in saying that schools must therefore change that curriculum.

Rather than merely making adaptations to curriculum areas for pupils with special educational needs, flexibility in the organisation of schooling may be the answer (Slee, 1999). For some pupils the current system of GCSEs is inappropriate and will require schools to develop a range of different courses. Recently at Key Stage 4 schools have been able to substitute other activities in lieu of design and technology, science and modern foreign languages, this has allowed greater flexibility, and possibly more motivational courses (Wade, 1999). The QCA (Qualifications and Curriculum Authority) are encouraging a "qualifications framework which has something in it for everyone" (Wade, 1999:30). In particular they are emphasising more work related learning for some pupils with special educational needs as a way to make the curriculum more inclusive. Whilst this may be a welcome move for teachers, creating and managing the courses may result in additional pressures and workload.

2.71 Learning Support Assistants

In addition to possible curriculum changes the success of inclusion will depend to a great extent on the availability and quality of support (Harrower, 1999; Farrell, P., 2000). One way that mainstream schools aim to fully include pupils with special needs is through the employment of learning support assistants. However unless learning support assistants know what to do, are trained and well managed their presence may become barriers to participation for the very pupils they are trying to include (Ainscow, 2000:).

Booth, Ainscow and Dyson (1998) describe a scenario whereby a learning support assistant completed art work on behalf of a statemented pupil despite the pupil's absence. Equally worrying was the fact that other pupils in the lesson achieved little work due to constant talking and lack of support. A situation such as this poses questions about deployment of learning support assistants as well as teacher/assistant communications and

collaborative working. It serves to support arguments that including children with special needs in the mainstream by merely granting additional support in the form of a learning support assistant is not what inclusion is about (Lake, 2000).

If more pupils are going to be included in mainstream schools then one might speculate that more learning support assistants will be employed. These extra adults are not automatically equipped with the expertise or knowledge to manage the individual needs of pupils with special needs. In fact Thomas (1991) noted that these classroom teams were frequently loosely formulated and as such prey to tensions growing out of role conflict and ambiguity. Bearn and Smith's (1998:15) study of subject teachers' perceptions of learning support roles revealed that "having a support teacher to organise seemed like just another problem to deal with." With this in mind training for teachers should include management and deployment of additional staff in the classroom as well as planning for diversity.

Perhaps one way of reducing the perceived additional workload in managing learning support assistants may be to assign them to subject areas rather than to specific pupils. This might also be a way of getting subject teachers to develop a greater responsibility for adapting their learning and curriculum support programmes (Booth, Ainscow and Dyson in Booth and Ainscow, 1998; Jerwood, 1999).

A successful approach to working with learning support assistants has been illustrated in a recent collaborative action research initiative, the "Improving Teaching" project carried out by teachers in eight schools within the Lewisham LEA (Ainscow and Brown, 1999). The situation described is reminiscent of the "Room Management" approach recommended by Thomas and Jackson (1986) and defined in Thomas (1992). The essence of both the Lewisham project and Room Management is the successful involvement of both teacher and learning support assistant, rather than merely using the assistant as "an extra pair of 'odd-job' hands with no clear aims for their work" (Balshaw, 1992:18). Observations during the Lewisham project depicted a scenario in a Year 2 classroom, where after the initial teacher and class discussion, the teacher and assistant were both meaningfully engaged in pupil interactions.

> As they *(pupils)* started work, the teacher began talking intensively with one group who, she felt, needed to discuss in more detail what they were going to write. Meanwhile the assistant moved around the other five groups, encouraging individuals, providing help where necessary, and keeping an overall eye on the class. After about ten minutes, the two colleagues exchanged role, with the teacher moving to work with the class as a whole and the assistant giving further attention to the group which required more help. (Ainscow, 2000:78)

This would suggest that the adults had established responsibilities and tasks to be achieved prior to the lesson in order to ensure maximum support to all groups.

Earlier it was argued that teachers' views were unlikely to be positive about inclusion if they had not received the training to manage the needs of the pupils. It is obvious therefore that if LSAs are a strategy in the successful management of pupils then training must also be available for them. Unless this is the situation they are unlikely to undertake their role successfully. A recent research study by Farrell, Balshaw and Polat, (1999 in Aird, 2000:107) identified several issues surrounding the employment of LSAs:

- There is a wide variety in the working practice of LSAs employed in mainstream and special schools
- LSAs undertake a wide range of tasks that are complex and challenging
- Many LSAs are concerned about poor career structure and low levels of pay, which indicated the need for a unified career structure
- There needs to be a nationally recognised and accredited training programme for LSAs that is preferably linked to salary and career progression.

All staff working with included youngsters need to feel confident and empowered to manage their learning and behavioural needs. If trained and supported LSAs can make inclusion effective for SEN pupils (Farrell, Balshaw and Polat,1999 in Aird, 2000; Rose, 2000). However the converse of this also applies that if staff do not have the necessary expertise then including pupils in the mainstream might be viewed as negligent.

It seems rather a paradox that pupils with complex needs are being removed from situations where staff are more experienced in meeting their needs and are being placed in vulnerable situations with LSAs and mainstream teachers who do not always have the necessary experience or training to manage them. Taking advantage of the skills and experiences of special school staff, by forging partnerships with special schools, may be

another way to ensure pupils are successfully included once they are in mainstream schools.

2.72 Working with Special Schools

The DfEE (1998) recommends partnerships being formed between everyone involved in the management of children with special needs. They see partnerships existing between special and mainstream schools, LEAs, local agencies and parents. A partnership must accept that all people working with a child will have a unique perception of that child's abilities and difficulties and hence will have a valid contribution to make. It is interesting to note that creating positive relationships and involving others is identified by researchers as important in overall school effectiveness (Reynolds, 1991; Stoll, 1991; Reynolds, 1999). With this in mind one might speculate that collaboration, involvement and partnership may be essential elements to inclusion working.

Schools like St Hugh's, a special school in North Lincolnshire, where Chris Darlington is headteacher, pride themselves on the amount of integrative and outreach work they do with mainstream schools. It is this manner of working that the DfEE (1998:25) recommends as the way forward for special and mainstream schools working together:

> Special schools will need increasingly to work flexibly, taking some pupils perhaps for relatively short periods, rather than for their whole school careers. They will need to work actively with mainstream schools to plan support for children who would benefit from a mainstream setting. They will also need to act as a source of expertise, advice and professional development for mainstream colleagues.

The approach at St Hughes is to work with mainstream colleagues on staff development as well as monitoring closely any steps to include youngsters. A similar scenario exists at St Piers, the national centre for pupils with epilepsy. Links are established with local and international schools and most pupils attend some lessons in a mainstream environment (Dewar, 1999). In order to facilitate staff development a resource centre has been established to disseminate expertise. Similarly the Princess Margaret School in Taunton Somerset has been converted from a special school for youngsters with physical disabilities to an inclusion service for mainstream schools (Bannister et al., 1998). Its success has been attributed to the development of the role of the teacher co-ordinator in

schools where pupils with physical disabilities are being included and the targeting of training to the needs of teachers and schools.

If special school staff develop their role to include working alongside, supporting and advising mainstream colleagues then there are issues for both mainstream and special school teachers to consider. One only has to remember the difficulties encountered by schools in the mid eighties when "Heads of Special Needs" changed to a system of "in-class support" to realise that a change in role could be fraught with difficulties. Problems relating to role clarity or role confusion may become problematic and unless staff, from both mainstream and special schools, establish their individual roles and responsibilities neither will function effectively and disillusionment may result. As previously noted problems of this nature are equally important when learning support assistants are employed to support pupils.

A collaborative style of working may be the best approach to adults working together. This includes learning support assistants working with teachers, teachers working with other teachers, special school teachers working with mainstream teachers or any outside agency working with mainstream teachers. Miller (1999:17) views collaboration between teachers and speech therapists as "cross-pollination" where each can benefit from the other's knowledge. Nias et al. (1989), in their detailed case studies of five primary schools, describe a type of staff culture, the culture of collaboration which makes co-operation among and the assumption of collective responsibility, by the school staff, habitual and taken for granted. It would seem sensible that all schools develop organisational structures that encourage collaboration not only to enable more inclusivity but to help staff reflect and develop their own practice.

The Lewisham "Improving Schools" project (Ainscow, 2000:78-79) did indeed foster such collaboration and led to the formulation of a tentative framework for inclusive practices. This sought to encourage teachers to help one another identify areas for reflection. Three dimensions with additional subsections are suggested:

Dimension 1: Teaching techniques:

the use of questions; formative assessment, planning-in-action.

Dimension 2: Support for learning:

child to child; adults working together; preparation for participation.

Dimension 3: Arrangements for developing practice:

the scrutiny of existing practice; the development of a detailed language of practice; the use of partnerships that encourage experimentation and reflection.

It is Ainscow's view (2000) that a commitment to collaborative problem-solving is the most important contribution that the special education community can make to the development of more inclusive practices in mainstream schools. In particular mutual observation can be a powerful stimulus for teacher development (Joyce and Showers, 1988; Hopkins et al.,1994; Ainscow, 1995).

Whilst special schools have much to offer it will not always be an easy task for mainstream schools to find time to meet, to discuss progress and to plan for the future. A Programme of Action (DfEE, 1998) did not suggest that more time would be made available to enable collaboration or indeed to reduce the teacher: student ratio.

Creating time is dependent on effective time management by professionals. However professionals may not feel they are in control of their time with increased government initiatives and teacher demands. The time issue is one which will probably become more exacerbated as more children with special educational needs, especially those with behavioural problems, are included in mainstream schools.

2.8 INCLUSION BY NOT INCLUDING IN THE MAINSTREAM

If our definition of inclusion allows the view that schools other than the mainstream can in fact enable pupils to gain curriculum access, then special schools can be seen as inclusive too (Farrell, M., 2000). In some cases actually moving all pupils into the mainstream may create an exclusive environment (Darlington in Goodwins, 1999; Lake, 2000). This may be exclusion in the sense of exclusion to another room due to disruptive behaviour or it may mean exclusion from the curriculum due to the necessity to follow more specialised individual programmes which may not be accessed in normal mainstream lessons.

Farrell's view that "educational inclusion" replaces the term "mainstream inclusion" gives weight to the notion that it is more important for a child to be educated well, as opposed to attending a mainstream school regardless of the provision and ability to manage the pupil's needs (Farrell, M., 2000).

Although Blunkett (DfEE, 1998) purports to only increasing inclusion where parents want it the magazine "Special Children" highlights the fact that special school closures seem to be happening and creating "compulsory inclusivity" regardless of parents' wishes for their child to continue their education in a special school environment (Archer, 1999c; Archer, 1999d; Archer, 1999f; Evans, 2000b; Evans 2000c). Hitchcock's informal conversations with teachers and managers around the country leads him to believe that parents are being misinformed about their rights whilst LEA officers are "controlling admissions to special schools in order to engineer falling roles" (Hitchcock, 2000:8). He questions specifically the impact of this practice on the careers of teachers in special schools, as well as the quality of education for the pupils assigned to mainstream education. Resources and expertise are but two factors lost in this scenario. As Everard (1994:48) reminds us "Culture change is not brought about by force-feeding and exhortation, be the exhorter ever so high and mighty." Closing special schools may be one strategy in the government's attempt to implement change in mainstream schools, but this is hardly likely to be a positive step in changing perceptions, values, attitudes and the climatic culture in mainstream schools nor an opportunity to unfreeze current beliefs (Schein:1969).

Concerns by Walsall headteachers about the proposed closure of seven special schools highlighted fears relating to lack of support and help for teachers in managing pupils with emotional and behavioural difficulties, the impact upon schools and overall pupil performance (Evans, 2000f). This wholesale closure of special schools may not be the answer to encouraging more inclusion, especially in the area of emotional and behavioural difficulties. As we have seen teachers believe that managing pupils with behavioural problems is difficult to accomplish and will need convincing of the value of including them in mainstream schools. Unless the proposals have been thought through and provision made then this action seems tantamount to failure and certainly contra to our broad view of inclusion (Farrell, M., 2000).

An initiative at an EBD Merseyside school established that with skilled support and positive attitudes a substantial increase in pupils returning and succeeding in the mainstream was witnessed (Tootill and Spalding, 2000). However the report clearly states that for pupils with extreme behaviour, considering the resources and levels of support available, "it would be unrealistic to attempt reintegration" (Tootill and Spalding, 2000:117). Closing special schools when inclusion is clearly "unrealistic" is nothing less than negligent.

Lindsay (1997) recommended a type of half-way house approach to providing specialist provision. Rather than all mainstream schools working towards including a full range of special needs provision certain targeted mainstream schools could provide specialist provision. This would in effect reduce the need for professionals to liaise with all mainstream schools, but would not allow all pupils access to their local mainstream school. In effect it would merely relocate special school provision onto certain selected mainstream sites.

It would obviously be a wise move to shut special schools if in fact evidence pointed to a lack of achievement for pupils attending them, but this does not always seem to be the case. Evidence reflects the fact that some special schools are being awarded standards of excellence (Archer, 1999b; Archer, 1999e; Evans, 2000a; Lake, 2000). Lake, a governor of a MLD (Moderate Learning Difficulties) school is quick to point out that the results achieved by pupils in his school are making a difference.

> The national expectations published in the recent PANDA report are for 39.3% of MLD school children at Key Stage 2 to have reached Level 2 or above. At White Spire MLD school, Bletchley, the figure was 79.3%. So special schools **can** make a difference – an enormous difference! (Lake, 2000:8)

Whilst these results are to be applauded evidence to determine the school gives value added cannot be verified. If special schools are making a difference to a child's education surely there is value in their existence. Lake (2000:8) suggests that an included pupil with MLD may in fact be condemned to "educational and social **exclusion,** lost among a host of higher-performing, but still demanding children, who take up most of the mainstream teacher's time." Is this the perception of staff in special schools or does a similar belief exist in mainstream schools? Certainly descriptions of pupils with behaviour problems

succeeding in special schools and taking an active role in the community emphasises that the high expectations demanded of them, in addition to intrinsic rewards inherent in some special school systems can move pupil attitudes from a self-fulfilling prophecy to that of success (Fulford, 2000; Evans, 2000d; Evans, 2000e).

It is true that the government is forcing LEAs to accelerate a policy of mainstream inclusion (DfEE, 1998), but perhaps it is special schools who facilitate real inclusion for some pupils with special educational needs (Lake, 2000; Farrell, M., 2000, Evans 2000d). So is mainstream inclusion merely "a smokescreen for the old concept of 'integration' (into the cheapest place, whatever the needs or facilities to meet them)?" (Lake, 2000:8) The government would argue it's not and would suggest the financial resources provided demonstrate the priority they are giving to special educational needs in mainstream schools (DfEE, 1998).

It would seem that inclusion must address more than a bit of extra help to pupils for it to work well. Managing diversity necessitates that teachers and schools consider overall organisation, curriculum and classroom practice, support for learning and staff development (Ainscow, 1997; Harrop, 2000). The impact of this overall change of approach will mean that all teachers will have to take full responsibility for the needs of all pupils within their classrooms. But, once again this returns us to the notion that for this to happen teachers' attitudes must be pro-inclusion and the change managed successfully.

Bearing in mind teachers' perceptions does this suggest that a strong case remains for maintaining a variety of educational placements and giving equal value to each (Farrell, M., 2000) or does it mean that educators should turn their attention to changing teachers' knowledge, beliefs and skills through staff development?

2.9 SPREADING THE WORD

We have already seen that teachers may be wary of total inclusion and need to be convinced that inclusion does work. They need to be aware of any good practice that exists. There would be value in particularly inclusive LEAs such as Newham (Lane,

1999), Somerset (Bannister et al., 1998) and Sandwell (Watts, 1999) working with and encouraging other authorities to consider their approaches and possibly adopt similar measures. If, via articles and the media, greater attention was paid to successful inclusive projects then teachers' beliefs might become increasingly pro inclusion.

Integration of pupils into the primary sector was the main thrust of Newham's inclusive approach. Complementing this with a philosophy that young people have a right to be educated with their peers, a flexible use of budgets, resourced provision in specific schools, a career structure for learning support staff and thorough training for all staff meant that Newham LEA was able to provide a more inclusive education system (Lane, 1999). Extending good practice nationally is also a goal of the LEA:

> There's a lot going on in this country that people aren't aware of What we need is to get it collated in some way, then get it spread as good practice so other authorities who want to go down this road can have the confidence to do so. There are others who have done a lot of imaginative work, like Stockport and Salford. (Lane, 1999:23)

Appointing teacher co-ordinators to help manage the transition from special school provision to an inclusive service resulted in increased confidence and skills of all staff involved in the mainstream Somerset schools (Bannister et al., 1998). Indications suggest that their success grew out of collaborative working and confidence gained due to appropriate training:

> Class teachers assumed more responsibility for planning, for the delivery of the curriculum and for the direct liaison with support assistants in their classrooms. The input of assistants was valued by class teachers, and decision-making and differentiation on a daily basis was increasingly becoming part of their role alongside regular liaison with speech and language therapists, physiotherapists and parents (Bannister et al., 1998:68).

In the Sandwell authority, Phil Watts, Head of the multi-professional Child Psychology Service, believes that an integrated multi-professional approach helped to raise achievements and improved chances for pupils with special educational needs (Watts, 1999). Training for all their schools on whole school issues such as improving reading standards, policy, rules, routines reinforcement, sanctions, classroom management, anti-bullying, developing a positive ethos was followed by whole school training on identified needs within individual schools. Much work also centred on teachers' classroom management skills, in particular the introduction of assertive management.

As well as training, Sandwell schools have received additional finance through a changed funding formula. Schools received resources based on the actual numbers of pupils with special needs listed on the school's SEN register. Monitoring how those resources were used was undertaken by the authority.

It is no surprise that the Sandwell authority attribute much of their success to an early intervention policy and a plethora of initiatives designed to support their policy of increased inclusion. The outcome is undoubtedly closure of special schools and unoccupied special school places which will eventually lead to the demise of those remaining. Whilst the LEA's success is to be applauded the report only gives the view of LEA officials possibly eager to demonstrate their success. As portrayed earlier little evidence exists to show that teachers are pro-inclusion (Scruggs and Mastropieri, 1996; Feiler and Gibson, 1999; Garner, 2000; Garner and Gains, 2001; Farrell, 2001). Booth and Ainscow's study (1998:246) goes some way in collecting teachers' views from eight different countries concluding that "more research that recognises the complexity and plurality of perspectives, voices and interests" needs to be undertaken in order to inform views on inclusion and exclusion.

As a result of the Green paper (DfEE, 1997) and the subsequent Programme of Action (DfEE, 1998) LEAs have been asked to develop policies for encouraging inclusive education. LEAs were required "to publish information about their policy on inclusion in their Education Development Plans" (DfEE, 1998:22). It is no surprise therefore that authorities are eager to demonstrate their success in this venture (Bannister et al., 1998; Lane, 1999; Watts, 1999). Farrell warns against the danger

> ... that local education authorities (possibly vulnerable and unsure of their future role) may be tempted to participate in a 'race' for mainstream inclusion based on league tables (Farrell, M., 2000:37).

Support for schools and teachers in managing inclusion will be important for LEAs to realise. Recently support in the form of "The Index" (Booth et al., 2000) has been supplied to all schools to enable them to develop more inclusive practice. It is aimed at helping schools to raise awareness of inclusion within their own environment and consequently enable greater participation for all students by focusing on collaboration to create inclusive cultures, produce inclusive policies and evolve inclusive practices.

Perhaps the interesting question still remains the one posed by this thesis "What has been the impact of inclusion on teachers in a mainstream secondary school?" The success of inclusion at Sandwell, Somerset and Newham and the subsequent dissemination of practice via special needs journals is a good start in spreading inclusive practices to other schools. LEA targets may be to reduce the number of SEN pupils in specialist provision whilst increasing those attending mainstream. This is a target that authorities seem to be achieving as evidenced by the number of special schools currently being closed or under threat of closure (Archer, 1999c; Archer, 1999d; Archer, 1999f; Evans, 2000b; Evans, 2000c). However what is not clear is the extent to which pupils from special schools are actually attending mainstream schools and whether they are succeeding. The views of teachers who are faced with the task of creating an inclusive environment are important if best practice is to be encouraged and forwarded. Finding out from teachers what is happening in mainstream schools, how they are coping with the changes and what they are doing to facilitate inclusion will be the real proof of whether inclusion is succeeding.

2.10 SUMMARY

This literature review has identified that more literature exists on the philosophical and ideological aspects of inclusion than on the practical aspects. Much confusion exists about the definition of the term and ideologies vary as to the extent pupils should be included in mainstream provision. Some believe it is the right of all pupils to be educated in their local mainstream school whilst others would argue that inclusion must concentrate on ensuring that once included in mainstream schools no segregated practices are in evidence. A further and contrary opinion would suggest that real inclusion can occur in schools other than the mainstream and that a move to include pupils with special needs in mainstream schools is a retrograde step merely emphasising pupils' exclusion from mainstream provision.

Several issues likely to impact upon teachers in mainstream schools have been highlighted. From these a recipe seems to be developing that for inclusion to be successful in mainstream schools the following must be addressed: beliefs must be pro inclusion; teachers have to buy into the idea; training should be appropriate; resources must be available; the curriculum should be relevant; teachers need to adapt their working

habits to include more collaborative working and finally a wider notion of inclusion requires consideration.

The following chapter describes the methodology employed in order to research the impact of inclusion on teachers in the case study school.

CHAPTER 3

METHODOLOGY

3.1 INTRODUCTION

The methodological perspective used to investigate the impact of inclusion upon teachers is explained in this chapter. The design and limitations of the research are discussed and the steps taken to ensure validity and reliability in the research are described.

In order to understand teachers' experiences of inclusion and the impact of this initiative on them it is important to listen to the views of teachers. In the introduction to this thesis I conveyed my own thoughts and assumptions relating to teachers' views on inclusion, but these reflected my own perspective and needed to be explored with staff. It was therefore important that these presuppositions did not influence the research.

The literature review, chapter two, demonstrated that evidence to date had not, in the main, recorded teachers' voices. Additionally there seemed to be a demand on teachers and schools to change in order for inclusive practice to be successful. Listening to the voice of teachers is important in considering what changes have happened, what is being revisited and what effect inclusion is having in our schools. Understanding how teachers are managing inclusion in reality is therefore important to gain some image of the likelihood of the scheme succeeding and to forward good practice. The first step was therefore to choose a relevant methodological perspective from which to research.

3.2 QUANTITATIVE AND QUALITATIVE RESEARCH METHODOLOGIES

Quantitative and qualitative research methods reflect researchers' different epistemological and ontological backgrounds. Best and Kahn (1998) divide these methodologies into two major paradigms, the former known as logical-positivism and the latter phenomenological inquiry. The main differences in these two research methods can be detected in both the approaches and type of data collected.

Quantitative research utilises an experimental type approach where the main concern is with the testing of theories (Hammersley and Atkinson, 1983). On the other hand

qualitative research associates with symbolic interactionism, participant observation and ethnography and uses a variety of interpretative methodologies. Hammersley and Atkinson (1983:7) remind us that in qualitative research "people *interpret* stimuli". Researchers who adopt the positivist approach to the natural world collect hard data which is real and external to the researcher. Quantitative research methods have therefore favoured scientific experimental research. On the other hand researchers adopting a qualitative approach extol the importance of individual subjective experience. At times the latter has been known as soft, non-quantitative and consequently underrated.

As early as 1932 William Waller, in "Sociology of Teaching", proved to be an early exponent of qualitative methodology. He relied on in-depth interviews and observations to describe the social world of teachers and students. He states

> Children and teachers are not disembodied intelligencies, not instructing machines and learning machines, but whole human beings tied together in a complex maze of social interconnections. The school is a social world because human beings live in it. (Waller, 1932:1, in Bogdan and Biklen, 1998:11)

During the late 1980's and early 1990's Hammersley (1993) notes a shift from the dominance of quantitative methods in the area of educational research, to the increasing use of qualitative approaches. He emphasises that this is not simply a change in technique, but also constitutes changes "at a deeper level, in terms of ideas about the nature and purpose of research." (Hammersley, 1993: ix)

Qualitative research has been particularly influenced by the philosophers Edmund Husserl (1859-1938) and Alfred Schutz (1899-1959). They tried to understand how and what meaning people construct around events in their every day life. There is no attempt to claim assertions are the absolute truth, but are plausible given the data and context. It is for this reason that qualitative researchers tend to view themselves as empirical researchers. They see their work as a

> Particular rendering or interpretation of reality grounded in the empirical world. They believe that the qualitative research tradition produces an interpretation of reality that is useful in understanding the human condition. That is the logic in their claim to legitimacy. (Bogdan and Biklen, 1998:25)

Qualitative research is therefore an umbrella term covering the type of data collected. This tends to be soft, that is to say rich in its description of people, places or

conversations. As such this data is not easily handled by statistics, unlike quantitative data. Research questions tend to be formulated to investigate topics rather than specific questions or hypotheses needing to be answered as would be in evidence in quantitative research.

3.3 METHODOLOGICAL PERSPECTIVE USED IN THIS RESEARCH

The desire to listen to the voice and opinion of teachers suggested an approach that was flexible, open-ended and might expose underlying assumptions and suggest alternative meanings and implications. A qualitative research approach seemed to best meet this need as it "reflects the subjective reality of the people being studied" (Burgess, 1985b:113) and would therefore be useful in allowing an interpretation of the teachers' reality. Although I had assumptions about the impact of inclusion on teachers these were not hypotheses to be tested. Allowing the voices of teachers to be heard was critical to the study and my own values and assumptions needed to be suppressed. The research question "What has been the impact of inclusion on teachers in a mainstream secondary school?" was the vehicle to investigate the topic.

3.4 RESEARCH DESIGN

Having considered my preferred methodology for this research the next stage was to decide upon the design. A multi-site study was rejected because of the scale of this research. The Doctor of Education criteria also recommended that the research be an in-depth study on a specialism that could be applied to the researcher's individual organisational context. Consequently I chose to design the research as a case study in my own school where I felt more able to understand the phenomenological reality of the teachers and the cultural setting within which they functioned.

3.41 Case Study

Case study can be quite an eclectic approach to research (Yin, 1989). It belongs to the group of methods that uses qualitative data and, like other qualitative methods, it attempts to develop an understanding of individuals and events in their natural state taking into account the relevant context. It has been defined by Stake, (1995:xi) as

> ... the study of the particularity and complexity of a single case, coming to understand its activity within important circumstances.

and by Robson (1998:5) as

> ...a strategy for doing research which involves an empirical investigation of a particular contemporary phenomenon within its real life context using multiple sources of evidence.

Looking at how inclusion had impacted upon the teachers in my own school was the "phenomenon" I endeavoured to study. Obtaining descriptive views about the effects of inclusion upon staff, in addition to their interpretations and beliefs about inclusion, was important. I aimed to gather data generated directly from my respondents' experience and beliefs rather than from ideologists' or my own personal views of what should be happening in schools. I was aware that the values of the respondents would undoubtedly affect the outcome of the research as would the choice of teachers chosen for the research. In addition a different group of informants might raise alternative issues about inclusion and its impact on teachers (Gay, 1992). Consequently the case study approach, focusing on only one school, would not allow the results to be generalised to other schools.

3.5 TEACHER AS RESEARCHER

In qualitative research the researcher plays a central role in the elucidation and interpretation of data. It is not only about describing the way things are, but also with gaining insight into how things have arrived at how they are, how people feel about the way things are, what they believe and the meaning people attach to circumstances.

Researching in my own school would require me to suspend my preconceptions and seek the multiple realities from the teachers actively involved in managing inclusion in the classroom. I also needed to be aware that my role as teacher and researcher might influence the data (Best and Khan, 1998). On the one hand my role as researcher might affect teachers' perspectives and behaviour, whilst on the other hand teachers' perspectives might affect my research. The attention paid to informants might lead to information that was not representative of teachers' true feelings, but aimed at being recorded for posterity (Hammersley and Atkinson, 1995). An additional consideration was the danger of subjective bias, a constant threat to objective data-gathering and analysis, creeping into the work. This was an issue I had to be aware of and I tried to eliminate bias by triangulation of data, methods, and the placing of issues within the context of theoretical knowledge.

Although I was conscious of my role as teacher and researcher influencing the research there were undoubtedly benefits to teaching and researching in the same establishment. Understanding the context of inclusion was an enormous benefit to the research. The ability to gain access to staff, rather than negotiating access through an unknown gate-keeper, was also helpful. In addition it was probably true to say that I had greater rapport with staff than I would have had with staff in another school and therefore I was in a position to possibly gather more in-depth views. Czarniawska-Joerges (1998:v) recognises that "Qualitative research using narrative methods enables researchers to place themselves at the interface between persons, stories and organisations, and to place the person in an emotional and organisational context." Researching in other schools would not have enabled me to have this in-depth understanding of the social interactions and context specific to the case study school. However, whilst there was a greater opportunity for acquiring in-depth understanding and insight into the impact of inclusion on teachers at the case study school, this additional knowledge and my own perception of reality might affect my interpretation of the data and influence the reliability of the research (Gay, 1992).

Whilst I had my own assumptions concerning the impact of inclusion upon teachers I didn't want these to influence the research. I wanted to take the theories and issues arising from the teachers and test them out with other staff. Glaser and Strauss (1967) had identified that many theories generated by researchers were unsound as they were not "grounded" in the empirical world. Some theories were "poorly generated in the social activity they sought to explain" (Woods, 1996: 67). Such theories tended to have poor predictive value and were unreliable in practical situations. The "grounded theory" method therefore emphasises discovery rather than testing of theory:

> Concepts emerge from the field, are checked and re-checked against further data, compared with other material, strengthened or perhaps re-formulated. Models of systems are built up in the process of research, and gradually a theory comes into being with its distinctive characteristic of explanation and prediction linking the revealed concepts into an integrated framework, the operationalization of which has been demonstrated. (Woods in Burgess, 1985a:51)

Merely speculating about theories was not sufficient if the impact of inclusion upon teachers was to be truly representative of the situation in the case study school. I wanted to approach the research "largely as a process of discovery, bound by as few preconceptions as possible" (Borg et al., 1993:95). No hypothesis was suggested, although my own

assumptions were made explicit in the introduction, and attempts were made to understand inclusion from my subjects' own frame of reference.

3.6 DATA COLLECTION TECHNIQUES

In order to achieve my objective of gaining in-depth understanding I needed to decide how I would collect my data. Qualitative methods consist of three main types of data collection that can be used together or in isolation: 1 - in-depth, open-ended interviews; 2 - direct observation ; 3 - written documents. These methods are useful in attempting to understand the meaning of events, feelings and interactions, all pertinent for this particular research.

Finding out how inclusion had impacted upon teachers seemed to be best addressed by interviewing staff. People are often more willing to talk than write things down (Best and Kahn, 1998:320). Also it is possible to clarify meanings and explore issues in more depth, whilst gaining an insight into the informant's sincerity. However I needed to be aware how questions were framed as this might bias the data.

3.61 Sampling

Even within a single case study it is not feasible to gather detailed information from everyone. It was therefore necessary to create a means of sampling. Decisions needed to be made concerning who would be giving in-depth information. I was keen to gain a variety of opinions and attitudes from the whole staff involved at different levels of management, rather than a purely random sample which might not cover a broad range of expertise and experience. I therefore chose a purposive sample based on the staffing structure at the school. I wanted to question staff at each level of the staffing structure: Headteacher (HT), Deputy Headteacher (DH), Middle Manager (HOF), Junior Manager (JM) and Mainscale Teacher (MT). In addition I considered it worth collecting perspectives from a Long Serving Teacher(LST) from the teaching staff and a Newly Qualified Teacher (NQT). The chosen sample would undoubtedly influence the research and a danger existed that being only a small sample the evidence would lead to an unwarranted feeling of certainty about the validity of their responses.

The Headteacher and Longest Serving Teacher required no subsequent sampling, but all other positions required further choice. At this juncture simple random sampling was chosen to decide between informants. Names were put into a container and drawn out. I had to choose between two Deputies, seven Heads of Faculty, twenty seven Junior Managers, twenty six Mainscale Teachers and one from three Newly Qualified Teachers.

All my informants, apart from one who subsequently withdrew, were keen to be interviewed and agreed to the interviews being tape-recorded. The one reluctant teacher, a Head of Faculty, when approached for an interview time, said he was too busy to do an interview. A second random sample was therefore made from the group of Faculty Heads.

3.62 Interviews

Having chosen the teachers through both purposive and simple random sampling the format of the interview schedule needed to be selected. Whilst a structured interview would ensure a rigorous approach was followed with each interviewee, a semi-strucured format was employed. A semi-structured format, rather than an unstructured or structured format, seemed sensible as this would enable me to have a general outline, but not restrict the informant to areas or thoughts generated by myself. It also allowed the freedom to be able to explore issues or ideas with the informant as they arose. This meant that replicating interviews was not possible due to the uniqueness of each one.

The interview schedule was divided into sections: general comments relating to the informant's length of experience; understanding of the concept of inclusion; how the informant had been personally affected by inclusion and their views on the wider implications of inclusion. Questions posed frequently related to my assumptions and evidence gleaned through the literature review. Consequently it was important when such questions were asked that the interviewee was not influenced by my view and perspective. The style of the questions were therefore predominantly open-ended to elicit the teacher's real views and to gain the benefit of answers phrased in the informant's own words. However, funnelling and closed questions were at times used to verify teacher's answers and opinions and to check for consistency. A copy of the interview schedule depicting the type of questions asked is shown in Appendix 1.

The first interview with a Head of Faculty, who was leaving the school, was designed to be a pilot. However the data generated was too rich to be merely a pilot exercise and was included because no significant changes were needed before carrying out the main study. This interview therefore became the main interview with a Head of Faculty.

Each interview lasted between forty-five minutes and one hour and covered the same basic areas, although some issues were debated longer with some informants and the ordering of the questions changed according to where the conversation was leading.

Taping the interviews was vital as I was later able to revisit the questions and answers and it aided accuracy of data. It would not have been possible to engage in such in-depth detail with the issues raised had I been judiciously trying to take notes (Hammersley and Atkinson, 1983). The ability to review the tapes raised issues that I had not always noted during the interview and consequently enabled me on several occasions to return to the informants for clarification or further exploration (Maykut and Morehouse, 1997).

I decided to transcribe all of the interviews as soon as possible after each interview as this was one way of immersing myself in the data and enabling themes of interest and relevance to be identified (Anderson et al., 1994). It also allowed me to see if my questions were leading for the informant and informed my subsequent interviews with other staff. Although the transcriptions were time consuming each were transcribed as soon as possible after the interview, allowing me to reflect upon issues and rethink questions whilst still fresh in mind (Maykut and Morehouse, 1997).

Transcribing the interviews made the manipulation of the data, necessary for data analysis, easier due to it being visually displayed. Transcriptions were then shown to informants to ensure that the material correctly reflected their views. This was a form of respondent validation (Hammersley and Atkinson, 1995: 228), normally used when observing practice and useful for allowing respondents to endorse or refute evidence. This subsequent discussion of the written interview was also useful in limiting the different possible interpretations of the data. I did, however, realise the limitations of respondent validation

as it is not always possible to assume that the truth of the respondent's account is guaranteed even when validated.

All identified key informants offered a perspective, but it was important throughout to remember that their perspective was only one truth, indeed no person is completely consistent in their views from one moment to another. I also needed to be aware of the existence of multiple realities. Best and Kahn (1998:7) acknowledge this complexity of human nature, "It is much more difficult to develop sound theories of human behaviour than to predict occurrences in the physical world." When one considers the additional limitations of only interviewing a small, purposive sample in a single case study one realises that the results cannot be generalised to other teachers in other schools.

3.63 Triangulation

Triangulation is a way of attempting, by its multi-methods approach, to help explain some of the complexities of human behaviour and Robson believes it to be "an indispensable tool in real world enquiry." (Robson, 1998:383)

If triangulation is "indispensable" in qualitative research what exactly do we mean by the term? Cohen and Manion (1989:269) define it "as the use of two or more methods of data collection in the study of some aspect of human behaviour." In simple terms it is a way of cross-checking data collected using one method, such as in an interview, with the accuracy of data gathered in another way, for instance during an observation. The term itself seems to derive from an analogy with navigation and surveying. In the same way that a surveyor uses several points on a map to pinpoint a single spot or location, so someone, such as an ethnographer, working within the social sciences attempts to explain more fully the complexity of human nature and the accuracy of conclusions drawn by triangulating with several sources of data.

Triangulation does not only have to be applied to methods of data collection. Denzin notes six ways of triangulating: time triangulation, space triangulation, combined levels of triangulation, theoretical triangulation, investigator triangulation and methodological triangulation (Denzin, 1970 in Cohen and Manion 1989:272). Of these methodological

triangulation is the most widely used in educational research, although, time, space, and investigator triangulation are also used.

Denzin identifies two types of methodological triangulation, "within methods" and "between methods". The former works as a reliability check by repeating the study again to see if the same results are found, whilst the latter involves the use of more than one method of data collection. It was the latter approach that I employed in this research.

Perhaps one of the most important functions of triangulation is an aid to reducing researcher bias. Exclusive reliance on one method can distort the researcher's view of the situation. Evidence from more than one source can therefore help to eliminate this bias and increase reliability (Stake, 1995). Triangulation would prevent me from accepting, too readily, the information collected from my interviews as being conclusive evidence of the impact of inclusion on teachers in the case study. I was also aware that triangulation of data sources might turn up new and productive directions for further exploration in addition to shedding light onto multiple realities through various perspectives gleaned from different respondents (Denzin,1984).

Although triangulation would enable the data to be validated through cross-checking it would not necessarily eliminate all the errors and weaknesses found in qualitative research. It was still important to bear in mind the accuracy of the data, the affect of my presence in the field, the weaknesses, both actual and potential, of methods and my own interpretation of the data (Hammersley, 1990). First and foremost I had to decide which method to combine with the interviews in order to complement the data.

Observations and interviews are probably the two methods that are most often used together when methodology is triangulated. However triangulation can include data collection methods traditionally thought of as belonging to the quantitative paradigm (Hargreaves, 1967; Lacey, 1966; Lacey, 1970; Ball, 1981). Woods (1996:45) recognises that research methods can strongly influence the outcome of a study and a problem for qualitative research is "that between involvement, immersion and empathy on the one hand, and distance and scientific appraisal and objectivity on the other." Research projects that combine the use of both qualitative and quantitative methods may perhaps help allay this problem. It would not be possible, owing to time constraints, to interview more

teachers, therefore I needed a convenient method that would collect data from a wider sample. It was for this reason that a questionnaire in the form of an opinionnaire was chosen.

3.64 Opinionnaire

Although questionnaires have not always been popular with qualitative researchers, Woods (1986:114-115) states that:

> Recently, however, there has been a softening of this position, so that a growing number of researchers are ceasing to regard this as a dichotomy of different paradigms, and rather as a dimension with different poles (see, for example Hammersley, 1984).

Questionnaires can be useful in providing objective data and can act as a test of theories generated locally (Woods, 1985). I felt the issues raised by the key informants could be built into a questionnaire and distributed to all teachers at the school. Thus the questionnaire would not be the prime instrument but an aid to the interpretative data.

I wanted to measure how teachers felt about inclusion. Constructing the questionnaire as an opinionnaire in a Likert-type scale would allow me to measure depth of feeling about issues (Best and Kahn, 1998). I needed to consider other teachers' views on the issues that had been raised during the interviews. This required pertinent issues raised in the interviews be turned into statements for teachers to respond to in a favourable or unfavourable manner. All statements included in the opinionnaire expressed opinions held by other staff in the school. Four anchor points were used, from "strongly disagree" to "strongly agree", to enable some expression of strength of feeling. The middle ground was omitted in order to prevent respondents from not giving an opinion (Robson, 1998). At the end of the opinionnaire the teachers were asked to nominate two statements they most agreed with and two they most disagreed with. This was designed to aid clarification of some of their views. Additionally, a final section was added to elicit views not previously expressed by the key informants. An example of the opinionnaire can be found in Appendix 2. Once the statements had been generated a pilot was tested on the eight learning support assistants working at the school. This enabled me to check for internal consistency and eliminate ambiguous statements. No sampling of the opinionnaire was necessary as they were given to all teachers at the school.

3.65 Weaknesses of methods

No method of data collection provides one hundred per cent accurate and reliable information. In this research interviews and questionnaires, in the form of an opinionnaire, were the prime mode of data collection and both have their weaknesses.

Interviews are particularly time-consuming. Piaget claimed that to be a good interviewer required a year's daily practice (Piaget in Brannigan, 1996:11). Interviewers need the skills of rapport, ability to ask probing questions and recognise the need to be organised and fully prepared (Lincoln and Guba, 1985; Stake, 1995). The quality of the data is thus highly dependent on the quality of the interviewer. Although an interview schedule was employed limitations exist due to: lack of specific questions being asked to all interviewees; questions being asked in a different order and greater experience being gained for the later interviews. Dean and Whyte (1958 in Hammersley and Atkinson,1983) argue that it is more important "to consider what the informants' statements reveal about his or her feelings and perceptions, and what inferences can be made from these about the actual environment and events he or she has experienced." Interviews can be prone to investigator bias and respondents' answers can be geared to please the interviewer, or to reflect socially acceptable attitudes, rather than a true reflection of the respondent's feelings. This was an issue I felt was pertinent to my interviews possibly due to my role as special needs co-ordinator. Teachers may have felt that speaking favourably about inclusion might secure more support for their classes or commenting disparagingly might result in them taking less special needs groups. However they may have answered according to what they believed I wanted to hear or because they believed themselves to be "speaking for posterity" (Hammersley and Atkinson, 1995: 143). Patton states:

> The purpose of interviewing is to find out what is in or on someone else's mind. The purpose of open-ended interviewing is not to put things in someone's mind (for example, the interviewer's preconceived categories for organizing the world) but to access the perspective of the person being interviewed (Patton, 1990:278 in Best and Kahn, 1998:254)

The temptation to assume that interview responses represent stable feelings and opinions cannot automatically be assumed.

Questionnaires on the other hand can fall victim to the fact that no-one is there to explain the meaning of certain questions and this can result in a low response. In addition they may have self selecting bias with those who return the forms having different attitudes and views to those who do not. Bias also exists in respondents' answers as these may be influenced by other questions asked on the form and the ordering of questions, as well as respondents being able to consult others. Lack of spontaneous responses can result in researchers not always getting the information they desire. As a consequence the findings elicited might not be representative of the total study population (Kumar, 1996).

The opinionnaire had been designed as a Likert Scale and whilst this was aimed at uncovering opinions about the impact of inclusion upon teachers it does not measure attitude per se, but the strength of one respondent in relation to another. The data may infer or estimate the attitude of those who returned the form, but it is the respondents' expressed reaction and cannot be known for sure. Inferring attitude from expressed opinion has many limitations. People may conceal their attitudes and express socially acceptable opinions or they may not have previously given the issue any thought. The Likert Scale may be inexact and may not measure opinion with the precision required. There is no evidence to suggest that the four anchor points "strongly disagree" to "strongly agree" are equally spaced. For instance the interval between "strongly disagree" and "disagree" may not be equal to the interval between "strongly agree" and "agree". It is also unlikely that the statements are of equal value when it comes to weight of expressed feeling. Equally doubtful is whether scores from respondents are evidence of equal favourableness towards a statement. Finally although the opinionnaires were anonymous there exists the possibility that respondents completed them according to what they think they should feel rather than how they do feel.

Although the complementary use of interviews and opinionnaires would help to eliminate the weaknesses found in a single method it was important to be cognisant of the fact that the weaknesses inherent within the different methods still existed. Hammersley and Atkinson, (1995: 232) note that triangulating methods is not,

> the combination of different kinds of data *per se*, but rather an attempt to relate different sorts of data in such a way as to counteract various possible threats to the validity of our analysis.

If diverse sources of data did lead to the same conclusions then I would start to feel more confident about conclusions drawn (Hammersley and Atkinson, 1983). Sieber (1973 in Burgess 1985c:4) comments that different methods used alongside each other may not automatically be of value to a project. It is important that they are carefully integrated within the research project rather than tacked on as an after-thought. Even if different methods are being employed to negate the weaknesses of individual methods, if I as the researcher did not suspend my preconceptions, have an open mind, or simply not see the evidence clearly then method triangulation would not increase the reliability of the data.

3.7 REFLEXIVITY

I was aware that my role as teacher and researcher might influence the outcome of the project by affecting participant responses and therefore it was important to reflect upon my presence in the field. Hammersley and Atkinson (1995) observe that researchers often do have an affect on the people they study. They recommend that the researcher becomes an active participant in the research process "He or she is the research instrument *par excellence*." (Hammersley and Atkinson, 1995:19).

Data gathered through the interviews and the opinionnaires meant very little until it had been analysed. Whilst the methods employed in the research could be interrogated for validity and reliability, replicating the thought processes I followed would be impossible for another researcher to duplicate. Hester, (in Burgess, 1985c:247) warns that however correctly methods have been applied to research

> there remains the problem that the sociologist has to interpret the meanings of that talk and action in order to arrive at inferences about what is going on "out there." (Hester in Burgess, 1985c:247)

As both researcher and teacher in the case study school my views on what was happening would be evident in my interpretation of the data. I needed to be aware of my reasons for including and leaving out data as this would affect the eventual outcome of the research. Leaving time available at the end of the data-gathering process was also important if I was to interpret and reflect on the immense amount of evidence available (Hammersley and Atkinson 1995:206).

Hammersley and Atkinson, (1995:232) also warn the researcher not to adopt a "naively optimistic view" that the collection of varying data will unproblematically lead to a more complete picture. They emphasize that data should not be taken at "face value." Triangulation, is "not a matter of checking whether data are valid, but of discovering which inferences from those data are valid". Therefore merely combining interviews with an opinionnaire would not necessarily verify the validity of the data. As the instrument in the research, I would need to make better sense of the data by reflecting upon it within context. One way that validity can be enhanced is by showing the data to the individuals being studied. Therefore, as previously stated, I gave the informants a copy of their interview transcripts to read, discuss and explain. This aided the verification of the data and my subsequent interpretation (Hammersley and Atkinson, 1983). However no copies of the opinionnaires were given back to the staff for verification as they were completed anonymously.

It is worth noting that inferences drawn from data are from a moment in time, events will continue happening and perceptions will continue to be conceived after the project. In my research, data gathered through a small sample of interviews and opinionnaires would reflect a minority of teachers' views at a particular moment, but any number of incidents might have affected the teachers and led to their responses. Consequently any data gathered "consists of only glimpsed fragments of the social life being investigated." (Hester in Burgess, 1985c:246) Interviewing the same staff on different days might have resulted in different evidence being collected.

Relying on only one piece of data, such as the interviews, may have led to the interpretation of data being incorrect, due to the possibility of error creeping into my inferences. However if data collected from both the interviews and the opinionnaire led to the same conclusion then I would be more confident in the conclusion. However, as previously stated, if results agreed this provided no guarantee that my inferences were correct. It might be that all of the inferences were false and that as a result of random or systematic error they led to the same false conclusion. Equally if the techniques for gathering the information were not reliable then the interpretation of data would not be valid (Robson, 1998).

Hammersley and Atkinson (1995:205) believe that much ethnographic research suffers from lack of reflexivity on the part of the researcher:

> The data required to check a particular interpretation are often missing; the typicality of crucial items of data cannot be checked; or some of the comparative cases necessary for developing and testing an emerging set of analytic ideas have not been investigated.

Hammersley and Atkinson attribute these problems to the fact that much data is collected "but little time is left for reflection on the significance of the data and the implications for further data collection" (Hammersley and Atkinson, 1995:206). So what exactly should a researcher do to reflect upon the data? As a rule if a researcher engages in a process of self-examination this can help to determine the researcher's own biases and whether he or she attempted to keep any biases from influencing the data. It was therefore necessary for myself as the researcher to be reflexive about the data gathered. Galton and Delamont (in Burgess:1985a) refer to this process as cultural relativism whereby the researcher separates judgements, personal reactions and value statements from the interviews and collection of data.

3.8 SUMMARY

The methodological perspective used to research the impact of inclusion upon teachers is qualitative in approach. The research is designed as a case study in my own school and the data methods incorporate both interviews and opinionnaires. The former enabled the main issues pertinent to teachers and schools to be raised whilst the latter acted both as a means to triangulate the information and to gauge depth and range of feeling amongst staff. As the main research instrument my role, presence and interpretation of the data are major factors in the interpretation and analysis of data. This is identified and made explicit. In the next chapter the data from the interviews and opinionnaires is presented and discussed.

CHAPTER 4

PRESENTATION AND DISCUSSION OF DATA

4.1 INTRODUCTION

This chapter simultaneously analyses and discusses the data from both the interviews and opinionnaires. Five key themes are identified and data is presented to illustrate the analysis. No efforts are made to generalise the findings to other schools and teachers, but interpretations of the data are made in order to arrive at inferences about what is going on in the case study school.

4.2 QUALITATIVE DATA

Qualitative data generates information that is "rich", "full" and "real" (Robson, 1998). Miles (1979) describes it as an "attractive nuisance". It is unlike quantitative data in that pre-structured schedules have not been devised to collect the data. Data gathered is less objective than the more traditional measured quantitative data. As a consequence it is more difficult to determine whether the data is valid. The researcher is the instrument and has decided on what, how, when, where from and from whom, to collect the data.

> The challenge is to make sense of massive amounts of data, reduce the volume of information, identify significant patterns, and construct a framework for communicating the essence of what the data reveal. (Patton, 1990:371-372)

The researcher is required to check on the validity of the data by engaging in a process of self examination to determine biases and whether attempts were made to keep bias from influencing the data.

Although one might presume that the data collection in this research began with the interviews and opinionnaires, in reality it began with the formulation and clarification of the research question. Stake (1995:71) observes that "Analysis is a matter of giving meaning to first impressions as well as to final compilations." Analysis ran concurrently with the gathering of data (Bogdan and Biklen, 1998), and the emerging theories from early interviews were grounded in the subsequent interviews. This analysis, whilst in the field, allowed the emerging theories to be tested out with later respondents (Glaser and Strauss, 1967). The investigative process in this research was thus a cyclical one of data

collection, reflecting, reading, coding, further data collection, reflecting, reading, re-coding in order to make sense of the issues. As theories about the impact of inclusion on teachers were being generated, further data which supported or challenged these theories was being sought through later interviews, the opinionnaire and the literature (Stake, 1995).

To aid the analysis of the information generated by the interviewees the data was organised into the emerging themes from the interviews. Each respondent's opinion on an issue was then examined alongside the views of other staff enabling similarities and differences to be noted. Summarising and colour coding the interviewees' responses allowed recurring patterns and issues to be viewed at a glance whilst allowing one to recognise individual respondent's views (Robson,1998). At this point some of the data was reassigned and re-sorted under different categories in order to keep relevant issues together (Lincoln and Guba, 1985). Once the data had been organised into categories the next step was to look for underlying themes and issues.

In order to see whether the small sample of seven interviewees were representative of other teachers at the case study school, their comments and views on inclusion were built into an opinionnaire and distributed to all teaching staff. This was a form of methodological triangulation (Denzin, 1984) aimed at reducing researcher bias and increasing reliability of data (Stake, 1995). These were subsequently analysed. If the evidence from the opinionnaires led to the same conclusions as the evidence from the interviews then this might help to prove the validity of the research (Hammersley and Atkinson, 1983). This additional data, whilst incorporating qualitative answers in the final open-ended section was more quantitative and could be used to measure depth of feeling. The possibility that new ideas might be generated, in addition to illuminating the multiple realities of the respondents, is a benefit of the "between methods" form of triangulation (Denzin, 1984).

The opinionnaire was distributed to sixty eight teaching staff following explanation at a staff meeting. A brief covering note accompanied the form and a deadline date of one week was given for the return (Gay, 1992). An initial follow up strategy, via a reminder

on the staff board, midway through the week and a subsequent reminder at the end of the week was aimed at encouraging a greater percentage response (Gay, 1992).

The analysis of the data from the "opinionnaires" shows the responses for all teachers, to each question on the form (Appendix 3). A score of 1 identifies where staff "disagree strongly" and 4 where they "agree strongly" with the statement. No mid ground was given on the form in order to dissuade people from giving a non-committal response (Robson, 1998). However some staff chose not to answer certain questions, this may suggest that they were undecided in their view, did not know the answer, or alternatively had no strong feeling. No score has been allocated to such responses.

The number of responses given under each point on the scale are shown in Appendix 4. This enables one to see at a glance the number of people giving similar weight of feeling to an issue.

Further analysis of the data (Figure 4.1) serves to group those who disagree and strongly disagree together and those who agree and strongly agree together, which allows one to see the overall number of teachers for or against a statement.

Figure 4.1 Summary of Teachers' Responses

	All Pupils	Disagree	Agree
1	Have right to attend mainstream	15	20
2	Shouldn't have to have SEN lessons	29	5
3	Should be included in learning process	4	29
4	Can cope in mainstream	31	4
5	Should be with others	2	34
6	Should do the same work	31	2
7	Have access to suitable courses	16	20
8	Achieve well at KS3	19	14
9	Achieve well at KS4	25	8
	Pupils with behaviour problems		
10	Are difficult to include	3	32
11	Adversely affect others	3	33
12	Need a disciplined approach	22	9
13	Should be taught in separate classes	11	17
14	Should be taught in separate schools	20	10
15	Are a cause for concern	2	34

Figure 4.1 Summary of Teachers' Responses Continued

	Teachers	Disagree	Agree
16	Find SEN pupils stressful	8	24
17	Shouldn't have to deal with poor behaviour	18	15
18	Should work with special school staff	8	27
19	Find similar pupils easier to teach	3	34
20	Have time to meet with outside agencies	28	6
21	Are doing exceptional work	17	15
22	Believe inclusion is good	25	9
23	Have not been affected by inclusion	33	1
24	Enjoy the challenge	28	5
25	Have changed their practices	6	29
26	Found college training useful	31	4
27	Find Inset training helpful	18	17
28	Have appropriate expectations	16	18
29	Have time to plan	32	3
30	Have increased workload	3	31
31	Require no specific skills	32	3
32	Should have same approach for all	29	5
33	Use rewards effectively	15	20
34	Are good at target setting	22	13
35	Find monitoring easy	32	1
36	Use LSAs proactively	17	17
37	Plan with LSAs	29	6
38	Like LSAs in subjects areas	5	28
39	Like LSAs to work with a group	5	29
40	Use LSAs to develop resources	22	11
41	Collaborate over SEN approaches	19	15
42	Think practical subjects best for inclusion	11	20
43	Meet with parents	33	2
44	Share responsibility with parents	4	31
45	Feel teacher image improving	30	5
	Mainstream schools		
46	Should not exclude	35	1
47	Can meet all needs	32	3
48	Should make behaviour criteria for entry	26	10
49	Have plenty of resources	24	12
50	Should have special schools funding	7	22
51	Should have alternative systems	1	34
52	Should identify specific teachers	4	31
53	Need more support	1	32
54	League rankings are not affected	27	5
	Inclusion		
55	Has affected school less than others	20	7
56	Is beneficial for mainstream schools	25	8
57	Raises standards for all pupils	31	5
58	Is less costly than special schools	10	22
59	Is aimed at reducing exclusions	7	25
60	Helps teachers develop skills	13	21
61	Enables more pupils to get help	13	20
62	Benefits society	16	15

Statements that staff most agreed with, or disagreed with, are shown in Figure 4.2. It was likely that these would be the comments that staff felt the strongest about and might help to uncover what teachers felt had been the impact of inclusion on them.

Figure 4.2 Statements Teachers Felt Most Strongly For/Against

	All Pupils	Strongly disagree	Strongly Agree
1	Have right to attend mainstream	4	3
2	Shouldn't have to have SEN lessons	1	1
3	Should be included in learning process	0	1
4	Can cope in mainstream	2	0
5	Should be with others	0	2
6	Should do the same work	4	0
7	Have access to suitable courses	0	3
	Pupils with behaviour problems		
10	Are difficult to include	0	3
11	Adversely affect others	1	7
12	Need a disciplined approach	3	0
14	Should be taught in separate schools	1	1
15	Are a cause for concern	0	7
	Teachers		
16	Find SEN pupils stressful	0	5
17	Shouldn't have to deal with poor behaviour	0	2
18	Should work with special school staff	0	1
20	Have time to meet with outside agencies	3	1
22	Believe inclusion is good	1	0
23	Have not been affected by inclusion	1	0
24	Enjoy the challenge	1	0
26	Found college training useful	5	0
29	Have time to plan	3	0
30	Have increased workload	1	3
31	Require no specific skills	5	0
32	Should have same approach for all	4	0
33	Use rewards effectively	0	3
38	Like LSAs in subjects areas	0	3
43	Meet with parents	1	0
44	Share responsibility with parents	0	1
45	Feel teacher image improving	2	0
	Mainstream schools		
46	Should not exclude	12	0
47	Can meet all needs	3	0
49	Have plenty of resources	2	1
51	Should have alternative systems	0	9
52	Should identify specific teachers	0	1
53	Need more support	0	1
54	League rankings are not affected	1	0
	Inclusion		
58	Is less costly than special schools	0	3
59	Is aimed at reducing exclusions	0	4

4.3 LIMITATIONS

The data presented in this chapter is the evidence I believe has been gleaned as a result of the case study research. However the results obtained are context dependent and would lose validity in another context or at a different time. It is important to remember that each individual, each culture and each setting is unique and appreciate this uniqueness. Consequently it is not possible to generalise these findings to other schools or other teachers.

In this case study only a small sample of seven teachers were interviewed. Interviewing a different set of teachers would have generated different data. In the analysis of the interview data it was not possible to determine whether the subject the teachers taught affected the impact of inclusion on them. It had not been feasible to interview someone from every subject area, however most major subject areas were represented. The teachers interviewed had taught in the following subject areas, although not all subjects were the teacher's main area of expertise: Maths, English, PE, Science, Art, Graphics, Technology, Textiles, Workshops, ICT (Information and Communication Technology), PSE (Personal and Social Education), Geography, General Studies and Geology. Interviewing a small sample of informants meant that it was not possible to establish that someone's view was representative of a teacher in a specific subject. Even if I had interviewed someone from every department, establishing whether their evidence was representative of all teachers in that department would have been difficult. Neither was it possible to assert that a view was evidence of managerial responsibility, gender or length of service. Interviewing only seven informants meant that views generated were only representative of that informant at that particular time. For this research the emphasis, as in much qualitative research, was in the unique characteristics of the case study (Hammersley, 1989). Stake (1995:7) reminds us that whilst case study seems like a poor basis for generalisation "certain activities or problems or responses will come up again and again." Whilst generalisation was not a particular concern of the research it seemed reasonable to suppose that certain issues pertinent at the case study school might be identifiable as inclusion issues for other schools.

Using the opinionnaire was useful in aiding validation and reliability of data (Hammersley and Atkinson, 1983; Stake, 1995). Additionally it added depth of feeling to statements made by the informants. However like the interviews it did not represent the views of all teachers in a subject area, all teachers at a particular level of management, or teachers' length of experience. Indeed subject area, length of service and level of management were not investigated. Of the sixty eight forms distributed to teachers thirty seven were returned giving a percentage return of 54%. Consequently feelings were not necessarily representative of the whole staff as I had no knowledge of the views of 46% of teachers. This was another limiting factor in any claims to generalisation (Robson, 1998; Gay, 1992; Hammersley, 1989). All subsequent references to percentages are percentages of the return rather than the whole staff. The graphs illustrated in the subsequent analyses identify the number of responses to relevant questions. These figures are changed into percentages when used to present evidence in support of key issues being proposed. The five key issues identified are not presented in order of priority or importance.

4.4 KEY ISSUE ONE - The nature and extent of the impact of inclusion depends upon how teachers define "inclusion" and whether or not they believe it to be a positive strategy.

The literature review had demonstrated that defining inclusion was not as straightforward as one might imagine. Inclusion for some meant all pupils being educated in a mainstream school, whilst for others inclusion was ensuring that once admitted to a mainstream school no segregated practices occurred. Still others believed that real inclusion was about ensuring the learning needs of everyone were being met and this could occur in schools other than the mainstream.

At its simplest level inclusion was defined by one informant in the case study school as "Including children into mainstream education" (MT - Mainscale Teacher) with another adding "including everyone into the same lesson" (JMT - Junior Management Teacher). But explanations from others had wording suggesting negative views implicit within their definition "Include all pupils despite their ability either behavioural, educational, physical" (HoF - Head of Faculty). Other comments were more explicitly negative in their definition of "inclusion". The Head of Faculty described it as "dealing with problems" whilst

another defined it as "including difficult children into mainstream classes" (LST - Longest Serving Teacher).

In the interviews some of the teachers had given a personal view explaining how hard it was to cope with some children in the classroom, rather than their understanding of the term "inclusion". Clearly teachers perceived inclusion to relate predominantly to those with behavioural problems. Evidence that teachers believed that pupils with other forms of SEN would have difficulties being included into a mainstream school were not explicit. Neither was there a consensus of opinion about defining "inclusion" and how it should be achieved. Instead teachers were linking "inclusion" with problems or with managing difficult pupils. The use of the word "despite" in one explanation might imply that the teacher saw the disability in preference to the child's strengths and abilities. This would intimate that the working definition of inclusion by the Council for Disabled Children (National Children's Bureau, 1996) "inclusion requires striving for the optimal growth of all pupils in the most enabling environment by recognising individual strengths and needs" was not part and parcel of all teachers' beliefs and practices.

The first three questions on the opinionnaire sought to identify the teachers' underlying beliefs about inclusion (Figure 4.3). Teachers' views differ as to whether they believe all pupils have a right to attend a mainstream school with 54% agreeing and 41% disagreeing. This is further emphasised when one considers that three staff strongly agree and four staff strongly disagree with the statement (Figure 4.2). More overall teacher agreement can be recognised with the other two statements (Figure 4.3). With regard to teachers' feelings about segregation, in order to follow SEN lessons, 78% of teachers believed that SEN pupils should have specific SEN lessons. However two teachers also graded this statement as one they felt most strongly about with one strongly disagreeing and one strongly agreeing with the practice (Figure 4.2). Even more teachers, 92% (34) demonstrated at a later point on the form that alternative arrangements should be available for some pupils (Figure 4.1). 78% of teachers also felt that including them in the learning process was more important than including them in a particular school. What was not made clear from the opinionnaire was whether teachers were in fact referring to special schools.

Figure 4.3 Table of definitions

Definitions	Disagree	%	Agree	%
All pupils should have the right to attend their local mainstream school	15	41%	20	54%
All pupils should not have to attend special classes or be withdrawn for special programmes	29	78%	5	14%
All pupils should be included in the process of learning rather than in a particular school	4	11%	29	78%

It would seem that the majority of teachers believed if more SEN pupils were being educated in a mainstream school then segregated practices would need to happen in order for their needs to be met. This contrasts with views held by Feiler and Gibson (1999:148) who had argued that segregation in mainstream schools was "antithetical to the spirit of inclusion." It was not clear whether teachers were in favour of segregated practices in order to avoid having to teach SEN pupils or whether they thought they would not be able to successfully meet the pupils' needs. If the teachers' definitions of "inclusion" are an expression of their current beliefs one would assume that the former is the case. Teachers' views at the case study school were more closely aligned with those of Dr Peter Farrell (1999 in Goodwins, 1999:8) who proposed that mainstream inclusion was always likely to require specialist provision for SEN pupils. Beliefs that all pupils should be included in the process of learning rather than in a specific school supports Michael Farrell's notion of inclusion, in particular his notion of "educational inclusion" (Farrell, M., 2000). Whilst this might intimate that teachers' skills are not sufficiently developed to meet a greater range of SEN an implication remains that the pupils would be better educated elsewhere, or alternatively teachers do not want them in their school.

The literature review had demonstrated that ideological convictions were at the heart of the inclusion debate. To what extent did the data demonstrate that teachers, in the case study school, believe inclusion a positive situation and the right of all children? Certainly there existed views, among the informants interviewed, that it was a child's right to attend a mainstream school:

> All children are entitled to their education. If they are in a special school they are missing out on the social aspects of a mainstream school. They have to mix after school (MT).

However, although some views demonstrated teachers were considering the rights of the included child, other comments illustrated that inclusion and rights was a two edged sword when it came to pupils with behavioural difficulties:

> It is important that we include all pupils as far as we possibly can, but I think inclusion can be pushed to the point where you are jeopardising the progress of others in order to include a person who despite the range of strategies, despite the range of opportunities that you make available to them, is still distracting other pupils from learning and therefore at that stage they would have to be excluded (DH – Deputy Headteacher).

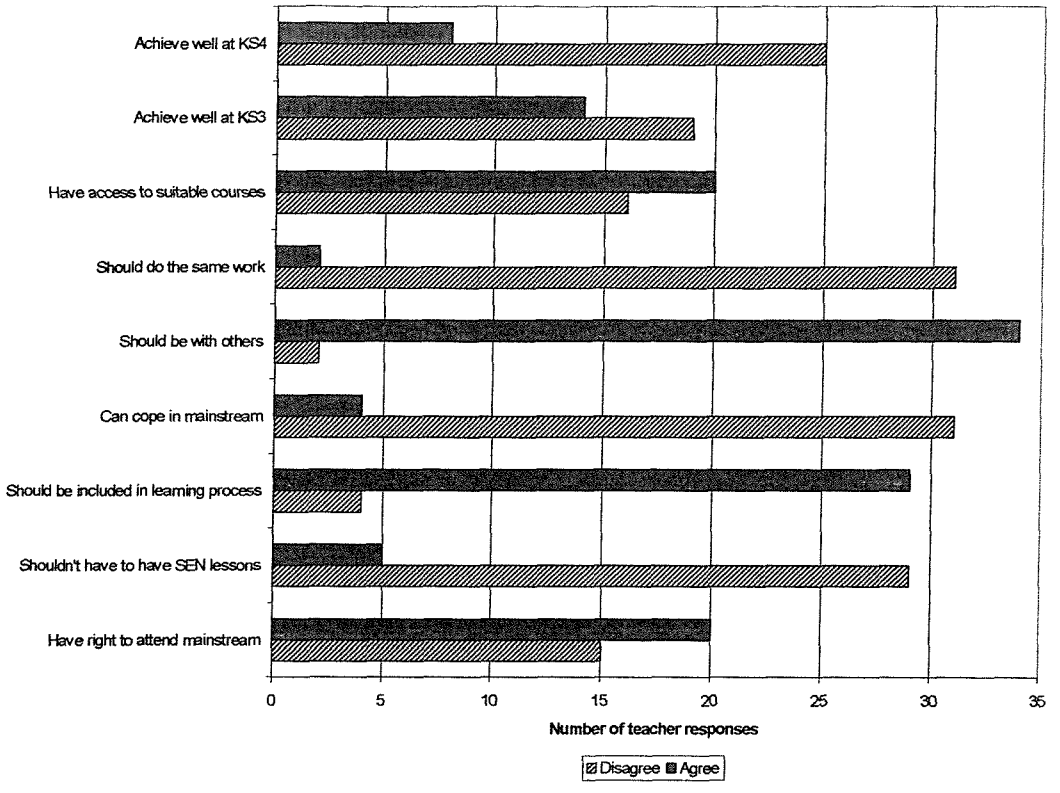
The Headteacher was able to view the rights of all children from different vantage points:

> ... as a member of the community I agree with it (*with the policy of including all children in mainstream schools*), because at the moment the alternatives outside schools for education, the alternatives for different types of education are so scarce that I see children not in school being denied what they have a right to. They are denied education, they are denied any sort of social care. So yes I do think as many *(children)* as possible should be incorporated. But then as a teacher I see that my colleagues are having a disproportionate burden put upon them. I think they find it (*inclusion*) hugely difficult and hugely tiring and they stop giving in the ways that they might otherwise give ... and help conventional children (HT - Headteacher).

He aptly sums up the conflict of inclusion faced by schools attempting to do what is morally correct at the same time as balancing it with what is academically challenging. He recognises that teachers are finding it difficult to cope with the challenge of teaching SEN pupils, and more specifically those with behaviour problems. Both he and the Deputy Headteacher express a view that other pupils are suffering due to the policy of inclusion. However from an ideological point of view the Headteacher believes inclusion is important.

Teachers demonstrated differing views, on the opinionnaire, about all pupils' right to attend a local mainstream school: 54% thought that all pupils did have a right whilst 41% disagreed (Figure 4.3). It certainly implied that teachers' views were not solidly pro-inclusion.

Figure 4.4 All Pupils



The most interesting point to note is the gap between ideology and reality evidenced by teachers responses to the first and fourth questions on the opinionnaire (Figure 4.4). Whilst 54% (20) of teachers agreed that all pupils had a right to attend a mainstream school, only 15% (3) of these teachers in reality believed that included pupils could cope once admitted (Appendix 3). Altogether 84% of the teachers (31) felt that included pupils were not able to cope with a mainstream education. The reasons for this may be associated with the behaviour and difficulties of the included pupils or alternatively may be due to schools' and teachers' inability to manage the needs of a greater range of SEN pupils. One would speculate that if teachers are having to teach pupils they believe cannot cope in a mainstream school, either because the behaviour of the pupils is not appropriate for mainstream school, or because the school and teachers have not adapted to meet the needs of the pupils, then teachers will find inclusion difficult and will not consider it to be a positive situation. This would certainly imply that inclusion has to be more than merely relocating SEN pupils into a mainstream environment and that "responsible inclusion" is imperative (Garner and Gains, 2001).

Teachers believed that schools needed to have the ability to exclude pupils and two teachers raised exclusions in their definitions of "inclusion". Another teacher suggested that it was getting harder to exclude pupils for "exceptionally poor behaviour" (NQT – Newly Qualified Teacher) whilst the Headteacher acknowledged that

> Too often schools are driven to think about inclusion as an alternative to exclusion and therefore they focus on how to cater and cope with the most disruptive pupils (HT).

The majority of teachers at the case study school perceived that mainstream schools should have the facility to exclude pupils. Indeed this question demonstrated the greatest agreement amongst the respondents on the opinionnaire with 95% of teachers (35) believing that mainstream schools should be able to exclude (Figure 4.1). Only one teacher thought that mainstream schools should not exclude. This statement also seemed to be the one that teachers felt most strongly about (Figure 4.2). However the research did not investigate with teachers frequency or extent of exclusions. There was a view amongst 68% of teachers (25) that "inclusion" was just the government's way of reducing exclusions (Figure 4.1). Of these 25 teachers 72% also thought it was a less costly alternative to special schools (Appendix 3). Underlying thoughts seemed to be that inclusion was not about helping all children to function in the mainstream, but to keep disruptive pupils in mainstream schools regardless of behaviour and the difficulty they posed to teachers. The Deputy Head had argued that the reduction of exclusions was financially driven:

> Exclusion costs too much. It's a basic principle. Exclusion is linked with crime, crime is linked with costs, exclusion is linked with image. Not only are schools judged on image, but the government is judged on image and it's purely a political tool that the government have got involved in (DH).

He perceived that exclusions were costing the government too much money therefore they were attempting to sell the positives of inclusion to schools, the right of all pupils to attend a mainstream school. Perhaps coincidentally the Headteacher notices a "huge bureaucracy" connected to the process of exclusion. One might conclude that this is designed to dissuade Headteachers from excluding too many pupils. It is worth noting that at the Islington Arts and Media School, where Torsten Friedag, the first of the "superheads" was employed to turn the school around, inability to exclude extremely difficult pupils meant that he was unable to change the culture of the school and ultimately he resigned. If the government's agenda is to increase inclusion by reducing exclusion

then considering what effect this will have upon school managers to successfully manage their school will be essential.

Some of the interviewees clearly stated a view that inclusion was not about the rights of all pupils, but was merely the government's way of saving money:

> The government are encouraging inclusion because of cheapness. It's a cynical view I'm afraid, but I think that's certain (LST).

> Special schools cost a vast amount of money to run ... and therefore the more children that can be taught in mainstream the less money the government have to fork out for their individual special needs (MT).

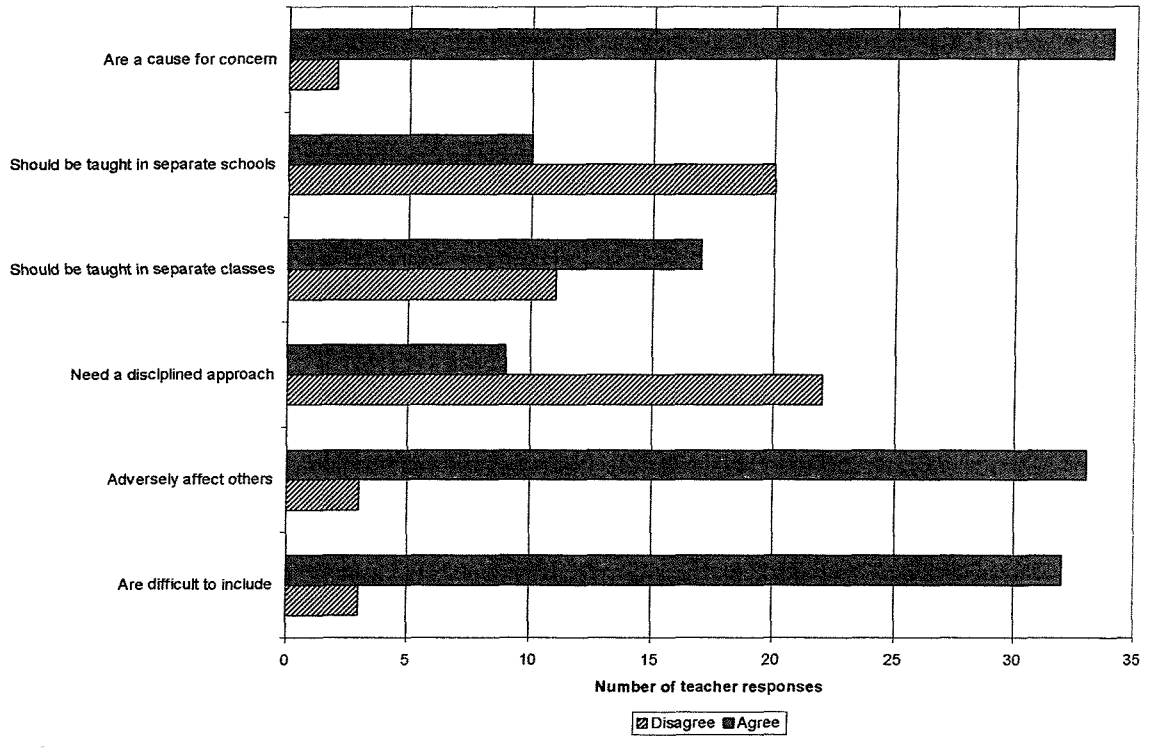
The opinionnaire illustrated that 59% of teachers (22) considered that inclusion was a less costly alternative to special schools (Figure 4.1) and three staff chose this statement to be the one they most strongly agreed with (Figure 4.2). Interestingly 82% of the teachers who thought mainstream was less costly than special education also considered that inclusion was aimed at reducing exclusions (Appendix 3). Evidence to illustrate that special schools were closing had been identified in the literature review (Archer, 1999c; Archer, 1999d; Archer, 1999f; Evans, 2000b; Evans, 2000c). If teachers believed that inclusion was merely a money saving device for the government, which they had to facilitate, then they would be hardly likely, without evidence to demonstrate that inclusion could work, to be positive about it. Teachers need knowledge that the rights of all individuals are being considered if inclusion is to be successful. It certainly was not clear from some of the interviews and the opinionnaire that teachers felt this. Concurrently if teachers are not in favour of all pupils being educated in a mainstream environment, and are struggling to manage more challenging pupils regardless of their beliefs, then the likelihood of inclusion working is minimal. Consequently the impact of inclusion upon teachers is likely to create a scenario of conflict and potential demoralisation amongst staff.

4.5 KEY ISSUE TWO - The impact of inclusion is influenced by teachers' perspective of "who" is to be included and the implications of that.

Throughout the interviews all the teachers constantly referred to pupils with behavioural difficulties, rather than other forms of SEN, leading one to believe that managing these pupils was posing a substantial problem for teachers and the school. The data demonstrated that teachers believed inclusion to be strongly linked with pupils who had

behavioural problems. Information from the opinionnaire also illustrated depth of feeling with regard to pupils with behaviour problems. 86% of teachers (32) found pupils with behavioural problems difficult to include whilst a massive 92% (34) considered them a concern for the school (Figure 4.5). Indeed both these statements figured significantly as statements teachers felt most strongly about. The former of the statements had three teachers and the latter seven claiming it to be one of the issues they felt most strongly about (Figure 4.2).

Figure 4.5 Pupils with behavioural problems



If teachers view inclusion as teaching disaffected and behavioural problems, rather than the full range of SEN pupils, then teachers' beliefs about inclusion will be influenced by their experience of what inclusion has meant for them. The majority of teachers 89% (33) believed that pupils with behavioural problems were affecting other pupils (Figure 4.5). Seven teachers highlighted this statement as one they felt most strongly about (Figure 4.2). Interestingly one teacher strongly disagrees that pupils with behavioural problems adversely affect other pupils (Figure 4.2). It is not clear whether the implication is that they affect other pupils' achievement or behaviour. It may even be both. The Junior Management Teacher and the Mainscale Teacher identified implications for other pupils when pupils with behaviour problems were included:

> You can get a lot more covered when you set groups, but it is sad for the lower ability pupils who do not have behavioural problems (MT).
>
> I feel sorry for the brighter pupils and the ones that are well behaved because they get shoved to the side – these don't get as much attention as they should have (JMT).

Remembering to "talk to the quiet ones as well as the noisy ones" was important to the Junior Management Teacher. The Mainscale Teacher was concerned about the "intimidating nature of some pupils with behaviour problems" and suggested that some pupils "felt threatened by them." The Mainscale Teacher saw an injustice in placing pupils with behavioural problems in the lower sets as it meant that her attention was constantly directed to these pupils rather than to pupils with learning difficulties who, she implied, deserved it more. Merely attaching more pupils with behavioural difficulties to the lowest group is tantamount to inclusion failing unless more resources, both human and material, are allocated to support the group and the pupils' specific behavioural problems. She also implied that most of the behavioural problems had been placed in lower groups, not necessarily because they had learning difficulties, but because teachers did not want them to damage the learning of the more able pupils. Certainly the current groupings at the case study school seem "limiting or harmful to those unlucky enough to be assigned to a 'low ability' group" (Feiler and Gibson, 1999:148).

The Deputy Headteacher comments that the government is starting to realise that it is not possible to successfully include everyone together in a mainstream school:

> The government's idea would have been to have everyone in an ordinary school and I think slowly they are being convinced that it is not beneficial (DH).

Similarly the Headteacher believed that a more balanced view had to be made about including children in mainstream schools:

> I think that a small number of children do benefit by being included in a school and therefore society would benefit by having them included because they might develop social habits they wouldn't otherwise have learned, but conventional children do find it a huge distraction. At some point there has to be a decision that the price of including some is too high (HT).

He believes that the teachers at the case study school have less time to give to extra curricular activities because of the demands of teaching those with behaviour problems:

> I mean the clubs that don't happen now because children are being detained or punished or because at the end of the day the teacher is so exhausted that they really can't afford to give any more ... and the poor morale amongst teachers because of it. We are driven to be reactive by those who are looking to bring our community down and they are quite a small minority. So what I feel as a humanitarian and as a member of the community I feel quite differently about as a teacher and as a Headteacher (HT).

One might perceive that teachers also agreed with the Headteacher's final comment as 92% (34) agreed that all children should have the opportunity to be with others different from themselves (Figure 4.4). However despite these ideological views about the rights of all pupils the majority of teachers (84% - 31, Figure 4.4) did not believe that they could cope in a mainstream environment and 89% (33) noted that their presence adversely affected other children (Figure 4.5).

The Headteacher and Deputy Headteacher seemed to be suggesting that sense needed to prevail when it came to admitting some pupils into a mainstream school. They appeared to be saying that for some pupils a mainstream school was detrimental to that pupil's progress and to the progress of existing mainstream pupils. Teachers spending excessive amounts of time and energy dealing with behavioural problems meant there was less time for teachers to attend to the needs of other pupils in the classroom and additionally to run extra curricula activities. Although mainstream schools might attempt to reorganise themselves and respond to pupils as individuals, (Sebba and Ainscow, 1996) there comes a point where "the price of including some is too high" (HT). The "who" is to be included is important if inclusion is to be successful and to be perceived as successful by the teachers who have to implement it.

If, as the data suggests, teachers are finding pupils with behavioural problems difficult to manage then increasing the number of pupils with behavioural problems will require a clear management policy on how they will be managed and taught. Unless teachers understand that policy and translate it into practice the likelihood will be that teachers will experience difficulties with complex behavioural problems and continue to believe these pupils are a concern for the school. The Deputy Head proclaimed that teachers felt pupils with behaviour problems were difficult to manage and believed that the school's discipline was lacking as a consequence: "Staff at present perceive that discipline is a major issue, a

problem" (DH). Teachers' views about discipline might be connected to their comments that pupils with behaviour problems are a cause for concern, 92% believing them to be so, but 59% (22) did not agree that pupils with behaviour problems should be taught using a disciplined and regimented style (Figure 4.5). It is not clear from the opinionnaire data whether teachers believed the school's discipline was lacking.

One outcome of teaching more SEN pupils seemed to be stress. Five of the interviewees, when asked how they thought other staff at the school had been affected by inclusion, spoke of staff at the school being stressed. 65% (24) of the opinionnaire forms identified that teachers found teaching SEN pupils stressful (Figure 4.1). One teacher reported that teachers would return to their departmental base and say "Oh God what a lesson I've just had" (LST). He also stated that some "are stressed because they can't adjust their teaching techniques." The Junior Management Teacher believed that "some teachers have been stressed and some have gone off long term sick" (JMT). One might postulate that here they referred primarily to teaching pupils with behavioural problems. This obviously reinforces the view that inclusion is difficult and not to be encouraged. It is no surprise that 92% (Figure 4.9) believed that alternative systems should be available for some pupils. Perhaps here they are referring to an alternative environment if they are finding the behaviour of some becoming too unmanageable. However if relocation to a special school is no longer an option, owing to the government's intention to close special schools and teach all the pupils in mainstream schools (Archer, 1999c; Archer, 1999d; Archer, 1999f; Evans, 2000b; Evans, 2000c), then teachers are likely to become increasingly stressed and unhappy. The result may be that teachers seek employment in less challenging schools or even leave education altogether. Already signs exist that schools cannot fill vacant positions. In some schools, where shortages exist, the government are offering "golden handcuffs" worth up to £15,000 over three years, for teachers to stay in their job (Prescott, 2001:1). Teacher shortages combined with managing difficult pupils will certainly not be the recipe for successful inclusion. It is not surprising therefore that 95% (35) of teachers at the case study school believed that schools should have the facility to exclude difficult pupils (Figure 4.1).

Differing views had existed with regard to defining "inclusion" similarly differing views prevailed with placement of those with behavioural problems. The opinionnaire questioned whether pupils with behavioural problems should be taught in separate schools (Figure 4.5), only 27% of teachers (10) thought they should be. One teacher strongly agreed that they should be taught in separate schools whilst one strongly disagreed (Figure 4.2). This reflects a range of views on placements for pupils with behaviour problems. Some teachers (27% - 10) thought that mainstream schools should make pupil behaviour the main criteria for admission to a mainstream school (Figure 4.1). Whilst 54% of teachers (20) thought that a mainstream school was the correct placement for pupils with behavioural problems, 50% of these also believed that they should be taught in separate classes in order that other pupils' education was not affected (Appendix 3). A conflict exists between what teachers believe is the right of all children to attend a mainstream school and what they experience from teaching more pupils with behaviour problems. They perceive children not being able to cope with the work and posing a challenge to their authority. The Longest Serving Teacher felt that the only way that teachers could manage in the classroom was by employing a teacher who would teach the most disruptive pupils separate from the rest:

> I think this school has got to be prepared to have the flexibility to make special arrangements so that no group of children becomes unmanageable. And if that means taking off three or four of the most difficult children and keeping them separate and giving the others a fair chance I think that's fine (LST).

46% (17) agreed that teaching pupils with behavioural problems in separate classes was the way forward (Figure 4.5). One wonders if these pupils were taught in separate classes for the majority of time whether teachers' views on inclusion would then appear more positive as not all teachers would be teaching the most difficult.

Although the interviewees talked predominantly about pupils with behaviour problems two of the interviewees clearly felt that pupils with other SEN difficulties would be able to cope in a mainstream school.

> Severe learning difficulties problems could manage (MT).

> Dyspraxic or children with physical difficulties may be able to achieve in the mainstream (HoF).

One of the interviewees also recognises that whilst:

> Some children can benefit from inclusion often the pupils with behaviour problems distract us from looking at those with SEN who are succeeding (JM).

Two of the interviewees believed it would be possible for children with physical difficulties to attend the school if attention was paid to "the geography of the building" (JM) and "access to toilets" (MT). The Mainscale Teacher suggested that "a buddy system would help SEN pupils with physical disabilities build a relationship with able-bodied pupils enabling them to build trust." However the Headteacher raised issues about whether it was possible to include pupils with more complex SEN difficulties:

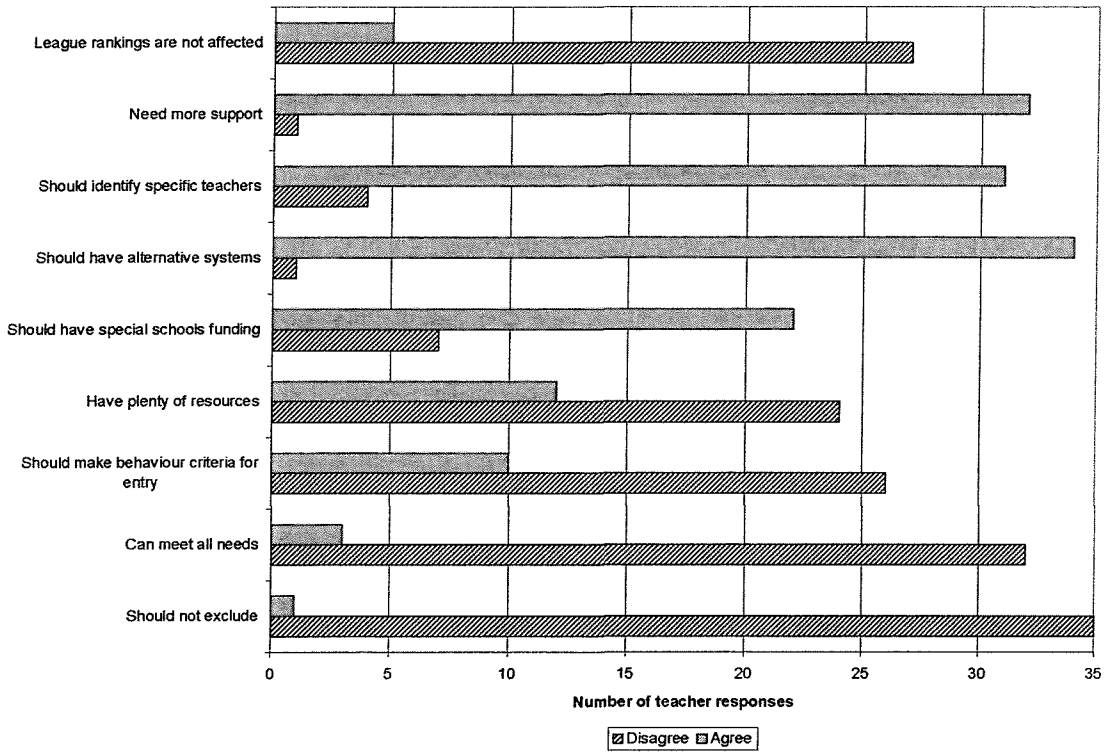
> When I see television programmes of the most disadvantaged children, the most brain damaged, by birth or medication, I couldn't imagine teaching those children. It would be unreasonable to think we could include them all. Clearly they need to have one or two very highly trained individuals (HT).

Teachers recognised that some included pupils could cope in a mainstream school, but the emphasis appeared to be on a small number of pupils with learning difficulties rather than those with behavioural problems. The potential difficulties faced by pupils with other forms of SEN may not have been given thorough consideration by the interviewees. Only the Headteacher seemed to have any in-depth knowledge of the severity of SEN pupils that might become included if inclusion was to become the right of all pupils. Teachers spoke about these pupils being able to cope in a mainstream school rather than recognising the problems associated with their inclusion. It would be true to say that teachers recognised inherent problems relating to accessibility of buildings and school geography, but the problems and difficulties they faced seemed external to the teachers and unlikely to directly affect them. It seemed that a thread had developed that teachers were only concerned with things that directly challenged them, such as pupils with behaviour problems and not about the desire to develop SEN pupils. It seemed that "difficult to include" meant the same as "difficult for me to teach" and "cause for concern in this school" meant "concern for me."

4.6 KEY ISSUE THREE - Inclusion is inevitably perceived as problematic because the demands it makes directly conflicts with other legislative demands on the providers of education.

The opinionnaire demonstrated that 73% of teachers (27) recognised a direct correlation between the number of SEN pupils and the school's performance in the league tables (Figure 4.6). This for one teacher ranked as one of their strongest views (Figure 4.2).

Figure 4.6 Mainstream Schools



Evidence from the Headteacher's interview illustrates that he perceives the behaviour of some pupils has an effect on the achievement of others:

> We fell significantly below our targets last year, it wasn't bad overall because it was the most able group. I mean 62% of the year should have been able to get five or more high grades and more like 46% or 47% did. A lot of that must have been because teachers were drained – they couldn't prepare children properly because they were emotionally drained, they were physically drained. Lessons weren't able to progress as they should because children were distracting them. Teachers that had literally had enough decided to move from the school. That meant timetables had to be rewritten and when you start to look at each of these issues, and you take it not at its simplest level, but you go into the associated areas, I think the impact was massive (HT).

The noticeable reference to pupils distracting others insinuates that it is those with behavioural problems that are affecting the achievement of other pupils. He apparently considers the impact of SEN pupils on the school's examination results to be greater than first meets the eye and recognises a relationship between the time teachers spent dealing with problems and the time they could devote to coaching pupils for exams. One might postulate that the government had not considered the implications of increasing the number of SEN pupils at the same time as schools are attempting to meet targets, survive OFSTED and meet a variety of other challenges.

The Headteacher regards the government's approach to attempting to include all pupils in mainstream schools as naïve and lacking understanding of the implications for schools:

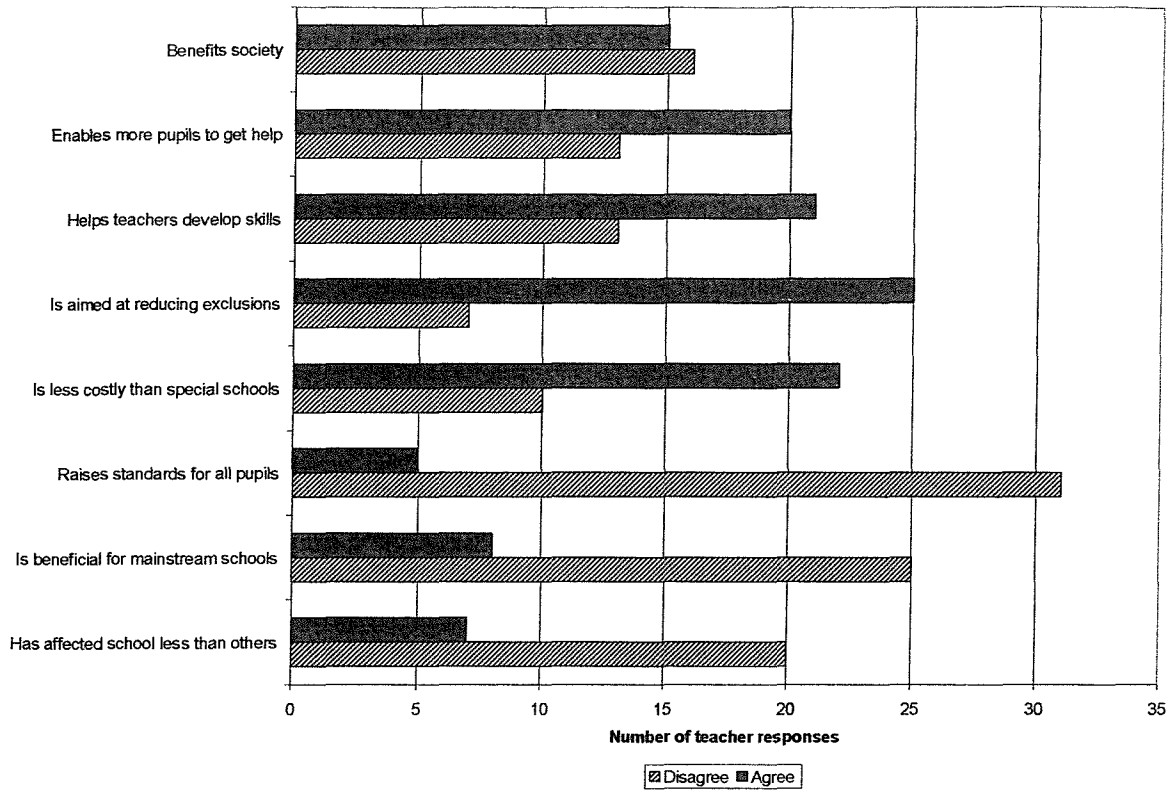
> There is a financial price, there is wear and tear on the teachers, there is the image in the community, there are the standards in the classroom, there is the learning habits of the others. I suppose I feel that if we included them we are in danger of dumming down the whole achievement and then adopting the Tony Blair one size fits all mentality (HT).

The Deputy Headteacher had a view that the government ministers, emanating as they did from a background of achievement, had no comprehension of the impact that SEN pupils had on a school's achievements:

> They have that opinion because they are predominantly middle class, successful within the system that exists and see nothing else outside that system (DH).

He is suggesting that the practicalities of including a full range of SEN pupils in mainstream schools are far greater than the government perceives. It is not only a question of enabling included pupils to achieve, but of ensuring pupils already in mainstream education are making good progress. 84% of the teachers (31) did not believe that inclusion raised standards for all pupils (Figure 4.7). Neither did they seem to believe that benefits could be gained in other ways. Consequently teachers would be unlikely to see potential benefits from having more SEN pupils attending mainstream schools. Perhaps, although not investigated, an optimum or maximum number of SEN pupils is the key to combining SEN pupils whilst raising a school's achievements.

Figure 4.7 Inclusion



The Headteacher considers that it is difficult in comprehensive schools to get even the brightest pupils to reach their potential:

> ... in a comprehensive school it's very hard to get children to perform to their potential. It's probably easier to achieve averages, but it is more difficult to achieve high standards. Even relatively bright children, those that are in the top quarter or the top third of the ability range are able to look around and think I must be alright because there are all those that are doing less well than I am (HT).

The Newly Qualified Teacher also seemed to feel that teaching everyone together was not the best way to enable all pupils to achieve:

> The government feels under pressure to provide everyone with an education – an education for all, the National Curriculum, it's an entitlement curriculum. They obviously have to find a way of educating everyone, meeting everyone's needs, but I think they have presumed that the classroom, the normal classroom is the way to do that for every child ... and I'm not quite sure that I agree it is (NQT).

The Headteacher suggests that common sense must prevail when it comes to what schools are able to achieve and who can be included:

> If we are going to challenge the most able, give wonderful opportunities and personal challenges to the most adventurous and help those who find learning

> difficult then common sense says that we can't spread our range to absolutely every personality that we might be asked to take (HT).

Although 54% of teachers considered that a mainstream education was the right of all pupils (Figure 4.1) of these only 40% believed that inclusion was beneficial for mainstream schools (Appendix 3). In total 68% (25) felt that inclusion did not benefit mainstream schools (Figure 4.7). Views differed on the wider issue of inclusion benefiting society with 41% (15) agreeing and 43% (16) disagreeing (Figure 4.7).

One interesting comment from the Deputy Headteacher referred to the achievements of the pupils in the case study school being affected by the local community. He identifies the fact that the local community is mainly engaged in highly paid manual employment, for which traditional education is not compulsory:

> ... education is not valued by the community within which it is situated. It is slightly different for this school for we are in a situation where there is high employment, well paid employment, but people don't need very high qualifications to secure that ... and that works against us (DH).

One is reminded that unless schools are thriving within the cut and thrust of the market place, then their intake will be reduced and the school will be viewed and perceived to be under-performing by the local community. Examination results, demonstrated in league tables, are one of the main factors by which the local community judge schools because this is the way the government have told them to judge schools. The Deputy Headteacher suggested that the parents in the local community did not value education. If this is the case then parents are unlikely to support the teachers in their efforts to improve pupil behaviour, learning and achievement. One wonders if inclusion would be more easily achieved without the constraints of the National Curriculum. Parents might then see the value of education if it was more closely linked with work and life skills. Consequently if difficult pupils were channelled into areas of interest and supported by their parents other pupils might then achieve far more.

The Headteacher questions the very process of inclusion because of the "law of diminishing returns" – the idea that all children can be taught in one school with the same educational targets and little extra funding:

> It's just resources, time, money and teachers and that's where you've got to put a question mark on it you know. There's a law of diminishing returns really. With a standard programme of training for teachers and a standard allocation of funding you can cope with ninety percent of all children and if you want to cope with another five percent you've got to double those resources. Another two percent you double them again. Another one percent you double them again and you've still not reached some ... and the question has to be asked as to whether this extraordinary rise in resources for quite small extra numbers can be justified. And there are more conventional children losing their entitlement because of the distraction and the funds absorbed by the few and these are moral arguments as well as educational arguments (HT).

Appropriate resources are important if schools are to be judged on their pupils' achievements and if a greater variety of SEN pupils are to be educated in a mainstream school. Although 32% (12) did think the school had plenty of resources for SEN pupils 65% (24) disagreed (Figure 4.1).

In the interviews one teacher felt strongly that her department was under-funded and as a consequence teachers were forced to make their own resources when she knew that appropriate resources existed to buy. Consequently the workload of all staff in her department was significantly affected and probably also the attitude of staff towards SEN children:

> If you've got funding to provide resources you're not having to design task upon task upon task – then it's not as problematic. In (*subject*) we do not have much funding so we have to create lots of resources to enable the pupils to be able to participate (HoF).

The Head of Faculty viewed this lack of resources as being due to the school not resourcing the SEN pupils adequately. Her experience at a previous school was such that departments were better funded to manage SEN pupils:

> It wasn't a problem at all adapting and we had the resources to back this up ... and we had a lot of computers and things like that we could use to support them better. It wasn't that much of a problem. This school has more problems (HoF).

It is difficult to know why her previous school had more resources available for SEN pupils. It may have been that the school had less SEN pupils in the first place or the school had a culture of providing and being more welcoming of SEN pupils. She believed one way to achieve extra funding was by closing special schools. This would enable the money saved to be delegated to mainstream schools and subsequently allocated to departments. Consequently it would "enable more resources to be bought and others will

benefit" (HoF). The opinionnaires demonstrated that 59% of teachers thought that the funding currently going to special schools should be delegated to mainstream schools (Figure 4.6). However in the interviews none of the teachers believed that special schools should close.

The Headteacher, in the case study school, when asked what would be a key issue for schools in managing inclusion believed resources was one of the factors that would make a difference:

> Resources, whether you regard resources as the time to train teachers or the number of teachers that you have or even the skilful trainers to train the teachers even before you get to things like money and resources ... you just need all of those (HT).

Resources may also take the form of human resources and the Deputy Head spoke about the benefit LSAs had made to his lessons and to helping him manage some of his groups. However he was also aware that LSAs did not feel very valued or used effectively by many teachers:

> Talking to LSAs two years ago they felt under-supported, under-utilised and under-paid (DH).

There appear to be two issues pertaining to funding: firstly how the government fund inclusion and the allocation of money to schools and secondly the way in which funds are committed to SEN pupils within each school. The Headteacher implies that it is the former that is causing the problem in the case study school, whilst the Head of Faculty maintains that the money is in the school and her Faculty is being denied the relevant funding to allow SEN pupils to succeed. This certainly needs to be addressed by the school managers. If the resources are not available to make inclusion work then teachers will have to spend time creating appropriate resources and this will not encourage teachers to be pro-inclusion. On the other hand if teachers perceive that more resources are being given to the "included" pupils whilst more "normal" pupils are missing out, then teachers' attitudes towards SEN children will become increasingly more negative. This returns us to the issue of rights. It is the right of all children to receive a good standard of education and if teachers believe that the rights of SEN pupils are taking precedence over the majority, then their attitude may not be positive towards those with special needs. Exploring the tension between splitting financial resources between the high achievers and

the SEN pupils would be interesting to investigate especially in the light of the conflicting tension between league tables and inclusion.

The government would say that they have provided the funds to help mainstream schools manage inclusion. Eight million was made available through the SEN Standards Fund and twenty million through the Schools Access Initiative for the period 1999-2000 (DfEE, 1998a). If resources are lacking in the case study school, which the Head of Faculty is suggesting they are, then what has happened to this money? It may not have reached the level of schools as it may be tied up with LEAs who are setting up systems and managing inclusion from a central office. It may be that the twenty eight million becomes lost when it is delegated out to all the schools and in reality means that only a minimal amount is available to meet the needs of a variety of SEN pupils attending a mainstream school. Alternatively the resources may be in school, but may be allocated by the Headteacher to alternative issues pertinent for the school.

Several questions on the opinionnaire were designed to explore the amount of time teachers had available in a mainstream school to collaborate over inclusion issues (Figure 4.8). The Headteacher identifies that the time needed for monitoring those with behaviour problems is immense. In particular he points to exclusions being terribly time consuming and surrounded by a "huge bureaucracy":

> The logs and the tracking of pupils, the provision of evidence for one sort of panel or another - all that's very time consuming (HT).

He also recognises that time has been important in establishing more inclusive practices:

> Inclusion in a positive sense has been very time consuming – the time that we've given to talk about alternatives, the time we've given to set up the Work Related Group. It's all taken time, but it's been welcome, because it has been set up with a positive aim in mind. It suddenly becomes a waste of time if we find it hasn't been successful (HT).

84% of teachers (31) did note that their workload had been directly increased due to teaching SEN pupils (Figure 4.1). Interestingly not all staff who were interviewed felt that their workload had been increased by teaching SEN pupils:

> You can generally set the same work as long as you can help individuals overcome their problems with that work (LST).

Data gathered from the opinionnaire illustrated the fact that 78% of the teachers (29) did not spend time planning with their LSA (Figure 4.8). Two of the informants pointed to teachers' workload being the reason why this did not happen:

> Workload means that teachers don't always have time to pre-plan with LSAs (DH).
>
> Using LSAs in a proactive way adds to workload (NQT).

Figure 4.8 Table Showing Questions Suggesting Lack of Time Available

Lack of available time	Disagree	%	Agree	%
Teachers should work more closely with special school staff	8	22%	27	73%
Teachers have time to meet with outside agencies	28	76%	6	16%
Teachers have time to plan for SEN pupils	32	86%	3	8%
Teachers spend time planning with LSAs	29	78%	6	16%
Teachers collaborate with each other over SEN approaches	19	51%	15	41%
Teachers meet regularly with parents of SEN pupils	33	89%	2	5%

The Newly Qualified Teacher identified that LSAs were not being used "to their full potential". She supports the view that "merely sitting and helping one pupil" is not helpful to the teacher or the others in the class who need support. She also believes that teachers and LSAs should plan more and discuss "which strategies work with certain pupils and which to avoid" (NQT).

Lack of time and excessive teacher workload may be the reason that planning and collaborating with colleagues and parents does not take place. In fact all the evidence in Figure 4.8 leads one to suggest that teachers spend little time actively planning for SEN pupils.

It is no surprise that teachers find inclusion problematic when they have few resources, increased demands and little time to effectively meet pupils' needs. An implication from the opinionnaires was that teachers were not able to meet with special school staff, outside

agencies and parents because of time restrictions or excessive workload (Figure 4.8). However this assumption may be incorrect and may indicate a management issue pertaining to a lack of collaboration amongst individuals.

Workload might be quite closely associated with lack of time and the reason that teachers did not have time to meet with other adults might be symptomatic of their increased normal school workload through the additional legislative demands (de Gruchy, 1999 in Goodwins, 1999). If, as de Gruchy suggests, teachers are struggling to cope with the demands of their day to day job then they are unlikely to find even more time to successfully meet and plan for the needs of the included child (de Gruchy, 1999 in Goodwins, 1999). Lack of time to plan with LSAs may be due to an increased teacher workload, but will inevitably result in an important resource being wasted. Additionally if teachers have to create suitable resources, and 65% of teachers recognised that resources were lacking for SEN pupils then teachers' time and workload will be even more strained.

The literature review had suggested that practicalities such as time, workload and resources would have an impact upon the successfulness of inclusion. If 54% of teachers at the case study school believed that it was a child's right to attend a mainstream school practicalities such as these would be important in ensuring that children could cope in a mainstream school once admitted. Additional legislative demands suggest that having plenty of resources and adequate time to plan for individual needs and to meet the growing teacher workload will be vital if teachers are to facilitate inclusion at the same time as improve their league table results. Teachers believed that these league table results were directly affected by the number of SEN pupils attending the school. This is likely to produce a conflict of interest for teachers. It might seem that the government has set mutually exclusive goals - competition in the form of league tables and inclusion. It surely poses the question would inclusion be more palatable and effective if the former were dropped? Teachers might find this scenario more conducive, but this might not be fair on the more able pupils. It might be that the fairest system operated with the old Grammar and Secondary Modern Schools whereby pupils were able to function alongside others similar to themselves and study courses applicable to their ability! It would seem that the impact of inclusion on teachers is one of frustration because it requires them to do

things that conflict with legislative demands the government, and therefore governors expect them to achieve. When the practicalities such as extra time, reduced workload and increased resources are found to be lacking inclusion appears to be problematic and may be at the expense of league table results.. However if appropriate resources and time are made available then it might be possible for legislative demands to be met concurrently with inclusion.

4.7 KEY ISSUE FOUR - The competence and attitude of individual teachers are key factors in determining how they view the concept of inclusion and how well they achieve it.

There was a feeling amongst the interviewees that teachers had not been properly trained at college to teach SEN pupils:

> Some teachers are not prepared for the types of children we get in the mainstream - I wasn't (LST).

> My teacher training was quite poor. I've picked up most of what I do through learning on the job (JM).

> Teachers definitely need some sort of special training (MT).

84% (31) of the opinionnaire forms said that their initial teacher training had not adequately covered SEN issues (Figure 4.1). If SEN training was not a crucial element in teachers' initial teacher training this may have been because the teachers trained prior to a greater range of SEN pupils being taught in mainstream schools. One of the teachers in the sample interviewed was newly qualified and her evidence confirmed that her initial teacher training lacked adequate input in respect of teaching pupils with SEN:

> I don't consider that I've had much training dealing with special needs at all (NQT).

She, like all the interviewees, thought training was a key issue for teachers and schools if inclusion was to be successful:

> I think all staff need more training actually. As I was saying earlier I don't feel like I got much training at all in my PGCE year. I mean SEN was mentioned and a few strategies were suggested and I obviously spoke to other teachers about what to do when problems arose and asked for ideas, but there is not much formal training. I know there is no right or wrong answer either, so training would be quite a difficult thing to set up, but I feel that it's lacking. I do feel like I was rather put in a classroom and just ... left (NQT).

One personal comment, from the open ended section at the back of an opinionnaire form, highlighted lack of training and understanding of SEN pupils as a source of stress:

> My own limited experience is that teaching SEN pupils demands skills I don't have whilst not making use of skills I do have, resulting in feelings of frustration and failure.

Perhaps evidence would demonstrate that training was being directed at teachers already practising in mainstream schools. The data from the opinionnaires was a little more positive. 46% (17) believed that Inset (In-Service Training) was helping them to teach SEN pupils more successfully. However there were still 49% (18) who did not think it had helped (Figure 4.1). This lack of training was perceived as a problem by the Deputy Headteacher:

> I think there has to be some provision where there are highly specialised teachers. Teachers are not trained to give that type of help and we actually do a child a disservice by dabbling in it and not doing a very good job (DH).

The Headteacher had suggested that teachers at the case study school did not have the necessary skills for teaching more complex SEN pupils:

> I am a conventional secondary school teacher and I know that by extending my own training as much as I can and by adapting my own practices as much as I can I am able to include more children than I once would have been able to, but I've seen filmed reports of children that I couldn't imagine teaching and therefore if they simply arrived in our school I know that I couldn't make any in-roads into teaching them. I doubt that any colleague that I've met could (HT).

It is interesting to note that the Deputy Headteacher recognised his own practice changing due to training he had received at a previous school. His classroom management practice had changed from a "regimented" to a more relaxed approach:

> Now that came about because of a chap called Ted Rogers in Australia, he actually did an input at my last school and he convinced me that there was a less stressful way of keeping discipline in the classroom ... so what I try to do is focus on achievement rather than in-discipline ... so if people are off task I just give small cues to bring them back on task, then go across, have a word with them and make sure it isn't that they don't understand the task (DH).

The Deputy Head and the Headteacher were the only two interviewees who mentioned their practice changing as a result of training they had received.

Teachers skilled in teaching and managing SEN pupils would seem to be vital if inclusion is to succeed. Teachers require training to support both specific SEN conditions and to manage more general learning and behaviour. Pupils with complex conditions will need to be taught by teachers who understand how they best learn and how to structure work to enable them to do so. It is tantamount to failure that without training teachers will not be able to meet the needs of the pupils. One would expect to see this training becoming an integral part of initial teacher training programmes, however evidence from the case study school demonstrated that teachers lacked this basic requirement. If we remind ourselves that the literature review had reported that the government were closing special schools (Archer, 1999c; Archer 1999d; Archer, 1999f; Evans, 200b; Evans, 2000c) we must ask how can they expect all teachers to have the necessary approaches, skills and learning styles to adapt to the greater number and more complex pupils being included? Training must be a huge component in helping schools adapt to the changes in clientele. Evidence from the literature review also pointed to inclusion having been received with "degrees of understanding and commitment" (Garner, 2000: 113). Even before teachers are shown "how" to manage the children, training will have been important in establishing the "why" of changing. Encouraging teachers' beliefs and attitudes to become more positive about inclusion is extremely important and will not happen without knowledge to support the notion that inclusion can work. In the case study school teachers' beliefs and attitudes do not appear positive about inclusion and this may be due to a lack of staff development in addition to their current experience of what inclusion means for them.

The Headteacher had spoken about the importance of training and about extending his own training and adapting his own practices. What was not clear was the extent to which all teachers had the opportunity and inclination to do the former and the time and skills to do the latter. Although the Headteacher spoke favourably about inclusion, and pupils' rights to be included, his evidence points to "limits" of who can be included even with training for staff.

There certainly was a feeling in the interviews that staff did their own thing with regard to teaching SEN pupils. If they had received no training in how to teach and manage them then this was understandable. This might also be symptomatic of lack of clear

management. If teachers are not clear about policy or lack appropriate guidance then the likelihood will be that they will do their own thing. A further explanation might be that teachers are driven to do their own thing through arrogance and believing themselves to know best. Appropriate training might ensure that the teachers provide suitable work for all pupils and help counteract feelings of "frustration and failure" felt by teachers who are not currently able to manage the more difficult pupils. One outcome of training might be that teachers realise the need to spend more time preparing their lessons, however, this would have the knock-on effect of once again increasing teacher workload. Potential benefits from the training might be that pupils are able to cope with work they are given and thereby their behaviour and their achievements improve.

The Headteacher identified areas for teacher development:

> Teachers need more teaching approaches. We need to be more patient with people, less threatening with people, more able to manage the early signs of disorder, more able to diffuse things, more able to recognise the good, more able to praise what's achieved, more able to make people valued (HT).

When his comments are compared with the rest of the interviewees' thoughts and the opinionnaire data on teaching and learning styles and classroom approaches his data seems to somewhat contradict their views. 78% of teachers (29) alleged that they had changed their practice to meet pupils' needs (Figure 4.9) and the teachers interviewed purported that they were successfully managing learning needs:

> All pupils have individual needs and so you need to use a variety of approaches, individual work, group work and whole class activities (NQT).

> I find it relatively easy to cope with children that have learning difficulties because I easily understand that they do need alternative resources and I don't find any difficulty in preparing alternative resources (HoF).

Teachers undoubtedly believed that specific skills were needed to teach SEN pupils as evidenced by 86% (32) (Figure 4.9). Interestingly of the 78% of teachers who had identified teachers' practices as changing 76% also thought that specific skills were required to teach SEN pupils and 90% found their workload increasing (Appendix 3).

Figure 4.9 – Table of appropriate work and practices

Appropriate Work and Practices	Disagree	%	Agree	%
All pupils should do the same work	31	84%	2	5%
All pupils have access to suitable courses	16	43%	20	54%
All pupils at this school achieve well at Key Stage 3	19	51%	14	38%
All pupils at this school achieve well at Key Stage 4	25	68%	8	22%
Teachers have changed their practices to accommodate a greater range of SEN pupils	6	16%	29	78%
Teachers have appropriate expectations about pupils	16	43%	18	49%
Teachers require no specific skills to teach SEN pupils	32	86%	3	8%
Teachers should have the same approach for all pupils	29	78%	5	14%
Mainstream schools can meet the needs of all SEN pupils	32	86%	3	8%
Mainstream schools should have alternative systems for some pupils	1	3%	34	92%

The Headteacher did recognise that some teachers had made huge strides forward in managing SEN pupils, but equally he believed that others had done practically nothing:

> I think some teachers have changed very little. I think that they have a methodology and a view of education which means that they talk more slowly and they may have more simple exercises, but broadly speaking they go through the same habits in the classroom. The good teachers of course have done a lot. They've differentiated their resources, they've improved their classroom management and they are using support in a better way than they once did and the very good ones are actually achieving a good education for the many (HT).

The Newly Qualified Teacher admitted that some teachers did not spend as much time as she did creating lesson plans:

> I think a lot of staff who have been in the profession a long time don't put anything like as much work into their lesson plans. Perhaps they can make something up on the spot (NQT).

One informant had the view that giving different work to pupils would make them feel different from the rest and possibly isolate them:

> I'm not sure I do enough preparation for the SEN pupils, but I don't want them to feel like they are different. I often explain it to them verbally (MT).

Opinionnaire results did not agree with this view by the Mainscale Teacher, 84% (31) of them thought that pupils should do different work (Figure 4.9).

If teachers were finding it difficult to change their practices then this might be the reason that 92% (34) felt alternative systems should be available for some pupils (Figure 4.9). Indeed for nine staff this was the comment they felt most strongly about (Figure 4.2). It is not clear whether alternative systems relates to the management of SEN pupils in the classroom, the courses they should follow or to alternative arrangements for managing those with behavioural difficulties. Of course there may be less need for alternative systems if the pupils are receiving appropriate work and courses in their lessons. However even with appropriate courses and work there still appears to be a view that some pupils will not manage in a mainstream school and special schools should be an option for some.

The Headteacher implied that teachers needed more skills. Evidence from the teachers appeared to contradict the Headteacher's thoughts. Teachers believed that they had the skills to teach SEN pupils. However one wonders if these teachers already have the skills to teach SEN pupils why did all the interviewees say that only with more training would inclusion succeed. If teachers had received no training in understanding pupils' conditions and devising appropriate strategies and materials to meet those needs they would, as a consequence, be unaware of whether the tasks they were setting were appropriate. The description from the Longest Serving Teacher of him attempting to prepare a year 9 group for Key Stage 3 tests whilst trying to "control extreme behaviour" poses the question "were they doing appropriate tasks?" If the group had SEN was it appropriate that they sat the tests or should they have been following a different course? How would a teacher know this unless appropriate training had been received. Additionally if he had received training in behaviour management he might have been better able to handle the group. Providing the correct courses, setting appropriate work and managing better behaviour all seem to confirm the need for more staff development to increase teacher competence. One might presume that teachers have not changed their ways of working and practices enough.

It would be interesting to consider whether there is a link between teachers who have not changed their practice and those who are suffering from the "emotional workload" of teaching SEN pupils. It is worth noting that it is the Longest Serving Teacher who pointed out that:

> Emotional workload can affect you more than actual workload (LST).

One wonders if the emotional workload is a direct result of inappropriate teaching. It may reflect the fundamentally conservative approach of teachers and schools resisting change (Stoll and Fink, 1996). However it may demonstrate a lack of application which contrasts to the positive approach detected in the interview with the Newly Qualified Teacher. If teachers are not trained to teach SEN pupils, then they would not see the wisdom in providing and making appropriate resources, consequently, as some teachers had stated their workload would not appear to increase. However if appropriate resources and lesson plans were not available for SEN pupils then the likelihood would be more behavioural problems and greater tension in the classroom causing for teachers a more "emotional workload" which could manifest itself as stress. If this is true then it would seem that inclusion has affected teachers' practices in different ways. Those, according to the Headteacher, who have "changed very little" are still teaching in the same way they have always taught despite a change of clientele. Their practice and methods have remained the same. However the good and the very good teachers have done much to adapt to the changing nature of the pupils in the way that they organise and manage the learning habits in their classrooms. This observation might be fairly predictable as one might suggest that good teachers do most things better than poor ones. This may have more to do with the performance standards of teachers than with inclusion. Perhaps the success of inclusion relies on nothing more than good teaching.

Although 54% of teachers (20) believed that pupils had access to suitable courses at the school, 86% (32) did not think that the school could meet all of the children's needs (Figure 4.9). Only the Deputy Head mentioned alternative courses for SEN pupils. He spoke of offering something to SEN pupils that was different from GCSEs "Looking at alternatives for some pupils is a start to better managing pupils' learning" (DH). He recommended that the pupils had the opportunity to undertake more vocational qualifications. This would seem to correlate with the opinions of the teachers who view

pupils' progress at Key Stage 3 to be better than that at Key Stage 4 which may suggest that it is courses at Key Stage 4 that are inappropriate (Figure 4.9).

Without training for teachers one can speculate that providing appropriate courses for SEN pupils will also be an issue. If a greater range of SEN pupils are to be taught in a mainstream environment then the evidence from the school suggested that some teachers thought more courses and programmes should be available. Perhaps, like the Headteacher implies, trying to provide resources for a small group of "disruptive pupils" in all mainstream schools is not the most cost effective way of managing the problem. If pupils are to follow different courses there will be financial implications. Will staff be happy for these courses to take place or will they think that "more conventional children are losing their entitlement because of the distractions and the funds absorbed by the few" (HT)?

As well as resources for departments increased human resources were thought to be necessary if SEN children were to achieve in mainstream schools. In the case study school eight LSAs have been employed to enable teachers to manage SEN pupils. The opinionnaire data revealed that 46% of the teachers (17) believed they were using these LSAs in a proactive way (Figure 4.1). As the LSAs had been used for the opinionnaire pilot it was possible to see if the teachers' view matched that of the LSAs. In fact five of the eight LSAs did not believe they were being used in a proactive way. All of the teachers interviewed valued the support they received from LSAs and their comments suggested that LSAs did make teachers' lives easier:

> Having an LSA is useful because I can't always get round to spend time with all the pupils (JM).
>
> LSAs can make life much easier for the teacher and for pupils (NQT).
>
> I have been very lucky. I have had a very experienced LSA (LST).

This last teacher adds that advantages will not be seen if the LSA is "less efficient or less effective".

It is interesting to observe that in the informants' accounts of working with LSAs no mention was made as to how they used them. When asked to describe this teachers noted

that "they spend time with the pupils," they could "help reduce stress levels," "they can be a good input to the class", but nowhere was there a description of specific tasks they were asked to do. This might suggest that they are not always being used to their optimum potential. We are reminded of the scenario described by Booth, Ainscow and Dyson (1998). Just because teachers have an LSA to help them in their lessons does not mean that they are able to manage them effectively. Evidence suggested that teachers did not always have time to plan with their LSA, consequently the LSA had nothing specific to do. The literature review confirms the fact that teachers do not always plan for the LSA's presence (Thomas, 1991; Bearn and Smith, 1998). Unless LSAs know what is expected of them they will become a wasted resource. One might speculate that without either effective management or training people will do what they think best and that may be neither conducive with learning nor compatible with policy. Finding time to plan and use LSAs in a proactive way, combined with training for both teachers in their deployment and LSAs in skills are issues for consideration.

All the teachers in their interviews identified one or two subjects where they believed inclusion would be more easily achieved. However there was no consensus of opinion about which subjects. The following subjects were suggested by different teachers as being the easiest subject to include SEN pupils: Maths, Drama, Physical Education, Technology, French, English, Humanities and practical subjects. Some teachers thought it was easier to include pupils where reading was not the main criteria. The opinionnaire demonstrated that 54% of teachers (20) considered practical subjects easier than other subjects to facilitate inclusion (Figure 4.2). Others believed that practical subjects were difficult because of the need for pupils to move around the room. It was noticeable that all the staff interviewed mentioned their own subject, or one of the subjects where they taught, as being easier to include SEN pupils. Two staff felt that including pupils in subject areas depended entirely on the individual pupil (HoF; NQT).

All of the interviewees suggested that subjects for inclusion were less important than choosing the right staff. The Head of Faculty had throughout her interview spoken of the importance of having the right teacher working with the SEN pupils. She described how she had observed two different teachers teaching the same differentiated lesson to low

ability groups and had found that they had achieved different outcomes because of "the teacher's approach to the pupils rather than the actual design of the lesson." For her a key issue for successful inclusion was:

> ...identifying specific members of staff who work best with those students and trying wherever possible to keep them working with the SEN pupils so that there is continuity. Then we can start practising and get better and better at managing SEN pupils (HoF).

Her view states if you can recognise the teachers who are good at teaching SEN pupils then surely you allocate the SEN groups to them:

> I think in the end you know which personalities will work best with which students and you can get those personalities working with the special needs assistants, who are also trained to help and support. Then there's continual support. Then things will improve and inclusion isn't as much a problem ... if any (HoF).

Other teachers also confirmed this view when talking about teacher attitudes and approaches to the pupils. The Longest Serving Teacher agreed that inclusion "needs the right staff to make it work" (LST).

The Junior Management Teacher had noticed a difference in attitude between the younger and older staff:

> Some of the younger teachers seem more switched on than older staff. I'm not sure if that is due to better training or the difference between them and us" (JMT).

84% of teachers (31) recommended, via the opinionnaire, that specific staff were identified for teaching SEN pupils (Figure 4.5). The Head of Faculty recognises that teaching SEN pupils requires staff to understand what SEN pupils can achieve, unless teachers have this understanding they will have difficulty managing them:

> Staff's expectations vary about how to approach teaching. If staff don't have the right expectations about what the pupils can do and how they will behave then the staff will have difficulty (HoF).

The Longest Serving Teacher considered one group of children he was teaching to be "unmanageable" and he describes how he struggled to maintain control in the classroom:

> One particular group were a considerable problem. I was trying to teach a year 9 class and prepare them for Key Stage 3. I found it an almost impossible task because you were spending so much time controlling extreme behaviour and you just couldn't get on with the job (LST).

This undoubtedly affected his self-confidence and he speaks of having to "impose order and discipline" and feeling he "can't relax" in the same way as when he teaches other groups of pupils. Having the ability to remove these pupils to another teacher was for him a relief.

The Junior Management Teacher felt that when problems arose with pupils "Staff complain and don't often try and do anything about the situation themselves" (JMT). The Mainscale Teacher considered that teachers' reactions were often inappropriate when dealing with some of the SEN pupils and she recounted how they "get very cross with pupils and often get wound up with those who have behavioural problems" (MT). She also believed that "Staff have a vast amount of time for the lower ability, but not for the behavioural problems" (MT).

It would seem that some teachers at the case study school thought that subjects for inclusion were less important than choosing the right staff. It was interesting to note that all the interviewees believed that they had the ability within their subject to successfully include SEN pupils. This might indicate that the interviewees were all successful with SEN pupils or wanted to appear successful. Ensuring that the right staff are teaching SEN pupils may seem like a sensible consideration when timetabling. If a group of staff are pre-selected to teach SEN pupils this would circumvent the problem of all staff having to teach them, but it might perpetuate the problem that some teachers do not change their attitude and approach towards them. What was not interrogated was whether the teachers interviewed considered that they be one of those identified to teach SEN pupils or whether they were suggesting others should teach them. If only a minority of staff taught SEN pupils school management would need to decide whether they thought others were abdicating their responsibilities. It may be that some teachers only want to teach more able pupils and the current situation of all teachers teaching a variety of pupils is detrimental to the learning of all pupils and the well being of teachers. This surely returns us yet again to the importance of ensuring that teachers' beliefs and attitudes are positive towards SEN pupils and the culture of the school is aimed at ensuring all pupils reach their potential regardless of ability if successful inclusion is to achieved.

4.8 KEY ISSUE FIVE - The impact of inclusion is likely to depend upon whether it is a well managed change or merely another initiative imposed upon teachers.

The Head of Faculty believed that if inclusion was to be successful in the school then "changes need to be made, structures need to be in place and the community need to be educated" (HoF). The Deputy Headteacher postulated that "it is very hard to convince an established staff that they should change their practice and look at alternative ways of working." He did however recognise that some improvements had been made through "small steps:"

> If we look back four years and where we were then and where we are now we've made huge progress. The major thing we've got to do is convince staff that their job will be easier if they look at inclusion and alternative ways of working and look at rewarding achievement rather than punishing under-achievement (DH).

The Headteacher suggests that teachers have to change some of the ways that they work with pupils. He recommends that teachers address their "class management and also their personal management" (HT). He believes that they need to achieve this by developing their range of teaching strategies:

> If we are managing a class it implies a similar approach to everybody, but different children need different approaches, different personal approaches ... and we have to make them valued. We have to make them feel what they are doing is worthwhile and we have to praise hugely the outcomes ... and if they feel valued then they will be more co-operative and they will learn, but even when you've got to that point you've got to have a huge and diverse range of teaching strategies (HT).

54% of teachers (20) recognised that the case study school had been significantly affected by inclusion (Figure 4.1). However all the interviewees commented that inclusion had also affected other schools:

> Most schools have been affected by inclusion (NQT).

> There is pretty much the same sort of thing going on in all schools (JMT).

> Most schools must be going through the same fights and worries about how to deal with SEN pupils (MT).

The definition of inclusion by Sebba and Ainscow, (1996) had recommended that inclusion was not only about admitting more pupils into mainstream schools, but required schools to reorganise themselves and become innovative with regard to teaching styles and curriculum design. Perhaps the belief that pupils do not cope with a mainstream

environment is symptomatic of the lack of change in a mainstream school necessary to accommodate the inclusion of more SEN pupils. One might attribute this neglect of issues pertaining to the management of change to two bodies. Firstly to the government who one would perceive as keen to manage the change successfully through all schools. However as Everard (1994:47) remarks the government's approach to managing change is often driven by the need to establish a political presence and make capital out of issues without always considering the consequences of their policies "A week is a long time in politics. Half a decade is a short time in education". Evidence from the data suggested that teachers believed that other schools had been affected by inclusion. This might lead one to believe that it was the government's management of inclusion that had been badly handled and there seems to be little doubt that teachers have been left out of most policy debates (Stoll and Fink, 1996). If one reminds oneself of the processes needed to accomplish successful change then it would appear that these have not been well managed (Schein, 1969; Fullan, 1991). Secondly, the successful management of change would appear to fall to managers at school level. At the case study school the majority of teachers, 54%, believed that the school had been significantly affected by inclusion (Figure 4.1). The implication appears to be that this has been negative. From the constant referral to pupils with behaviour problems one would guess that teachers are referring to the way that the school had been affected by these particular pupils.

There would appear to be no evidence in the data that the school managers have taken proactive steps to help teachers manage the increasing numbers of SEN pupils and more specifically those with behavioural problems. It is not clear to what extent teachers have been involved in the policies and processes for including more SEN children, but it appears that teacher involvement is lacking in general.

The Deputy Headteacher identifies an issue at the school with regard to teacher involvement in policies and practices:

> Inclusion to me would mean an inclusion not only of pupils, but of all staff in decision making processes as far as it could be possible and in the shared aims of the school. You've got to have opportunities (a) for them to share that vision and (b) for them to feel that they have some influence upon that vision and therefore you've got to set up structures in order to do that (DH).

It is interesting to note that the Deputy Head, who one would imagine is responsible for ensuring that staff are involved in the processes of the school, seems to be saying that the mechanisms for involving staff do not exist. An alternative explanation might be that the Deputy Head and the Headteacher differ in the extent to which they believe teachers should be involved in generating the policies and practices of the school. One might deduce from either of these reasons that the effectiveness of school management is a significant factor to inclusion succeeding.

The opinionnaire had asked the staff several questions about collaborative practices at the school. 73% (27) thought it was a good idea to work more closely with special school staff (Figure 4.8). Yet 85% of the 73% (23 out of 27 teachers) noted that they had no time to meet with outside agencies (Appendix 3). One of the questions asked whether teachers collaborated over SEN approaches. Whilst 41% of the returns agreed that they did collaborate 51% pointed to a lack of collaboration amongst staff (Figure 4.8).

In her interview, the Junior Management Teacher recognised that "Subjects that can support each other and back each other up manage behaviour the best" (JM). Equally important is collaboration between teacher and LSA and the NQT identified the need for more "planning with LSAs." She also suggested that "LSAs and teachers should talk more and teachers and teachers should talk more" (NQT). One of her concerns was that

> Teachers do not discuss which strategies work with certain pupils and which teachers should avoid. Why aren't we all sharing and building on those strengths rather than each of us struggling? (NQT).

Evidence from the opinionnaire had demonstrated that 78% of the teachers (29) did not plan with their LSA (Figure 4.8). This lack of collaboration could, as previously observed be a time issue, but could equally point to a cultural issue. The Deputy Headteacher thought that using LSAs "more effectively" would help to reduce teacher stress levels. However he noted that "teachers plan for themselves and it takes them a long time to plan for other people" (DH). He also identified that "teachers' workload means they don't always have time to pre-plan with LSAs" (DH).

The Deputy Head suggests that the lack of involvement and collaborative practices in the school has led to teachers having a negative approach towards some of the pupils:

> Staff need to be more positive and look at catching kids doing well, focus on achievement rather than underachievement, focus on good behaviour rather than poor behaviour (DH).

This may have also led to low morale amongst staff. He feels that teachers are worn out having to deal with problems and manage poor behaviour. He notes that teachers are quick to blame others for the poor behaviour displayed by some pupils and suggests that inappropriate work and approaches to pupils are significant factors in causing some of the difficulties:

> The groups don't have the behavioural problems. It is the school who is having behavioural problems because of what we are giving them to do and the way in which we are giving it (DH).

If teachers do not feel part of the decision to include more SEN children in the school, or do not understand the reason why it is happening then they may be reacting in a negative way towards a policy that is thrust upon them. However it might be that teachers aim to ensure that the policy fails or for alternative arrangements to be found for SEN pupils in the school.

He identifies that the school needs:

> ... a whole school approach to discipline, whatever that discipline is will be fine, but we need a whole school approach. The staff need a focal point and then they will realise there is a focal point and think somebody's doing something about the behaviour problems. At present there is a lot being done, but the teachers don't see the behaviour problems as their problem. They see it as their difficulty (DH).

If successful inclusion is to take place it will be important for the managers in the school to address staff attitudes and raise morale. In any change programme preparing staff for the change by addressing underlying attitudes and beliefs is essential if staff are to understand the reason for the change (Schein, 1969; Fullan, 1991).

At a school level it would be true to say that if everyone feels involved and understands the reason for policies then the teacher subculture and the school culture might be more compatible and thereby work together to raise the standards of all pupils. Rapid changes

in education following the 1988 Education Reform Act (DfE, 1988) have led to technological, scientific and procedural changes outpacing teacher attitudes and beliefs. The literature review acknowledges that changing attitude happens gradually (Schein, 1969). Developing skills, knowledge and practices to ensure that any change is understood and staff are ready to meet the demands of the change is an integral part of change management (Fullan, 1991). Lortie (1995 in House, 1979) identified that teachers are particularly conservative when change and innovation is required. Analysis of the data from the case study school does not suggest that staff attitudes have been significantly developed nor that teacher skills and practices have been enhanced to make the changes necessary for increasing inclusion. Indeed evidence suggests that teachers' beliefs are not fully in favour of inclusion, possibly as a result of them having no experience of it working. Teachers appear to lack the necessary skills and approaches to teach a greater range of SEN pupils. They identify that little training has been made available during their initial teacher education to enable them to develop their teaching skills. Teachers who support each other and work together may feel stronger and less likely to become "emotionally" and "physically" drained as described by the Headteacher. Whilst the Headteacher has recognised the symptoms possibly caused by inclusion it may be more important to help staff combat the causes of these symptoms. However there may be a basic unwillingness on the part of the teachers to embrace something new even if teachers' current practice is failing. Alternatively teachers might be trying or attempting to change their practices, but are finding management policies and practices unsupportive. Equally one might hypothesise that if staff are not planning and collaborating together over their approaches and work then it will be difficult to successfully include more SEN children into the school because each individual will be searching for the way forward rather than sharing successful strategies with colleagues. Ensuring that this happens could be said to be an integral part of school management and may point to managerial short comings. A culture of collaboration has been seen by some researchers to be the most effective way that schools can help their staff to work together and assume a collective responsibility for a school's development (Nias et al. 1989; Rosenholtz, 1989; Holly and Southworth, 1989; Stoll, 1991 in Riddell and Brown, 1991; Fullan, 1991).

In addition to 92% of teachers (34) identifying poor behaviour as a concern for the school (Figure 4.5) the Headteacher detects an issue re pupil behaviour for people in the local

community. He believes that some of the local community associate any problems in the locality with the pupils at the school:

> The community judge us on what they see. When people come as they did the other evening to the Open Evening they are very impressed. It's the ones whose children don't come here. It's the members of the community that don't have children at all. They judge us by what happens at the bus stop, by what happens on the bus and the damage they see happening in the community and they are probably judging us on the fifty most difficult children that we happen to have (HT).

He considers that people in the community often do this without knowing the aims of the school, the difficulties experienced by the school and the types of children being taught in a mainstream school.

Responding to the beliefs of the local community seems to be a problem for the school. The Headteacher suggested that the school was judged by the local community on what they saw happening in the local area. It might be that the public has lost confidence in teachers owing to the amount of criticism levelled by the government and the media at education and teachers. If the community associate the school with having a lot of pupils with behavioural problems, who cause damage both in the community and to the education of other pupils, then the intake of the school is likely to be significantly affected. Managers will need to ensure that the public image of the school is positively represented, the local community understand the diverse range of pupil ability and behaviour at the school and transfer procedures are carefully handled.

4.9 SUMMARY

Analysis of the data gathered from seven interviewees and a 54% opinionnaire return identified five key issues which appear to influence how the teachers at the case study school have been affected by inclusion. This chapter has presented and discussed the issues raised. The final chapter concludes the research summarising the main points arising from the data within the context of five key issues. The limitations of the research are made explicit, areas for further development are identified and management recommendations are suggested.

CHAPTER 5

CONCLUSION

5.1 INTRODUCTION

The final chapter concludes the research summarising the main points from the previous chapter and attempting to answer the research question "What has been the impact of inclusion on teachers in a mainstream secondary school?"

It would seem from the data presented and discussed in Chapter 4 that the teachers' experience of inclusion in this particular case study has been determined, in the main, by five key issues:

- The nature and extent of the impact of inclusion depends upon how teachers define "inclusion" and whether or not they believe it to be a positive strategy.
- Inclusion is influenced by teachers' perspective of "who" is to be included and the implications of that.
- Inclusion is inevitably perceived as problematic because the demands it makes directly conflicts with other legislative demands on the providers of education.
- The competence and attitude of individual teachers are key factors in determining how they view the concept of inclusion and how well they achieve it.
- The impact of inclusion is likely to depend upon whether it is a well managed change or merely another initiative imposed upon teachers.

From the evidence available one would suggest that inclusion has had a significant impact upon teachers at the case study school and this impact has not been altogether positive. It seems likely therefore, although not specifically investigated, that pupils' experience of inclusion has also been less than satisfactory. Attending to the key issues raised in this research will be fundamental to improving the impact and experience of inclusion for both teachers and pupils.

5.2 KEY ISSUE ONE - The nature and extent of the impact of inclusion depends upon how teachers define "inclusion" and whether or not they believe it to be a positive strategy.

A major finding from the research identifies that although some teachers think it is the right of all pupils to attend a mainstream school in reality they do not think all pupils can cope. With the data focusing strongly on pupils with behavioural problems it would suggest that these pupils are not coping with the existing structure and culture of the school. The data also indicated that teachers were finding it difficult to manage pupils who had behavioural difficulties.

Definitions of inclusion in the literature review had suggested, that in addition to SEN pupils having the right of access to their local school, pupils' diverse strengths, qualities and potential should be maximised. At the case study school teachers believed that only by incorporating more segregation within the school could pupil needs be adequately met. Teachers' experience of inclusion was focused on the day to day business of coping with pupils with behavioural difficulties. With this in mind teachers viewed inclusion as difficult to achieve. Meeting the needs of a greater range of SEN, other than those of a behavioural nature was an afterthought.

For teachers at the case study school inclusion meant additional problems for them to struggle with. Some teachers considered that inclusion was not about pupil rights, but a low cost option to meeting special educational needs. They viewed it as a ploy to close special schools and reduce exclusions rather than an issue of human rights. Whilst some teachers believed it was a child's right to attend a mainstream school, experience had taught them that it was difficult to achieve. Consequently attitudes towards inclusion were not all positive.

5.3 KEY ISSUE TWO - Inclusion is influenced by teachers' perspective of "who" is to be included and the implications of that.

Teachers clearly believed that inclusion was aimed at pupils with behavioural problems, whether that be inclusion in the sense of not excluding difficult pupils or including those from EBD special schools. Teachers have found the impact of these pupils overwhelming.

The continual reference to pupils with behavioural problems and the strength of feeling gathered from the teachers leads one to acknowledge that teachers find them difficult to manage and as a consequence teachers are becoming worn out, stressed and demoralised. Implications also exist for other pupils who, teachers comment, are being adversely affected by the poor behaviour of some individuals.

The implications for including children with SEN problems other than behaviour have not been thoroughly considered by teachers. Teachers seemed to conceive that some of the pupils with more complex SEN conditions would be able to manage in a mainstream school. It clearly appeared that as long as the pupils were not directly challenging to the teacher then they would be able to succeed and would be welcome at the school. Only the Headteacher had considered the difficulties needing to be faced by pupils and teachers if more complex cases were to become included in the school.

5.4 KEY ISSUE THREE - Inclusion is inevitably perceived as problematic because the demands it makes directly conflicts with other legislative demands on the providers of education.

Teachers, in the research, regard inclusion and the raising of pupils' achievements as mutually exclusive. They also feel that the government fail to appreciate the exclusivity of these two targets. Dealing with constant disruption, caused by those with behavioural problems, has led to teachers becoming "emotionally and physically drained" (HT) and as a consequence not attending effectively to the needs of examination groups. These difficulties increase when no time or resources are given to making inclusion work. The practicalities of finding time, reducing workload to give time and creating resources to meet the needs of included children are all likely reasons why in practice the teachers believe that included children cannot cope in a mainstream secondary school. Even efforts to provide more human resources, by employing LSAs, are in vain if time cannot be found to plan effectively for their usage.

5.5 KEY ISSUE FOUR - The competence and attitude of individual teachers are key factors in determining how they view the concept of inclusion and how well they achieve it.

Teachers at the case study school had received little training in managing the needs of SEN pupils. Initial teacher training has not enabled them to manage either the types of pupils, their needs or conditions. Evidence exists that some teachers have received appropriate training once in post, but this was not consistent for all teachers. Lack of training seemed like the reason that teachers had not changed their practices sufficiently to meet pupil needs. Consequently some teachers were struggling to manage the behaviour of some pupils, to understand the needs of different conditions, to apply a range of strategies to situations and to produce appropriately differentiated work.

Teachers' competence in managing additional adults in the classroom is also key to whether inclusion is successfully achieved. Little planning with LSAs, possibly connected to a lack of time, meant that the benefits of using LSAs to support inclusion were not maximised.

The likelihood of inclusion thriving will be increased where teachers have a positive approach to special educational needs. Organising practical situations, to ensure that only teachers with the necessary skills and positive attitudes towards teaching SEN pupils teach them, would further enhance its success. This infers of course that some teachers would not teach SEN pupils. However, whether teachers directly teach SEN pupils or not, the possession of positive beliefs and attitudes to SEN are nevertheless crucial.

5.6 KEY ISSUE FIVE - The impact of inclusion is likely to depend upon whether it is a well managed change or merely another initiative imposed upon teachers.

Inclusion in its current guise has been thrust on schools by government legislation. There are a number of issues that have been seemingly ignored by the government not least the crucial component of managing change. Helping schools to address the values and beliefs of teachers charged with teaching SEN pupils have been ignored. There seems to be no apparent attempt to bring teachers on-side, or to enable them to see the benefits and need for inclusion. The failure to address training has resulted in teachers unable to meet a

variety of complex individual needs. No provision has been made for teachers to plan, meet and work with SEN pupils. Instead teachers' workload has been increased and they are faced with less time to deal with more issues of which inclusion is but one. Similarly there has been little regard for the resources, both human and material needed to create a more flexible curriculum which will interest and motivate a different clientele. Consequently, at the case study school, inclusion has become just another initiative that teachers are forced to endure.

The success of inclusion will also be affected by the approach of individual schools to managing the change. At the case study school evidence points to a general lack of teacher involvement in all school policies including the approach of teachers to special educational needs. This seems to have led to a culture of poor morale amongst the staff. In addition lack of collaborative and supportive practices amongst staff highlight significant managerial shortcomings.

Enabling the local community to understand the changes in clientele and support the education of all pupils in their local mainstream school is also a management issue for individual schools.

Whilst the evidence from this study certainly includes a number of direct consequences for teachers who have to deal with SEN pupils placed under their 'mainstream roof', there is a counter argument worthy of consideration. For if these teachers define inclusion as predominantly about coping with pupils who exhibit behavioural difficulties, one could argue that they have always done so at this school and therefore there has actually been little or no change as the result of the government merely applying a 'label' to a recently publicised initiative. Whilst referrals to special schools are less easy to come by, disruptive pupils were excluded in the past and continue to be excluded today, making the difference difficult to see. If nothing perceptible has changed, the concept of 'managing it' becomes redundant. However if teachers can describe a distinct change in the pupil population since the Green Paper (DfEE, 1997) but are unable to identify infra-structural measures to parallel it, then one may justifiably point a finger at change management strategies.

5.7 SUBSIDIARY RESEARCH QUESTIONS

At the outset it was stated that the research question was likely to generate views on the following associated areas:

- How well is the policy of inclusion working at the school?
- What strategies do teachers need to facilitate inclusion?
- Is it possible to include all pupils?

Evidence gathered through the research suggests that, at the case study school, the policy of inclusion is not being maximised for included pupils, mainstream pupils, teachers or the school. Fundamental changes to the way that teachers view pupils with SEN need to be made. Sebba and Ainscow (1996) recommend that inclusion is viewed as a process rather than a fixed state. Certainly at the case study school enabling all pupils to be included into the full life of the school is still in its early stages.

In order to facilitate inclusion it would seem that the school must reorganise its systems and staff approaches. Ensuring that training is available for teachers to help them develop their skills will be vital. It might seem that the school has changed some of its practices and policies to enable more SEN pupils to succeed, but further innovations in both teaching styles and curriculum design are undoubtedly necessary (Sebba and Ainscow, 1996).

With regard to the last of the subsidiary research questions teachers, at the case study school, deem it impossible to include all SEN pupils. Most teachers had identified difficulties including those with behavioural problems owing to the effect they had on other pupils, the school's academic achievements and teachers' well being. However only the Headteacher had pondered the difficulties including pupils with conditions other than behaviour. Interestingly views appeared to relate to whether pupils could fit into the school rather than whether the school could adapt to meet the needs of the pupils.

5.8 QUESTIONS RAISED IN THE RESEARCH

The evidence identifies five key issues which seem to affect the impact of inclusion on teachers at the case study school. However in addressing this impact the research raises as many questions as it answers. One such question not posed by this research but worthy of consideration would be:

- When do teachers perceive inclusion to have started?

It would seem that inclusion is dependent on a number of factors, not least the pupils who are to be included. This begs the following questions:

- Is there an optimum number of SEN pupils that a school can cope with including?
- Are there certain SEN pupils who are more easily included?

Conflict exists between raising the school's position in the league tables and meeting the needs of pupils with SEN. With this in mind research might study whether:

- Inclusion would be easier to achieve if league tables were abolished?
- It would be better to return to a system of having a different level of school for different abilities?

Teachers are an undeniable factor in the success of inclusion and further research might uncover:

- Do some teachers only want to teach more able pupils?
- Would inclusion be more easily achieved if pupils were taught by a small number of skilled teachers and if this were to happen would it be "inclusion" in the widest sense of the definition?

Finally questions may need to be asked about changes made by schools to accommodate included pupils:

- Is there a danger in confusing the "inclusion" issues with merely teaching SEN pupils?
- What changes have been made in mainstream schools to ensure the success of inclusion?
- What steps do management need to take to improve inclusion at the school?

5.9 MANAGEMENT RECOMMENDATIONS

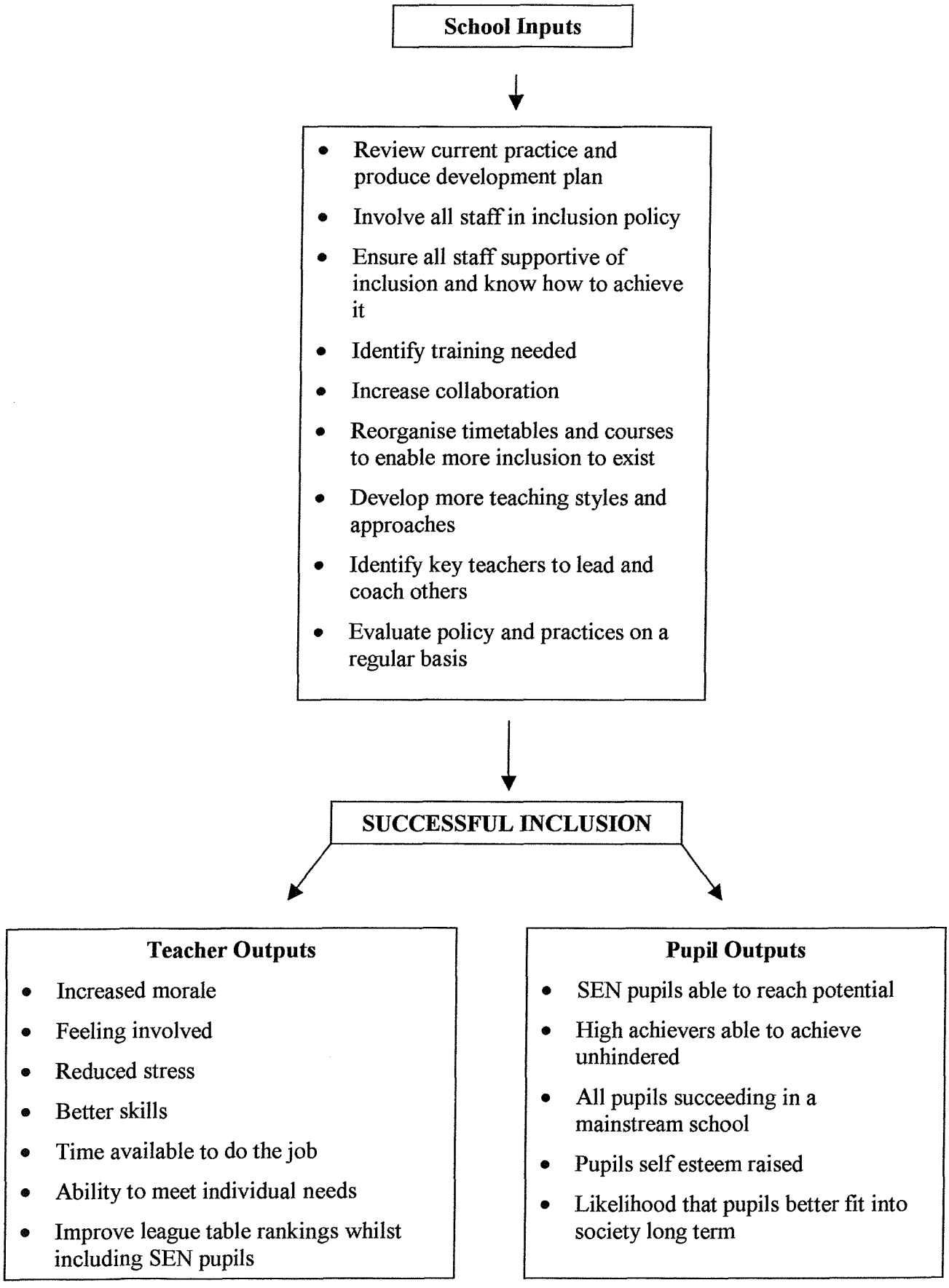
The policy of inclusion seems set to continue (DfES, 2001). Recommendations to improve this policy of inclusion exist for both the government and for schools, although in this research, evidence has concentrated on the experience of inclusion for teachers in one school (Figure 5.1).

In the case study school the teachers and the school need to address their current policy and practice with regard to how inclusion is working internally and plan for the next steps to be taken. Recommendations include (Figure 5.1):

- Review current provision and create a development plan for the next steps
- Involve teachers in the policy to include more pupils
- Maximise teachers' support for inclusion and ensure that they understand how it will be achieved
- Identify training needs for teachers and LSAs
- Create time for teachers to collaborate with each other, plan with LSAs and meet with outside agencies
- Organise timetables and courses to be suitable for all pupils
- Develop more teaching styles and approaches to managing pupils
- Identify key teachers to support and coach others (similar to support given to Newly Qualified Teachers)
- Evaluate school inclusion policy and practices on a regular basis

One would propose that if the initiative is being positively driven by the school and the teachers in their policies and practices then inclusion will have a better chance of succeeding. It clearly cannot be a policy of increasing the number and complexity of pupil needs in mainstream schools without proactive steps being taken in the school to ensure that all teachers can manage this changing clientele.

Figure 5.1 Management Recommendations



5.10 SUMMARY

The thesis investigated the impact of inclusion on teachers and set out with the intention of collecting data on teachers' perceptions of inclusion. However in the end the thesis turned out to be more a study of the impact of behaviour on teachers than of inclusion. It was organised from a qualitative perspective and was designed as a case study in my own school. Results generated are therefore limited as they represent data sensitive to the context in which it was collected, in this case from a study of a single school. As both teacher and researcher at the school a danger also existed with regard to these combined roles in addition to subjective bias influencing the research. In order to reduce the effect of the latter upon the research both my value position and assumptions about the research were made explicit at the outset and triangulation was used in the methodology. Certain similarities however can be observed in my assumptions and the outcome of the research. One might suggest that this is in part due to my role as teacher at the school, as the research had been formulated as a response to questions being raised about inclusion and the resultant impact upon teachers.

It is wise to remember that the key issues raised in this research reflect the perspectives of a small sample of teachers, 7 interviewees and 37 teachers via an opinionnaire form. These represent a proportion of the teachers at the school and the results should therefore be treated with caution. If time had permitted or the research had been designed to investigate more teachers and different schools, then a greater number of perspectives and individual realities would have been gathered. If replication was to occur following more in-depth research then tentative generalisations might be proposed. The findings from this research may not however be generalised to other schools, nor to other teachers and the impact that inclusion has had on them. Notwithstanding this fact, it is likely that some of the issues raised are also relevant to other teachers and schools. Finally one would suggest that despite the individual contexts of schools and teachers, the management recommendations are likely to be transferable and applicable to other schools, although the degree to which some need to be addressed will differ. In the final analysis each school will need to consider their current situation and individual circumstances with regard to inclusion and plan the next steps to ensure that if inclusion is on the agenda for mainstream schools then it is achieved to the benefit of the whole school community.

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Appendix 1

Interview schedule to elicit data on "The impact of Inclusion on Teachers."

General Information

1. Name

2. Subjects Taught

3. How long have you taught at this school?

4. Where else have you taught and for how long?

Concept of Inclusion

5. What do you understand the term inclusion to mean?

   (Define for informant if there is no clear understanding of the terminology)

6. What connections do you see between inclusion and exclusion?

   (Are they opposing terms? Can pupils attending mainstream education be excluded from learning? Is withdrawal to teach specific programmes a form of segregation?)

7. If more pupils are going to be included in mainstream schools how might we guard against excluding them from the provision available in the school?

8. Why do you think the government are encouraging inclusion?

   (Are there any benefits to pupils/schools of including all? Do you think that the government values schools/teachers who can include pupils with SEN?)

9. What are your views on pupils being taught in special rather than mainstream schools?

   (Give reasons to support your view)

10. Can you give me some examples of types of SEN pupils not currently taught in mainstream schools that you could envisage you might teach with the advent of more inclusion?

    (Explore understanding of range of SEN pupils.)

11. How achievable is it to teach all pupils in a mainstream school regardless of need?

    (Are there any types of pupils more difficult to teach/include? Are all pupils able to socialise together in the mainstream?)

12. What changes do you believe are required to teaching approaches, pupil groupings and support procedures to facilitate inclusion?

Informant's Practice

13. What are your personal views about all pupils being educated in their local mainstream school regardless of the pupil's SEN?

    (Clarify the reasons for supporting/not supporting inclusion)

14. How easy has it been including all SEN children in your classroom?

    (What difficulties, if any, has the informant had? Do you think that any difficulties surrounding inclusion focus upon meeting the needs of the SEN pupil or the impact of those SEN on the remainder of the group?)

15. How has your own practice as a teacher been affected by the range of SEN pupils in your classes?

    (Have your classroom management skills changed? Have you developed more teaching and learning styles? Has inclusion affected your workload? Has it affected your approach to any classgroups?)

16. Have other staff in the school been affected similarly or in any way differently from yourself?

    (Have staff found it stressful? Are some subjects easier to include SEN pupils? Are there optimum times in a pupi'ls education when inclusion might be easier to achieve?)

Wider Implications

17. If successful inclusion is to happen what do you believe are the key issues that have to be addressed?

(What works well? What must happen to overcome problems? Is inclusion easier to achieve with LSA support? How can teachers/LSAs work with pupils to achieve successful inclusion? Should classes be smaller? Do all teachers have the necessary skills to include all pupils? Do teachers need more training? What training to initial teaching qualifications do you recommend?)

18. What role do you see for special schools if inclusion is to continue?

    (What are the benefits to be gained from special school staff working with mainstream teachers?)

19. Are there any wider implications of having more pupils with a range of SEN being taught at the school?

20. In your opinion do you think that other schools are likely to have been affected in the same way as this school?

    (Do factors such as parental support, catchment area affect how successful a school will be with inclusion?)

21. Can you think of any other implications of including ALL pupils in the mainstream that you haven't mentioned already?

    (On teachers, departments, schools; Are some things more difficult to do?)

Appendix 2

INCLUSION OPINIONNAIRE

Listed below are some statements that describe feelings people may possibly have about inclusion of pupils with SEN. Thinking of your own feelings and current experience, please indicate whether you agree or disagree with each statement by circling the number which best represents your feeling.

1 Strongly disagree	**2** Disagree	**3** Agree	**4** Strongly agree

ALL PUPILS

1	... should have the right to attend their local mainstream school	1	2	3	4
2	... should not have to attend special classes or be withdrawn for special programmes	1	2	3	4
3	... should be included in the process of learning rather than in a particular school	1	2	3	4
4	... can cope in the mainstream	1	2	3	4
5	... should have the opportunity to be with others different from themselves	1	2	3	4
6	... should do the same work	1	2	3	4
7	... at this school have access to a range of suitable courses	1	2	3	4
8	... at this school achieve well at KS3	1	2	3	4
9	... at this school achieve well at KS4	1	2	3	4

PUPILS WITH BEHAVIOUR PROBLEMS

10	... are difficult to include	1	2	3	4
11	... adversely affect other pupils	1	2	3	4
12	... should be taught using a disciplined and regimented style	1	2	3	4

13	... should be taught in separate classes	1	2	3	4
14	... should be taught in separate schools	1	2	3	4
15	... are a cause for concern in this school	1	2	3	4

TEACHERS

16	... find teaching SEN pupils stressful	1	2	3	4
17	... shouldn't have to deal with disruptive behaviour	1	2	3	4
18	... should work more closely with special school staff	1	2	3	4
19	... find it easier to teach pupils of similar ability together	1	2	3	4
20	... have time to meet with outside agencies	1	2	3	4
21	... at this school are doing exceptional work with SEN pupils	1	2	3	4
22	... believe inclusion is good	1	2	3	4
23	... have not been affected by inclusion	1	2	3	4
24	... enjoy the challenge of the greater range of SEN pupils at the school	1	2	3	4
25	... have changed their practices to accommodate a greater range of SEN pupils	1	2	3	4
26	... find their initial training has adequately covered SEN issues	1	2	3	4
27	... find Inset training helps them to teach SEN pupils	1	2	3	4
28	... have appropriate expectations about pupils	1	2	3	4
29	... have time to plan for SEN pupils	1	2	3	4
30	... have an increased workload due to SEN pupils	1	2	3	4
31	... require no specific skills to teach SEN pupils	1	2	3	4
32	... should have the same approach for all pupils	1	2	3	4
33	... use rewards and praise effectively	1	2	3	4

34	... are good at target setting for SEN pupils	1	2	3	4
35	... find monitoring SEN pupils' progress easy	1	2	3	4
36	... use LSAs in a proactive way	1	2	3	4
37	... spend time planning with LSAs	1	2	3	4
38	... prefer LSAs to be attached to subject areas	1	2	3	4
39	... prefer LSAs to work with a small group of pupils	1	2	3	4
40	... use LSAs to develop resources	1	2	3	4
41	... collaborate with each other over SEN approaches	1	2	3	4
42	... find practical subjects the easiest for inclusion	1	2	3	4
43	... meet regularly with parents of SEN pupils	1	2	3	4
44	... believe they share the responsibility for improving pupils' learning and behaviour with parents	1	2	3	4
45	... feel their image in society is improving	1	2	3	4

MAINSTREAM SCHOOLS

46	... should not exclude any pupils	1	2	3	4
47	... can meet the needs of all SEN pupils	1	2	3	4
48	... should make pupil behaviour the main criteria for admission	1	2	3	4
49	... have plenty of resources for SEN pupils	1	2	3	4
50	... should be given the funding from special schools	1	2	3	4
51	... should have alternative systems for some pupils	1	2	3	4
52	... should identify specific teachers who work best with SEN pupils	1	2	3	4
53	... need more support from outside agencies	1	2	3	4
54	... rankings in the league tables are not affected by SEN pupils	1	2	3	4

INCLUSION

55	... has affected this school less than most other schools	1	2	3	4
56	... is beneficial for mainstream schools	1	2	3	4
57	... raises standards for all pupils	1	2	3	4
58	... is a less costly alternative to using special schools	1	2	3	4
59	... is a political solution to reduce exclusions	1	2	3	4
60	... offers teachers the opportunity to develop new strategies and skills	1	2	3	4
61	... enables a wider range of pupils to get help	1	2	3	4
62	... benefits society	1	2	3	4

Please pick 2 statements you agree with the most (numbers):

Please pick 2 statements you disagree with the most (numbers):

Any further comments on how inclusion has affected teachers:

Thank you for taking the time to complete this questionnaire

Teacher Responses to Individual Questions

Teachers	Qu No.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19	20	21	22	23	24	25	26	27	28	29	30	31	32	33	34	35	36	37
All pupils	1	2	4	3	2	2	4	4	3	4	2	3	4	2	2		3	4	2	4	3	2	3	3	3	2	2	1	3		2	2	3	2	2	3	4	3
	2	2		3	1	1	2	2	2	4	1	2	2	1	2	1	1		2	2	2	2	3	2	2		4	2	3	2	1	1	2	1	1	2	1	2
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Appendix 4

Number of Teachers Responding to Individual Questions

		Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Agree	Strongly Agree	No Comment
	All Pupils					
1	Have right to attend mainstream	1	14	12	8	2
2	Shouldn't have to have SEN lessons	11	18	3	2	3
3	Should be included in learning process	1	3	22	7	4
4	Can cope in mainstream	17	14	3	1	2
5	Should be with others	0	2	25	9	1
6	Should do the same work	19	12	1	1	4
7	Have access to suitable courses	1	15	11	9	1
8	Achieve well at KS3	2	17	12	2	4
9	Achieve well at KS4	3	22	6	2	4
	Pupils with behaviour problems					
10	Are difficult to include	2	1	25	7	2
11	Adversely affect others	2	1	17	16	1
12	Need a disciplined approach	4	18	8	1	6
13	Should be taught in separate classes	0	11	16	1	9
14	Should be taught in separate schools	1	19	8	2	7
15	Are a cause for concern	0	2	13	21	1
	Teachers					
16	Find SEN pupils stressful	0	8	15	9	5
17	Shouldn't have to deal with poor behaviour	1	17	12	3	4
18	Should work with special school staff	0	8	21	6	2
19	Find similar pupils easier to teach	0	3	22	12	0
20	Have time to meet with outside agencies	13	15	5	1	3
21	Are doing exceptional work	1	16	13	2	5
22	Believe inclusion is good	3	22	9	0	3
23	Have not been affected by inclusion	10	23	0	1	3
24	Enjoy the challenge	6	22	5	0	4
25	Have changed their practices	0	6	24	5	2
26	Found college training useful	17	14	4	0	2
27	Find Inset training helpful	2	16	17	0	2
28	Have appropriate expectations	1	15	17	1	3
29	Have time to plan	7	25	3	0	2
30	Have increased workload	1	2	22	9	3
31	Require no specific skills	17	15	2	1	2
32	Should have same approach for all	13	16	4	1	3
33	Use rewards effectively	2	13	12	8	2
34	Are good at target setting	3	19	13	0	2
35	Find monitoring easy	4	28	1	0	4
36	Use LSAs proactively	2	15	16	1	3
37	Plan with LSAs	7	22	6	0	2
38	Like LSAs in subjects areas	0	5	22	6	4
39	Like LSAs to work with a group	0	5	26	3	3
40	Use LSAs to develop resources	5	17	10	1	4
41	Collaborate over SEN approaches	5	14	13	2	3
42	Think practical subjects best for inclusion	3	8	18	2	6
43	Meet with parents	10	23	2	0	2
44	Share responsibility with parents	0	4	27	4	2
45	Feel teacher image improving	12	18	5	0	2
	Mainstream schools					
46	Should not exclude	27	18	1	0	1
47	Can meet all needs	13	19	3	0	2
48	Should make behaviour criteria for entry	0	26	7	3	1
49	Have plenty of resources	7	17	6	6	1
50	Should have special schools funding	3	4	18	4	8
51	Should have alternative systems	0	1	14	20	2
52	Should identify specific teachers	0	4	22	9	2
53	Need more support	0	1	17	15	4
54	League rankings are not affected	12	15	3	2	5
	Inclusion					
55	Has affected school less than others	2	18	7	0	10
56	Is beneficial for mainstream schools	4	21	8	0	4
57	Raises standards for all pupils	9	22	5	0	2
58	Is less costly than special schools	1	9	16	6	5
59	Is aimed at reducing exclusions	1	6	14	11	5
60	Helps teachers develop skills	3	10	20	1	3
61	Enables more pupils to get help	4	9	20	0	4
62	Benefits society	3	13	15	0	6