

# **Educators' Attitudes towards Inclusive Education in Bangalore, India**

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in

Arts, Education and Law

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Submitted( in fulfilment of the requirements of the degree of

Doctorate of Education

July, 2016

## Abstract

Advocacy of inclusive education is a key part of the United Nations' broader effort to encourage countries across the world to commit to the provision of 'education for all'. This United Nations educational policy is directed towards promoting social justice and equality and erasing the invisible and tangible barriers that segregate the marginalized sections of society from quality education. The Government of India has endorsed this broad objective and recognized the urgent need to provide equal opportunities to *all* learners. This commitment becomes complicated when considered within a political and social context that has simultaneously endorsed the significance of education for social development while limiting access to education for various groups, including students with disabilities.

In this complex situation teachers' attitudes towards the implementation of the inclusive education have a major impact upon how students with disabilities actually experience education. Yet relatively little is known about Indian teachers' attitudes to inclusive education principles and practices and/or how they believe they are able to take up the United Nations' and the government of India's apparent commitment to meeting the needs of students with disabilities.

In response to this gap in literature and policy, the aim of this mixed method study was to investigate pre-service teachers' and in-service teachers' attitudes towards the implementation of inclusive education in the city of Bangalore within Karnataka State, India. The project involved the use of a 30 items questionnaire followed by semi-structured interviews with participants from several groups: pre-service teachers with a special education focus; pre-service, generalist teachers; in-service teachers working in general education settings; and in-service teachers working in special education. This data set was analysed by drawing upon the Theory of Planned Behavior advocated by Ajzen (1991). This analysis highlighted teachers' beliefs and how these shape their attitudes towards, and actions regarding, inclusive education.

The thesis is organized into 6 chapters.

Chapter 1 provides an overview of the context of the thesis and provides necessary background information about the Indian education system.

Chapter 2 provides a review of related literature identifying shifts in international attitudes towards persons with disabilities and highlighting different models for interpreting disabilities. Chapter 2 also provides information about the emergence of inclusive education in India and how research relating to inclusive education has evolved in India and internationally.

Chapter 3 explains the research and theoretical design of the thesis. It locates the thesis within the mixed-method paradigm; provides a description of the research design and outlines the development and implementation of the questionnaire and the group based focus group discussions which were used for data collection. Chapter 3 also outlines the Theory of Planned Behavior (Ajzen, 1991) which is used to analyze the data presented in Chapters 4 and 5.

Chapter 4 provides an analysis of quantitative data drawn from the individual responses of the four cohorts of respondents to the questionnaire focusing on the impact of the demographic independent variables (age, gender, education qualifications, and experience).

Chapter 5 provides an analysis of the qualitative data gathered from the responses of the verbal interview, drawing upon the theory of planned behavior to highlight the impact of teachers' behavioral beliefs; subjective norms; and perceived behavioral controls on their attitudes towards inclusive education.

Chapter 6 discusses the data presented and identifies three sets of key findings. Firstly the majority of the participants agreed that all children have a right to an education where teachers are equipped with the right tools to teach and are supported by parents. Despite this, analysis also showed inclusive education is not a priority in the Indian educational system and that participants identify several barriers to the implementation of inclusive education including their own skills, the resources available to support inclusive education, and the attitudes of others. Finally analysis of the impact of demographic factors revealed that age and experience had a significant impact on the participant teachers' attitudes.

The thesis concludes with a discussion of recommendations for action including an increase in teacher education, professional development opportunities, societal support, and a stronger Government of India political will to promote a more positive teacher attitude towards the inclusive education program. The conclusion also outlines the limitations of the study, identifies areas for further research, and summarises the author's personal perspective on the research.

Emphasis throughout the thesis is on mapping the beliefs and attitudes of pre-service and in-service teachers in order to provide vital information that will allow the Government of India to pursue inclusive education more effectively into the future.

## **Statement of Originality**

This work has not previously been submitted for a degree or diploma in any university. To the best of my knowledge and belief, the thesis contains no material previously published or written by another person except where due reference is made in the thesis itself.



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Nisha Michael

## Table of Contents

<b>Abstract .....</b>	<b>II</b>
<b>Statement of Originality.....</b>	<b>IV</b>
<b>Table of Contents.....</b>	<b>V</b>
<b>List of Tables.....</b>	<b>IX</b>
<b>List of Figures .....</b>	<b>X</b>
<b>Acknowledgements .....</b>	<b>XI</b>
<b>Chapter 1: Introduction.....</b>	<b>1</b>
1.1 A Global Agenda .....	4
1.2 A Global Commitment in a Local Context.....	6
1.2.1 Mahatma Gandhi's Perception of Education.....	7
1.2.2 Government of India Initiatives.....	8
1.3 Legal Decisions Relating to Disabilities.....	10
1.4 Key Terms .....	11
1.4.1 Education .....	11
1.4.2 Basic Education .....	12
1.4.3 Special Education .....	12
1.4.4 Inclusion .....	13
1.4.5 Inclusive Education .....	13
1.4.6 Disability.....	14
1.4.7 Teacher .....	14
1.5 Current Indian School System and Special Schools.....	14
1.6 Attitudes and Beliefs.....	15
1.6 Karnataka Perspective .....	16
1.6.1 Karnataka Background Review .....	16
1.6.2 Karnataka State Draft Policy on Education of Children with Special Needs 17	
1.7 Conclusion .....	19
<b>Chapter 2: Literature Review .....</b>	<b>20</b>
2.1 Early Model: The Religious Model.....	21
2.2 Contemporary Models .....	22
2.2.1 First Phase: The Biological Model.....	22
2.2.2. Second Phase: The Medical Model.....	22
2.2.3 Third Phase: The Social Model.....	23
2.3 Towards Inclusive Education .....	25
2.3.1 Mainstreaming.....	25
2.3.2 Integration .....	26

2.3.3	Inclusion.....	26
2.4	Review of Policies and Practices Pre-Independence .....	28
2.5	Policies and Practices Post-Independence .....	28
2.6	Five Year Plans.....	32
2.7	Contemporary Policy: Sarva Shiksha Abhiyan 2002–2011 .....	33
2.7.1	Sarva Shiksha Abhiyan Description .....	33
2.7.2	Sarva Shiksha Abhiyan Purpose .....	33
2.7.3	Sarva Shiksha Abhiyan Evaluation .....	33
2.8	Definition of Disability and Inclusion in India.....	34
2.9	Studies of Attitudinal Change.....	36
2.10	Relevance of the Theory of Planned Behavior to Studying Teacher Attitudes towards Inclusive Education .....	37
2.11	Overview of Attitudes Influencing Teachers’ Role in Implementing the Inclusive Education Policy .....	38
2.12	Teacher Knowledge .....	40
2.13	Teacher Experience .....	42
2.14	The Influence of Social Norms.....	43
2.15	Teacher’s Role in India.....	44
2.16	Summary.....	45
<b>Chapter 3:</b>	<b>Research Design .....</b>	<b>47</b>
3.1	Defining Research Design .....	47
3.1.1	Philosophies or Worldviews .....	47
3.1.2	Strategies for Data Collection.....	48
3.1.3	Mixed Methods and The Pragmatic Paradigm .....	49
3.3	The Theory of Planned Behavior.....	52
3.3.1	Behavioral Beliefs and Attitudes .....	53
3.3.2	Subjective Norm .....	53
3.3.3	Perceived Behavioral Control.....	54
3.4	Studying Teachers’ Attitudes through the Theory of Planned Behavior.....	54
3.5	Data Collection, Phase One: Archival Records .....	56
3.6	Data Collection, Phase Two: Questionnaire .....	56
3.6.1	Questionnaire: Demographic Profile .....	58
3.6.2	Questionnaire: Variables Relating to Influences on Teacher’s Attitude .....	59
3.7	Focus Group.....	62
3.8	Approval of Questionnaire and Interview Questions .....	63
3.9	The Ethics and Integrity in Research Checklist.....	67
3.10	Summary.....	69
<b>Chapter 4:</b>	<b>Quantitative Data .....</b>	<b>71</b>
4.1	Introduction.....	71

4.2	Descriptive Statistics .....	71
4.3	Exploratory Factor Analysis .....	73
4.4	Multivariate Analysis.....	75
4.4.1	Gender.....	76
4.4.4	Age .....	82
4.4.5	Qualifications.....	84
4.4.6	Teaching Experience .....	86
4.5	Summary.....	88
<b>Chapter 5: Qualitative Analysis .....</b>		<b>90</b>
5.1	Behavioral Beliefs and Attitudes .....	91
5.1.1	Gandhi's Basic Education is a Worthwhile Goal to Promote the Education-for-all Pedagogy. ....	92
5.1.2	Education for All is, in Theory, a Desirable Goal. ....	94
5.2	Subjective Norm Beliefs and Attitudes .....	97
5.2.1	In Policy and Practice the Indian Education System does not Value Either Basic Education or Inclusive Education .....	98
5.2.2	Parents may not all Value Inclusive Education. ....	99
5.2.3	Parents and Teachers Prioritise Academic Results Over Inclusive Agendas or Equity Agendas. ....	101
5.2.4	Children do not all Value Inclusive Education.....	102
5.2.5	Other Teachers do not Value Inclusive Education. ....	104
5.3	Perceived Behavior Controls .....	105
5.3.1	Teachers do not Possess Enough Knowledge.....	106
5.3.2	Teachers do not Possess Enough Skill.....	108
5.3.3	Teachers do not Have Enough Resource Material. ....	108
5.3.4	The National Curriculum/Context does not Allow for Inclusive Education. ....	109
5.3.5	Teachers and Schools are not Supported Enough by other Complementary/External Systems.....	110
5.4	Conclusion .....	110
<b>Chapter 6: Discussion, Recommendations &amp; Limitations .....</b>		<b>111</b>
6.1	The Demographic Profile Factors' Influence .....	111
6.2	Discussion of Attitudes Based on the Belief System as Proposed by Ajzen's Theory of Planned Behavior .....	111
6.2.1	Behavioral Beliefs and Attitudes .....	112
6.2.2	Subjective Norms Beliefs and Attitudes.....	112
6.2.3	Perceived Behavioral Controls: Individual's Self-Efficacy Belief to Perform a Task.....	114
6.2.4	Analysis of Beliefs and Attitudes and the Emergence of a Tri-factor Model.....	116

6.3	Teacher Education .....	116
6.3.1	Pre-Service Teachers .....	116
6.3.2	Parental Involvement .....	117
6.3.3	In-Service Teachers .....	117
6.4	Policy Makers' Intervention .....	118
6.4.1	Promote Teacher Education.....	118
6.4.2	Funding .....	118
6.4.3	Social Awareness.....	119
6.4.4	Teacher Empowerment .....	120
6.4	External Support .....	121
6.4.1	Administrative Support.....	121
6.5	Urgency for Future Research.....	121
6.6	Research Design .....	122
6.7	Sample Population .....	123
6.8	Site of Study .....	124
6.9	Time and Financial Constraints .....	124
6.10	Summary.....	125
6.11	Personal Take Away .....	126
<b>References.....</b>		<b>127</b>
<b>Appendices .....</b>		<b>153</b>
Appendix 1: Salamanca Statement.....		153
Appendix 2: Right to Education in India .....		154
Appendix 3: India's Definition of Disability .....		155
Appendix 4: Map of India .....		156
Appendix 5: Map of Karnataka.....		157
Appendix 6: Basic Education School Day .....		158
Appendix 7: Questionnaire Information Package .....		159
Appendix 8: Non-government Organization Pilot Study.....		171
Appendix 9: Private Institution Pilot Study .....		172
Appendix 10: Ethical Clearance.....		173
Appendix 11: Research Higher Degree Induction Quiz .....		174



## List of Tables

Table 1: Theoretical Framework Illustrated .....	55
Table 2: Archive Analysis Diagram .....	57
Table 3: Tri-Factor Categorisation of Analysis .....	66
Table 4: Descriptive Statistics .....	72
Table 5: Varimax Rotation of Two Factor Solution for Inclusive Education Beliefs Scale Items .....	74
Table 6: Means, Standard Deviations, Skewness and Kurtosis Values, and Alpha Coefficients of the Subscales .....	75
Table 7: Means and Standard Deviations for the Subscales by Gender .....	76
Table 8: Means and Standard Deviations for the Subscales for In-service and Pre- service Teachers .....	78
Table 9: Tests of Between-Subjects Effects for In-service and Pre-service Teachers .....	78
Table 10: Means and Standard Deviations for the Subscales for General School and Special School Teachers .....	80
Table 11: Tests of Between-Subjects Effects for General School and Special School Teachers .....	81
Table 12: Means and Standard Deviations for the Subscales for Younger and Older Teachers .....	82
Table 13: Tests of Between-Subjects Effects for Regular School and Special School Teachers .....	83
Table 14: Means and Standard Deviations for the Subscales Based on Highest Qualification .....	84
Table 15: Means and Standard Deviations for the Subscales for Less and More Experienced Teachers .....	86
Table 16: Tests of Between-Subjects Effects for Less and More Experienced Teachers .....	87

**List of Figures**

Figure 1: Three Ways of Mixing Quantitative and Qualitative Data ..... 50

Figure 2: Ajzen’s Theory of Planned Behavior (2005, p. 118) ..... 52

Figure 3: Underwood’s Description of the Theory of Planned Behavior..... 53

Figure 4: Model on Coding Process ..... 64

Figure 5: Overall Data Collection ..... 65

## Acknowledgements

I wish to acknowledge my profound appreciation and immense gratitude all persons who have in some way or other extended support advice for the accomplishment of this study.

In particular, I take this opportunity to offer my sincere gratitude to Associate Professor Leonie Rowan my supervisor for her generosity with time, effort and in particular her untiring moral support. Her critical demand for excellence, valuable suggestion, and continuous motivational encouragement has contributed much for the completion of this academic exercise. I also wish to recognize with profound gratitude my appreciation to Associate Professor Peter Grootenboer, for the valuable insights and providing direction and new perspectives for the data analysis.

I wish to thank Dr. Indumathi Rao for her continuous encouragement. Also I wish to express my thanks to the educational centers in Bangalore, India for their kindness to accommodate my request to conduct the study. To the pre-service teacher respondents and the in-service teacher respondents for providing me with the research data- the back bone of this study I offer my sincere thanks to each and all.

To my grandparents, Dorothy Pereira and Moses Pereira for teaching me to believe in myself. My mother Dr. Mary Fernandez where do I begin to thank you Mummy? My brothers Arjun Michael and Robert Fernandez for always being there for me. To my 6-year-old son Gabriel Satyam Hira, my constant companion who has journeyed with me throughout from dawn into the nights in this academic endeavor. Lastly to the Almighty God through whom all things are made possible.

## **Chapter 1: Introduction**

### **“School Education for All”: The Salamanca Statement and a Global Commitment to Inclusive Education**

Two decades ago, India and the governments of 92 other countries across the world agreed to uphold a commitment to the Salamanca Statement (1994) based upon advocacy of “education for all”, including students with disabilities. The Salamanca Statement recommended that all governments worldwide support the pursuit of inclusion and education for all through commitments that would:

- give the highest policy and budgetary priority to improve their education services to enable them to include all children, regardless of individual differences or difficulties,
- adopt as a matter of law or policy the principle of inclusive education, enrolling all children in regular schools, unless there are compelling reasons for doing otherwise,
- develop demonstration projects and encourage exchanges with countries with inclusive schools,
- establish decentralized and participatory mechanisms for planning, monitoring and evaluating provision for children ... with special educational needs,
- encourage and facilitate the participation of parents, communities and organization of persons with disabilities in the planning and decision-making processes concerning provision for special educational needs,
- invest greater effort in early identification and intervention strategies, as well as in vocational aspects of inclusive education,
- ensure that, in the context of a systematic change, teacher education programmes, both pre-service and in-service, address the provisions of special needs education in inclusive schools. (Mayor, 1994, p. ix–x)

The range of issues outlined within this agenda challenged the traditional approaches to education of persons with disabilities in many countries, including India. This agenda confronted the reality of education, where accessibility has historically been determined by gender, socio-economics, religion, ethnicity, and physical and intellectual disabilities (Alur, 1998). The Salamanca Statement advocated the restructuring of conventional and outmoded education systems and a move into a new and transformative

paradigm that embraces the key belief that “the future is not fated, but will be fashioned by our values, thoughts and actions” (Mayor, 1994, p. iv).

In an attempt to understand the essentials required to facilitate this radical progressive change in one particularly challenging context, this research is focused on the responses to key aspects of the Salamanca Statement (see Appendix 1) by pre-service and in-service teachers within the Indian school system. A range of economic, social and religious factors makes this a challenging and complicated context.

India like many developing countries experiences a situation in which “the continuing struggle to achieve compulsory education for a majority of children takes precedence over meeting the needs of those with disabilities” (Ainscow, Jangira, & Ahuja, 1995, p. 135). This prioritisation of education for many, rather than for all, is linked to the challenges associated with a vast population, systemic poverty and some specific aspects of India’s religious profile.

India is predominantly a Hindu country. The Hindu doctrine of karma attributes difficult life experiences to atonement for sins from past lives. Dupoux, Wolman and Estrada (2005), Alghazo, Dodeen and Algaryouti (2003), Alur (2002b) and Parasuram (2002) argue that this Hindu heritage partially explains an Indian tradition of isolating students with disabilities from mainstream society.

However, in India, highly respected figures, such as Mahatma Gandhi, among other political leaders, have advocated strongly for education as the social mechanism to liberate the Indian masses from ignorance, poverty and outdated social norms. The complex context of India means that this commitment has taken many years to shape Indian policy regarding students with disabilities.

India’s support of the Salamanca Statement was the most significant step forward in terms of ongoing support of transformative educational policy in regards to students with disabilities. Nonetheless, it has been well documented that often a significant distance exists between policy intent, policy implementation and policy outcomes. To narrow this gap, researchers have identified the teacher as the catalyst in the conversion of educational policy into practice (Mintz, 2007; Shade & Steward, 2001; Sinkfeild, 2006). More specifically, a review of inclusive education studies reveals that teachers’ attitudes are the crucial component for any successful inclusive education program (Avramidis, Bayliss, & Burden, 2000).

In this context, the study draws upon the theoretical perspectives of Izek Ajze (1988; 2002; 2005) to investigate teachers’ beliefs about, attitudes towards, and anticipated behaviors regarding inclusive education programs in India. This is achieved

by an investigation of pre-service and in-service teachers' attitudes towards the inclusion of students with disabilities in the general classroom. To further understand how the principles of inclusive education can be effectively achieved in India, a country with a history of limited and exclusive educational practices, this thesis asks the following question:

What are the attitudes of pre-service teachers and in-service teachers towards the implementation of inclusive education in (selected) schools in Bangalore, Karnataka State, India?

The remainder of this introductory chapter outlines reasons to justify the attention to teachers' attitudes towards inclusive education in the Indian context (and the underlying beliefs).

The exploration of the significance of this study is divided into three parts.

Part 1 contains topics relating to:

- a global agenda for inclusive education, which outlines the basis for this research by articulating an understanding of the urgency of inclusive education on a global scale to provide all children with the right to education;
- a global commitment in a local context, which emphasises the necessity to prioritise the inclusive education program in India; Mahatma Gandhi's philosophy of basic education; and the Government of India's commitment to the Salamanca Statement.

Part 2 provides:

- a brief outline of key dates, policies and legal decisions relating to disabilities in relation to the focus of the thesis; and
- definitions of terms used in the study.

Part 3 provides an overview of the specific context of the study:

- the current Indian school system and the special school structure; and
- the Karnataka Perspective, which gives a review of Karnataka State in general with emphasis on the Karnataka State Draft Policy on Education of Children with Special Needs.

Part 4 outlines the connection between the subsequent chapters in this study.

The conclusion briefly recalls the insights contained in Chapter 1 as a prelude to the succeeding chapters of this study.

## **Part 1: Why This Study Is Necessary**

This study was conducted to determine the attitudes of teachers working in Bangalore City, India, towards inclusive education. Issues relating to inclusive education are significant within both local (Indian) and global debates.

### **1.1 A Global Agenda**

A growing international interest in the education of students with disabilities is increasingly motivated and justified by reference to economic factors (relationships between population and education in the pursuit of national or international economic growth) and equity concerns (practical benefits of access to education for all individuals). Economically, the quest to sustain progressive development has increased awareness of human resources as a source of wealth. A nation's failure to harness human resources to their fullest potential is considered by many to be its greatest economic loss (for examples, see Becker, 1993; Tisdell, 2000). In this context, the contributions of all citizens—including those with disabilities—need to be seriously considered.

This is not a new argument. During the Cold War era, western countries outpaced eastern countries in progressive development (Becker, 1993). The *Human Development Report (2002/2008)* (United Nations Development Programme, 2008) restates that the human international index needs to be elevated internationally for global sustainable development. This rationale is the basis of most nations' international relations agendas and the working agenda of international non-governmental organisations such as the World Health Organization and the United Nations. Creating the conditions that support quality education for all is thus increasingly represented as a key step for maximising workforce productivity. Education for all is therefore often recognised as an economic imperative.

Economic rationales often dictate political policies on education, and it is fair to say that signatories to the Salamanca Statement were influenced largely by economic agendas. However, there is also increasing recognition that education for all is an important provision of basic human rights, and central to social justice agendas. Heater (2003) agrees with Butts's (1989) argument that "the duty of every government [is] to see that the means of education are provided for all ... since education can never be less than such as is sufficient to qualify each citizen for the civic and social services he will be called upon to discharge" (Heater, 2003, pp. 104–105).

This sentiment is reiterated in several international legislative policies that historically outline the discrimination against children with disabilities. Dupoux et al.

(2005) and Mayor (1994) concluded that the Individuals with Disabilities Education Act (1975 & 2004) was the catalyst for including children with physical and mental disabilities in the general student population in the United States (Disability Rights Section, 2005).

The Salamanca Statement (Mayor, 1994) emphasises the Universal Declaration of Human Rights (1948):

Everyone has the right to education

(United Nations, 1949, p. 6)

Education shall be directed to the full development of the human personality and to the strengthening of respect for human rights and fundamental freedoms

(United Nations, 1949, p. 6)

This sentiment is re-echoed in the Declaration of the Rights of the Child (1959), a declaration consistently referred to within debates that foreground issues of social and educational justice.

Increasingly, of course, economic and equity debates are seen to be interwoven with improved access to education being linked to social and economic progress on a national level. Schur (2002) explains that education provides students with disabilities with employment opportunities and financial stability. This reduces social isolation and helps increase social skills for greater community participation. Alternatively, Booth (1996), Sharma and Deppeler (2005), the United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization (2005) and the Department of Education (2007) claim that the denial of access to general education limits employment opportunities. Students with disabilities who are denied education therefore experience financial disadvantage and social status devaluation in society.

The Salamanca Statement endorsement of inclusive education as an educational priority therefore responds, not only to social justice and equity considerations, but also to research demonstrating the financial and social benefits of quality education, on both the macro (national) and the micro (students with disabilities) scale.

Questions remain, however, about the extent to which these policy imperatives are understood or accepted by teachers working in diverse countries and vastly different contexts who are tasked with their implementation. Further, questions relating to how teachers explain their reactions are important. This draws attention to the influence of context on the implementation of policy. International declarations are politically



significant and provide important direction and focus. However, it is imperative to realise that the interpretation and pursuit of Salamanca Statement goals always occur in a specific local context: a context shaped by experiences, traditions and values that can challenge attempts to move from policy to practice. Attitudes do not develop in a vacuum. Studies seeking to identify teachers' attitudes towards inclusive education require an awareness of the diverse factors that shape their attitudes.

A brief reference to some of the key aspects relating to the Indian context of this study is therefore necessary.

## 1.2 A Global Commitment in a Local Context

India has had a long-standing struggle to achieve nationwide education. The Government of India endorsed the Salamanca Statement in 1994. This endorsement was consistent with both current and long-standing commitments to the principles of educating all. For example, the Constitution of India, Part 3, Fundamental Right Article 21 A (Planning Commission, 1950) specifies the endorsement of upholding every child's right to a free and compulsory education till the age of 14.

Prime Minister Dr. Manmohan Singh recommitted to this goal in the 60<sup>th</sup> Independence Day Speech by saying "no section of society and no part of the country is left behind" (Singh, 2006). Outlining the details of the 11th National Five Year Plan (Education Plan of India) (M. Singh, 2008) argued that:

Sarva Shiksha Abhiyan will ensure that all our children go to school (and) ... complete basic schooling ... We will pay particular attention to the empowerment through education of children belonging to Scheduled Castes, Scheduled Tribes and Minority ... all possible assistance for the all-round growth of children suffering from disabilities or with special needs ... care for those who suffer from disabilities so that they can lead a dignified life in society. ( M. Singh, 2007)

These contemporary views have been shaped by a number of key figures in India's political history. These figures are so significant that it is not possible to fully understand teachers' attitudes towards inclusive education policy in contemporary contexts without some knowledge on their historical basis (a point that I discuss in more detail when describing the research design). The next section of Chapter 1 will therefore provide some brief, but necessary, detail about the emergence of educational policy in India and some of the key ideas that shape contemporary interpretations of inclusive education.

### *1.2.1 Mahatma Gandhi's Perception of Education*

Mahatma Gandhi (1869–1948) abhorred the British education system in India. Gandhi (1990) claimed, “It has caused incalculable intellectual and moral injury to the nation” (p. 2). In contrast, Gandhi believed that “Mass-Education” was the “liberating process” to generate social transformation in the fragmented Indian society (Dhawan, 2005, p. 144). This is explained in the Wardha Committee Report of 1937, which urged “free and compulsory education to be provided for students aged between seven and fourteen years on a nationwide scale” (Department of Education, 1939). The concept of basic education is central to Gandhi’s position, and it continues to shape Indian attitudes towards education and inclusion. It is therefore important to provide a brief introduction to the term. Gandhi (1918) conceptualised basic education as a nationalistic pragmatic education system. Basic education aimed to promote social equality, reduce poverty and to develop sustainable progress for the marginalised masses in India, by removing the social stigma that blocked parts of society (women, Harijans or “untouchables”) from education opportunities as explained in the Sargent Report (Planning Commission, 1944).

Gandhi argued that “literacy in itself is not education” (Prabhu & Rao, 1968). Gandhi structured basic education on Tolstoy’s “libertarian principle” where “for education to be effective it had to be free” (Smith 1983: 64) and Dewey’s (1916) “functional approach” to education. This system provides teachers with the freedom of originality in curriculum development and the use of the vernacular language as the medium of instruction (Varkey, 1940). This flexible and indigenous education pattern, however, requires the community’s concerted efforts for effective implementation.

Gandhi’s blueprint for India’s future was recorded in the Wardha Committee Report (Kher, 1937) and his educational philosophies are echoed throughout the history of India’s education system. Tracing the history, it is possible to see growing attention to the needs of people who have been traditionally marginalised by education. The national five year plan policies, specifically the 11<sup>th</sup> National Five Year Plan (M. Singh, 2008a), which aims to promote women’s education, free and compulsory mass education, rural education propagation and an activity-oriented curriculum, are reflections of Gandhi’s contributions to the Indian educational system.

However, although Gandhi’s philosophies on human equality are attuned to the inclusive education principles of social equality, he overlooked the need to make specific provisions for individuals with disabilities. Further, as highlighted by numerous researchers (Alur, 1998; Rao, 2003), nine decades after the Wardha Education Scheme was approved, the goal of education for all is yet to be achieved in India. Education today

is of a controversial quality and substandard in nature. It is designed for the selective few, making it often unattainable to the common Indian citizen. Despite this situation, Gandhi's philosophies (and their emphasis on the role education plays in overcoming disadvantage) inform the ways in which people today think about the possibilities of working towards education for all, and (as will be discussed in later chapters) teachers often draw upon Gandhi's concepts to articulate their general beliefs about the purposes of education.

### *1.2.2 Government of India Initiatives*

Additionally, it cannot be ignored that there have been significant policy initiatives put in place. The Government of India was a signatory of United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization's Salamanca statement (Mayor, 1994). This initiative was followed by subsequent legislation of the Rehabilitation Council of India Act (Ministry of Welfare, 1992), Persons with Disabilities Act (Ministry of Social Justice and Empowerment, 1995), National Trust Act (Ministry of Social Justice and Empowerment, 1999) and Bill of Rights of Education Amendment 93 of the Indian Constitution (Planning Commission, 2002). These legislations reflect the Government of India's efforts to comply with United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization's Salamanca Statement focus on providing education for all, particularly for students with disabilities through the implementation of inclusive education nationwide (see Appendix 2).

### **National Policy on Education**

The National System of Education implies that, up to a given level, all students irrespective of caste, creed, location or sex, have access to education of a comparable quality.

To promote equality, it will be necessary to provide for equal opportunity to all not only in access, but also in the conditions of success. ... awareness of the inherent equality of all will be created through the core curriculum. The purpose is to remove prejudices and complexes transmitted through the social environment and accident of birth. (Department of Education, 1998, Section 3, Article 2)

Special emphasis on the removal of disparities and to equalize educational opportunity of attending to the specific needs of those who have been denied equality so far.

To integrate the physically and mentally handicapped with the general community as equal partners, to prepare them for normal growth and ... face life with courage and confidence. The following measures will be taken:

- i) Wherever it is feasible, the education of children with motor handicaps and other mild handicaps will be common with that of others.
- ii) Special schools with hostels will be provided, as far as possible at district headquarters, for the severely handicapped children.
- iii) Adequate arrangements will be made to give vocational training to the disabled.
- iv) Teachers' training programmes will be reoriented, in particular for teachers of primary classes, to deal with the special difficulties of the handicapped children; and
- v) Voluntary effort for the education of the disabled, will be encouraged in every possible manner. (Department of Education, 1998, Section 4, Article 1)

### **Constitution of India**

Any section of the citizens residing in the territory of India or any part thereof having a distinct language, script or culture of its own shall have the right to conserve the same. (Planning Commission, 1950, Article 29(1))

No citizen shall be denied admission into any educational institution maintained by the State or receiving aid out of State funds on grounds only of religion, race, caste, language or any of them. (Planning Commission, 1950, Article 29(2))

However, research and political commentary suggests that there is a wide disparity between policy and practice regarding inclusive education in India. The National Census of 2001 (Sikri, 2005) revealed five types of disabilities (seeing, speech, hearing, mental and movement) that have been identified for accountability, and only 2% of persons with disabilities are afforded a school education. Further this Census reported that, Karnataka State ranked 11<sup>th</sup> on the persons with disabilities population statistics chart. The National Commission for Women 2004 census disclosed that 3,523,663 of the national total of 21,906,769 persons with disabilities resided in Karnataka (Kumar & Singh, 2006).

These demographic details reveal a disparity between commitments and actualisation of the idea of education for all in contemporary India. Such disparity demands a closer analysis of students with disabilities underrepresentation in mainstream schooling and the urgency for investigation into the factors that deter or support inclusive education initiatives.

To this end, this research investigates the implementation of India's inclusive education policy. More specifically, it explores factors that hinder or advance the

progressive implementation of the policy and in particular the role that the teachers' attitudes play in this complex process. The location for this research is selected schools in Bangalore City, Karnataka State, India: details are provided in Chapter 3. Next, a review of chronological events, legislative policies and key terms employed in the study will be presented.

## **Part 2: Key Dates and Policies**

### **1.3 Legal Decisions Relating to Disabilities**

Debates on whether children with disabilities have a right to education at all started in the 18th century (Safford & Safford, 2005). These debates underpinned human and civil rights movements and strongly advocated education of all, which led to the United Nations influence on global education, resulting in a review of United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization's involvement in advocating inclusive education.

After World War II (1939–1945), numerous commitments to democracy had a significant effect on general education. This democratic ideal coincided with the advancement of policies and practices in Australia, Europe and North America to include and cater for the educational needs of students with disabilities. United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization and World Health Organization paved the way towards a social educational paradigm (Armstrong, Armstrong, & Spandagou, 2010).

In 1948 the United Nation's Universal Declaration of Human Rights (1948, Article 26) stipulated that everyone has a right to education. Subsequently, the goal of the International League of Societies for Persons with Mental Handicap in Jerusalem, 1968 (Detrick, Doek & Cantwell, 1992: 64) to address the needs of people who at that time were referred to as mentally handicapped persons was achieved via the United Nations Declaration on Rights of Mentally Retarded Persons (Office of the High Commissioner for Human Rights, 1971, Article 2), and the United Nations Declaration on the Rights of Disabled Persons (1975, Article 6).

To draw universal attention to the urgency of recognising and addressing the needs of persons with disabilities, the United Nations declared 1983–1992 "The Decade for Persons with Disabilities".

The World Declaration on Education for All, Jomtien, Thailand (1990) re-emphasised persons with disabilities fundamental right to education. In 1994 the United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organizations Salamanca Statement

advocated global commitment to education for all. Implementation of the Salamanca Statement policies was the agenda for the Mid-Decade Review—Amman, Jordan (1996). The Dakar Framework further endorsed the Salamanca Statement for Action (2000), which reconfirmed the education-for-all policy. To emphasise the importance of implementing the Salamanca Statement policies, the United Nations dedicated 2003–2012 as “The Decade of Literacy”, or education for all. The United Nation’s 3rd Workshop on Improving Disability Statistics, Bangkok (2006), aimed to help nations determine their progress in implementing the Salamanca Statement, or the inclusive for all policy in their respective countries. The Convention on the Rights of Persons with Disabilities (2008) elaborated the rights of persons with disabilities.

The previous section provided an outline of the political background. The following section contains an outline of terms relevant to this topic. Also provided is an explanation of the specific usage and understanding of these terms in the Indian context. This section also includes a detailed picture of the research site.

### **Part 3: Context of the Study**

#### **1.4 Key Terms**

The key terms in this study are sometimes used in ways that differ from how they are used in other/and global context(s). It is therefore important to introduce these key terms and their definitions. The meaning of these definitions in relation to this study are further elaborated in the succeeding chapters.

##### *1.4.1 Education*

The Indian Constitution Article 45 stipulates that “every child has the right to free and compulsory education”. This legislative policy expands into Part IV Directive Principles of State Policy of the Indian Constitution, which adds:

The State shall endeavour to provide, within a period of ten years from the commencement of this Constitution, for free and compulsory education for all children until they complete the age of fourteen years. (Additionally) Provision for early childhood care and education to children below the age of six years. — The State shall endeavour to provide early childhood care and education for all children until they complete the age of six years. (Chaturvedi, 2007, p. 23)

Part IV Directive Principles is considered part of the definition by politicians and educators, as explained by Alur (1998).

### *1.4.2 Basic Education*

Basic education, or the education for life system authored by Mahatma Gandhi, was based on the precepts of free, universal and compulsory education for all children between the ages of seven and 14: a flexible, environment-conscious, craft-based curriculum, to be delivered in the mother tongue or local language (Department of Education, 1939).

#### *1.4.2.1 India's definition of disability*

In India, different terms such as disabled, handicapped, crippled and physically challenged are common; and often used interchangeably (Das, 2012).

Kumar and Singh (2006) defined disability as “any, restriction, or lack of abilities to perform an activity in the manner or within the range considered normal for a human being” (p. 475). Prior to the survey, disabilities were categorised as mental disabilities and physical disabilities. Subsequently, disabilities were categorised as visual, communicative, loco-motor and mental retardation disabilities (see Appendix 3).

### *1.4.3 Special Education*

India does not have a definition of special education. Rather Indian policy draws upon the United States scholars who define special education as the deliberate modification of the general education curriculum to cater to the needs of students with disabilities (Mastropieri & Scruggs, 2004). The revised Individuals with Disabilities Education Act (1997) policy on special education defines it as:

A broad term covering programs and services for students who deviate physically, mentally, or emotionally from the norm to an extent that they require unique learning experiences, teachings or materials in order to be maintained in the general educational classroom, or in a specialized classes and programs if their problems are more severe. (Vergason & Anderegg, 1997, p. 150)

Inclusive education is often mistaken as synonymous with mainstreaming or integration. However, each concept has unique characteristics.

#### *1.4.3.1 Mainstreaming*

In mainstreaming classes in India, Wolery and Odom (2000) and Nordlund (2004) explain, students with disabilities attend general classes and are “pulled out” for modified lessons based on the standardised class requirements, in areas where learning difficulties are experienced.

#### *1.4.3.2 Integration*

Wolery and Odom (2000) and Mittler (2000) explain that in the integration system no curriculum modification for students with disabilities is required. Students with disabilities are enrolled in age-appropriate classes. In this system, academic achievement is secondary to social awareness and acceptance of students with disabilities.

#### *1.4.4 Inclusion*

Inclusion is a controversial, multi-dimensional concept, indicates Singal (2005). Sailor (2002b) and Turnbull, Turnbull, Shank, Smith and Leal (2002) reiterate Salisbury's (1991) understanding of inclusion, as programs within which:

the diverse needs of all children are accommodated to the maximum extent possible within the general education curriculum ... Driven by a vision of schools as a place where all children learn well what we want them to learn, schools become creative and successful environments for adults and the children they serve. (p. 145-155)

However, the concept of inclusion is a complicated one. It is therefore discussed in greater detail in Chapter 2.

#### *1.4.5 Inclusive Education*

The Salamanca Statement promotes the inclusive education program to achieve the universal aim of education for all. Although there is no universal consensus on a definition, one of the most widely recognised definitions, and the one that is adopted by this thesis, is that proposed by United Nations Educational, Scientific Cultural Organization (2005).

United Nations Educational, Scientific Cultural Organization (2005) defines inclusive education as:

a process of addressing and responding to the diversity of needs of all learners through increasing participation in learning, cultures and communities, and reducing exclusion within and from education. It involves changes and modifications in content, approaches, structures and strategies, with a common vision which covers all children of the appropriate age range and a conviction that it is the responsibility of the state to educate all children. (p. 13)

The Action Plan for Inclusive Education of Children and Youth with Disabilities of the Government of India defines inclusive education in the following way:

Inclusive education ... seeks to address the learning needs of all children ... with specific focus on those who are vulnerable to marginalization and exclusion. It implies all learners ... with or without disabilities ... being able to learn together



through access to common pre-school provisions, schools and community educational setting with an appropriate network of support services. (N.Singh, 2005)

#### *1.4.6 Disability*

Disability is an evolving concept, particularly in India. In the World Report on Disability, the International Classification of Functioning, Disability and Health, explained, “Disability is the umbrella term for impairments, activity limitations and participation restrictions, referring to the negative aspects of the interaction between an individual (with a health condition) and that individual’s contextual factors (environmental and personal factors)” (World Health Organization, 2011, p. 4).

##### *1.4.6.1 Students with disabilities*

In India, the term students with disabilities refers to students with single or multiple physical or mental disabilities ranging from mild to severe in nature, as defined by World Health Organization (1980) and adopted by the Government of India (Aggarwal, 2001; Baquer & Sharma, 1997; Pandey & Advani, 1995).

#### *1.4.7 Teacher*

The Government of India’s National Council for Teachers Education requires teachers to complete any one of the following courses in order to be qualified to teach: Masters in Education, Bachelor in Education, Diploma in Education, Primary Teachers Training, Teacher Training Certificate, Certificate in Education, Basic Training Certificate or Junior Basic Training course (Parasuram, 2002). This requirement may be waived for religious or charitable funded schools because of financial constraints or a dearth of teachers.

In this study:

- In-service teachers refer to academically qualified teachers employed in schools located in Bangalore, Karnataka State, India, in 2005–2006.
- Pre-service teachers refer to student teachers with or without prior teaching experience but enrolled in the Bachelor of Education degree program for the academic year 2006.

### **1.5 Current Indian School System and Special Schools**

Outlining the Indian educational system is essential for comprehension of the Government of India’s and state governments’ roles in implementing the fundamental

right to education, stipulated in the Constitution of India, Article 29–30 (Chaturvedi, 2007), and for understanding teachers' attitudes towards inclusive education. The Government of India has a three-tier governing system: central, state and village or block (panchayat). The Central Ministry of Human Resource Development is responsible for the nationwide development and implementation of educational policies. The Department of Women and Child Development within the Human Resources Development Ministry administers to the welfare of the disabled population. ). India has 29 states and 7 territories. Each state or territory is divided into numerous districts geographically for administration purposes. Districts are once again divided geographically into blocks for administration proposes.

For administrative purposes, every state is divided into districts (zilla parishads and gram panchayats), which are further subdivided into blocks. There are approximately 5,000 blocks nationwide. National policies developed at the Central Government are implemented in each state through the State Education Department (Alur, 1998).

In 2002, the Government of India was determined to implement the 86th Constitutional Amendment Act, Article 21, which emphasises “free and compulsory education” for children, aged six to 14. This resulted in the “10 plus 2” school system implementation nationwide. This system advocates that student's complete high school (Grade 10) and a two-year pre-university (Grades 11–12) course, prior to university admission. School education is free in public schools (Jain, 2002). There are approximately 888,000 schools nationwide with an enrolment of about 179 million students. The elementary education system in India is the world's second largest with 149.4 million children in the age group of six to 14 enrolled and 2.9 million teachers employed (Kumar & Singh, 2006).

## 1.6 Attitudes and Beliefs

This thesis addresses the research question:

What are the attitudes of pre-service teachers and in-service teachers towards the implementation of inclusive education in (selected) schools in Bangalore, Karnataka State, India?

The term ‘attitude’ has a specific meaning within this thesis. The word is commonly used to describe an individual's likes and dislikes as illustrated through behavior (Eysenck, 2012). Throughout this thesis use of the term reflects the theoretical writings of Icek Ajzen (1988; 1991; 2002; 2005) & Fishbein & Ajzen (1975). For Fishbein & Ajzen (1975) attitude refers to “a learned pre-disposition to respond in a consistently favorable or unfavorable manner with respect to a given object” (p. 6). The object of an

attitude may be “a person, a group of people, an institution, a behavior, a policy, an event” (Fisbein & Ajzen, 1975, p. 12). Attitudes can change with the acquisition of knowledge, through different experiences, and via interactions with others.

Fishbein & Ajzen go on to note that attitudes emerge from beliefs:

Beliefs are the fundamental building blocks in our conceptual structure. On the basis of direct observation or information received from outside sources or by way of various inference processes, a person learns or forms a number of beliefs about an object. That is, he [sic] associates the object with various attributes. ... The totality of a person’s beliefs serves as the informational base that ultimately determines his attitudes, intentions and behaviours (1975, p. 12).

In other words, for Ajzen (2005) “Attitudes are said to follow reasonably from the beliefs people hold about the object of the attitude, just as intentions and actions follow reasonably from attitudes” (Ajzen, 2005, p. 29). In the case of this thesis the ‘objects’ under consideration are policies relating to inclusive education in India, and students with disabilities.

The relationship between beliefs, attitudes and behavior necessarily means that it in order to make sense of and/or predict Indian teachers’ actions in regards to the implementation of inclusive education policy it is necessary to focus on their beliefs, in order to identify their attitudes. The analytical process associated with this work—and, specifically, the necessarily close attention given to identifying three types of beliefs (behavioral beliefs, subjective beliefs and perceived behavioral control beliefs)—is outlined in Chapter 3, and revisited in Chapter 5. It is important to signal here, however, that the focus on beliefs leads ultimately to identification of attitudes.

## 1.6 Karnataka Perspective

### 1.6.1 *Karnataka Background Review*

Karnataka, previously known as Mysore State, is located in South India (see Appendix 4). Karnataka is the eighth largest state (area) in India. Bangalore, the cosmopolitan capital city, is the third most populous city in India. Karnataka, for administrative purposes, comprises four divisions, namely, Bangalore, Belgaum, Gulbarga and Mysore, which are divided into 27 districts and subdivided into 202 blocks (Government of Karnataka, 2006; Huchaiah, 2007) (see Appendix 5).

In Karnataka, the Department of Public Instruction administers the Central Government educational policies state-wide (Ministry of Human Resources Development, 2002). Schools in Karnataka are categorised as government schools,

private government aided schools and private schools. Education is free and compulsory for all children aged zero to 14, in compliance with the Sarva Shiksha Abhiyan goals. High school education, although free, is not compulsory in Karnataka. According to the 2001 census, the literacy rate in Karnataka was 67.04%. Further the statistics disclosed that among the total male population the literacy achievement rate was 76.29%. this number fell to 57.45% among the total female population (Government of Karnataka, 2006).

#### *1.6.2 Karnataka State Draft Policy on Education of Children with Special Needs*

To achieve the goals of the Government of India's education-for-all policy, in 2006–2007 the Karnataka Government and Sarva Shiksha Abhiyan-Karnataka designed the Education of Children with Special Needs policy in the Karnataka Draft Policy. Commonly known as the “Draft”, this document recommends inclusive education implementation to advantage the 129,651 students with disabilities, accounting for 1.62% of the total student population, aged six to 14 years for the academic year 2006–2007 state-wide (Government of Karnataka, 2006, p. 2).

The policy aims to achieve a zero rejection rate for applications to school admission, and an educational system where all students learn in an environment free from physical and social barriers, while simultaneously requiring the community to accept, respect and value the contributions of students with disabilities to society. To achieve this aim, the Draft proposed curriculum revision; availability of appropriate resource materials (Braille books); assessment modification; physical facilities provisions; research; establishment of a government section to oversee inclusive education practices; and active networking between the schools, community, non-government organization stakeholders and the state government. Although written in 2006, the Draft today is still under consideration by the Government of Karnataka Department of Education (Primary and Secondary). Nonetheless, I feel the Draft manifests the state government's attempt to effectively implement inclusive education in Karnataka (Government of Karnataka, 2006), and is an important part of the landscape against which teachers' attitudes are developed.

The following section provides a brief overview of the education system in India with an emphasis on Karnataka State.

#### **Part 4: Structure**

In the context outlined above, this thesis seeks to examine teachers' attitudes towards inclusive education, to contribute to a broader national and international agenda relating to inclusive education for all student with disabilities.

This study is presented in six chapters. Each chapter presents information relating to a specific component of this study.

Chapter 1 has discussed the significance of the study from global and Indian perspectives. Also discussed were landmark policies such as Mahatma Gandhi's contributions to education for all, followed by a brief overview of India's education system, with an emphasis on Karnataka, and an explanation of specific terminology employed in the thesis.

Chapter 2 provides a review of related literature identifying shifts in international attitudes towards persons with disabilities and highlighting different models for interpreting disabilities. Chapter 2 also provides information about the emergence of inclusive education in India and how research relating to inclusive education has evolved in India and internationally.

Chapter 3 explains the research and theoretical design of the thesis. It locates the thesis within the mixed-method paradigm; provides a description of the research design and outlines the development and implementation of the questionnaire and the group based focus group discussions which were used for data collection. Chapter 3 also outlines the Theory of Planned Behavior (Ajzen, 1991) which is used to analyze the data presented in Chapters 4 and 5.

Chapter 4 provides an analysis of quantitative data drawn from the individual responses of the four cohorts of respondents to the questionnaire focusing on the impact of the demographic independent variables (age, gender, education qualifications, and experience).

Chapter 5 provides an analysis of the qualitative data gathered from the responses of the verbal interview, drawing upon the theory of planned behavior to highlight the impact of teachers' behavioral beliefs; subjective norms; and perceived behavioral controls on their attitudes towards inclusive education.

Chapter 6 discusses the data presented and identifies three sets of key findings. Firstly the majority of the participants agreed that all children have a right to an education where teachers are equipped with the right tools to teach and are supported by parents. Despite this, analysis also showed inclusive education is not a priority in the Indian educational system and that participants identify several barriers to the implementation of inclusive education. Finally analysis of the impact of demographic factors revealed that age and experience had a significant impact on the participant teachers' attitudes.

## 1.7 Conclusion

This chapter provided an overview of the global and Government of India commitment to achieving the Salamanca Statement aim of school education for all through implementation of the inclusive education program nationwide. Also included was an explanation of technical terms used in this study, the Government of India's legislative policies enactment to achieve education for all, Mahatma Gandhi's perception of education and the background of the current education system in India with an emphasis on Karnataka State. The next chapter provides further details about the location of this study within wider literature.

## **Chapter 2: Literature Review**

The literature review examines research on inclusive education from the global and Indian perspective with emphasis on literature related to Karnataka State, South India. This overview will establish a gap in the existing research focused on this context and thereby validate an investigation into the challenges confronting inclusive education implementation in India and a particular focus on teachers' beliefs.

The study focuses on teachers' roles in translating educational policy into practice and, specifically, on their beliefs about inclusive education. I will therefore review literature relating to factors that influence teachers' attitudes towards inclusive education. This review has seven parts. Part 1 briefly reviews literature that chronologically maps out major trends, in terms of social and political attitudes towards people with disabilities, in an international context. Part 2 reviews literature highlighting the emergence of contemporary models for understanding disability, with emphasis on the biological, medical and social models of disability. Part 3 contains information on the evolution and emergence of inclusive education, including differences between inclusion and integration. Part 4 concentrates on the literature on inclusive education in India. Section 5 explains attitudes in relation to this study. It explores commonly identified influences on attitude development, including knowledge, experience and social norms. Part 6 discusses the importance of teachers in the implementation of inclusive education and how teachers' beliefs are shaped. Finally, Part 7 highlights the impact of knowledge, experience and social context on teachers' attitudes.

It is important to reiterate here that the location of this study is India. Therefore, several sections of the literature review relate back to the Indian context as briefly discussed in the previous chapter.

As noted above, the aim throughout is to demonstrate that there is a gap in the existing body of literature, in terms of the factors that affect teachers' willingness to implement inclusive education in schools in Bangalore, India.

### **Part 1: Historical Attitudes towards Disability**

A step backwards into human history will show that persons with disabilities for centuries have been, and continue to be, a marginalised section of society. Segregated from the mainstream of society and denied their basic human rights and freedoms, including the right to an education, persons with disabilities have remained on the lowest step of the social and economic ladder. Social stigmatisation has deprived persons with

disabilities of active participation in mainstream society. “For practically all of the history of civilization, education has been for the elite, and education practices have reflected an elitist orientation” (Blankenship & Lilly, 1981, p.18).

Rejection and segregation of persons with disabilities (persons with disabilities) can be chronologically traced back to the Neanderthal period, through the Greek and Roman civilisations, and into the Middle Ages. Mackelprang and Salsgiver (1996) reaffirm Plato’s view that “Western culture ... viewed people with disabilities as standing in the way of a perfect world” (p. 1), as does Morris (1986): “like the Greeks, the Romans also abandoned disabled or deformed children to die” (p. 1).

During the Industrial Revolution era, persons with disabilities occupied the lowest rung of the social ladder (Livneh, 1982; Mackelprang & Salsgiver, 1996; Stone, 1984). In England, the Elizabethan Law 1601 (Bloy, 2002) classified persons with disabilities as “deserving” of marginal monetary assistance to ease their economic problems. This marked recognition illustrates the need for “political will” as essential for persons with disabilities’ support. While this research project explores attitudes towards disability in a contemporary context, this brief historical note serves as an important reminder that attitudes towards disability (and thus inclusive education) are culturally and historically shaped. This is illustrated further in the ways in which models of disability have changed over time.

## **Part 2: Models of Disability**

Today literature generally argues that “disability”—as it is actually experienced by individuals—is created by society. Disability, therefore allows people to be oppressed and discriminated against in an unequal poverty-ridden society (Oliver, 1990). The “cause and effect” paradigm is often used in understanding how the general population perceives disabilities within a specific historical time frame.

### **2.1 Early Model: The Religious Model**

In the 17th-century religious model, physical or mental impairment was often linked to an individual’s failure to please God. Therefore, persons with disabilities were often discriminated against and segregated from the societal mainstream. As Swain, Finkelstein, French and Oliver (1993) explain, people perceived the differences associated with disability, but failed to recognise the commonalities between people.



## 2.2 Contemporary Models

Paige (2004) identifies three significant, consecutive, chronological phases or models in contemporary policy and education relating to persons with disabilities.

### 2.2.1 *First Phase: The Biological Model*

During the first phase (WWI [1914–1918] to WWII [1939–1950]), the biological model, based on Darwin's (1869) "survival of the fittest" philosophy, viewed disability unfavourably. Persons with disabilities were denied what today are regarded as basic human rights. Segregated from society, they often lived in poverty and endured social humiliation. Their social condition was "a constant eclipse that darkened the sun" (Paige, 2004, p. 8). Some philanthropists established asylums to provide custodial care for housing persons with disabilities (Bender, 1970; Pritchard, 1963) but the dominant approach was negative.

### 2.2.2. *Second Phase: The Medical Model*

The second phase was marked by advancement in medicine and an associated desire to represent disabilities as medical problems. The medical model defined disability by comparing the disabled body to the able body (Linton, 1988). Disability was explained as the result of biological and physiological dysfunction (French & Swain, 2001). This perspective was based on the premise that an ideal level of biological and physiological functioning is essential for a body to be considered "normal". Failure to meet the expected functionality levels was termed as dysfunctional and "abnormal". From this perspective, all individuals were either normal or abnormal. Any individual with a dysfunctional and abnormal physical body was labelled as "disabled" (Kutner, 2007, p. 101).

Disabled persons, in this framework, were positioned as the minority group identified by a deviation from the biological or physiological norm. Their lack of normalcy made them dependent on society and requiring medical attention for survival (Barnes, 2012; Finkelstein, 1980; Oliver, 1990).

Trickett, Watts and Birdman (1994) remarked that the medical model focuses on "person-fixing rather than context changing" (p. 18). Swain et al. (1993) added that disabled individuals were "objects" (p. 26) requiring professional attention, without which they were incapacitated to function on their own.

#### 2.2.2.1 *The individual model*

In the early 1960s the medical model moved towards a more humane and positive approach (Oliver, 1996a, 1996b). This new approach has been called the individual model (Llewellyn & Hogan, 2000, pp. 157–158). Oliver (1990) explained that the individual

model of disabilities presents two fundamental considerations: “Firstly, it locates the ‘problem’ of disability within the individual and secondly it sees the causes of this problem as stemming from the functional limitations or psychological losses which are assumed to arise from disability” (Oliver, 1990, p. 3).

The medical model failed to recognise that the social environment needs to be “cured”, not the individual (Masala & Petretto, 2012). Although this model failed to reduce social stigmatisation and restricted the societal involvement of persons with disabilities, the model did recognise that disabilities reduce employment opportunities. To counterbalance this disadvantage, the model recommended that persons with disabilities be provided with financial aid. Subsequently, in Britain during the 1960s, self-advocacy movements promoting persons with disabilities’ rights conceptualised the social model (Masala & Petretto, 2012).

### *2.2.3 Third Phase: The Social Model*

The third phase of policy development associated with disabilities took a more humane approach, now described as the social model. In 1976 the Union of Physically Impaired Against Segregation advocated for elimination of negativity towards persons with disabilities (Schilling & Coles, 1997). Social advocates such as Finklestein (1980), Barnes (2012) and Oliver (1990, 1996a, 1996b) identified “society as the problem”, since individuals are “alterable” and appropriate treatment enables persons with disabilities’ adjustment into society. However, society is “unalterable ... within a society the handicap becomes disabled” (Llewellyn & Hogan, 2000, p. 163). The social model “does not deny the problem of the disability but locates it squarely within society” (Oliver, 1996a, pp. 32–33). In this scenario, persons with disabilities are understood as primarily inconvenienced by physical and social measures that limit their active social engagement: thus, the key problem is society’s failure to cater to the needs of persons with disabilities (Oliver, 1996b).

The shift to the social model focuses on a disabled society expanding its perimeters of normality to recognise the human rights of persons with disabilities (Llewellyn & Hogan, 2000). The social model is particularly valuable for exploring issues relating to disabilities in the Indian context, where, as in the Indian caste system, persons with disabilities are socially stigmatised in spite of legislation that seeks to prevent this.

Changes to the ways in which disability is conceptualised have shaped changes in the ways in which education for people with a disability is understood, in policy and

practice. The next part briefly reviews the history of inclusive education, focusing more explicitly on educational responses to, and opportunities for, students with disabilities.

### **Part 3: Education for People with Disabilities: A Historical Perspective**

Just as attitudes towards disability in society have changed significantly over time, so, too, have attitudes towards the relationship between education and disabilities. Literature reveals considerable and dramatic changes in attitudes across the past five centuries. This covers a move from exclusion and institutionalisation through to various forms of “inclusion” (a term that is discussed more as this chapter proceeds).

Institutionalisation was the earliest consideration afforded to persons with disabilities. British philanthropists established asylums and offered custodial care. Despite or because of this development many persons with disabilities suffered social invisibility (Bender, 1970; Pritchard, 1963) and experienced little access to education. Access that was available was often shaped by factors such as the nature of the disability and economic status. For example, 15th-century private special schools for sensory-impaired students offered persons with disabilities vocational training to gain sustainable employment. However, only a privileged few had access to these schools. Government involvement came much later (Jenkinson, 1997).

Normalisation in the mid-1950s by Scandinavian countries attempted to counterbalance the limitations of institutionalisation (Jenkinson, 1997). In normalisation, the regular school curriculum, with minimum alterations, was extended to students with disabilities. The limitation of normalisation was the failure to recognise the students with disabilities’ individual differences. The students with disabilities therefore struggled with the regular school curriculum, which resulted in a high student with disabilities dropout level (Jenkinson, 1997). I agree with critics that normalisation failed to cater education to the individual needs of each students with disabilities. Nonetheless, normalisation was the bedrock of an approach to the education for students with disabilities that became known as integration education.

Special schools were established in many countries to address the criticisms levied against normalisation. The goal was “to devise and implement curricula for students who appeared unable to learn from normal instruction in the regular class” (Jenkinson, 1997, p. 13). It has subsequently been argued that placement of students with disabilities in an alternative environment defeats the purpose of normalisation. Since special schools exclude students with disabilities from societal participation, higher self-worth, gaining

achievements and social interaction, they enhance the legitimatisation of social discrimination (Ainscow, 1991; Jenkinson, 1997; Wang, Haertel, & Walberg, 1990).

### 2.3 Towards Inclusive Education

The inclusive education system was conceptualised in the last decades of the 20th century to enhance the education of students with disabilities (Sailor, 2002a, 2002b; Turnbull et al., 2002). It has been argued that:

In inclusive programs, the diverse needs of all children are accommodated to the maximum extent possible within the general education curriculum ... Driven by a vision of schools as a place where all children learn well what we want them to learn, schools become creative and successful environments for adults and the children they serve. (Salisbury, 1991, p.82)

However, the concept of inclusive education has multiple definitions and uses. At this juncture, it is therefore vital that the concepts of mainstreaming, integration and inclusion be discussed in more detail: especially since inclusive education is often mistaken as synonymous with mainstreaming and integration. All three concepts imply particular beliefs about student placements (i.e., where they were taught), teacher attitudes (i.e., how they were taught) and modification of the regular curriculum (i.e., what they were taught).

#### 2.3.1 *Mainstreaming*

Introduced in the 1970s, the mainstreaming system provided for students with disabilities to gain regular learning experiences in a regular classroom. Students with disabilities experiencing difficulties in a subject were “pulled out” from the regular classroom for additional and alternative learning experiences. This system was more favourable than “muddling through” the regular curriculum requirements. Mainstreaming considered the individual learning abilities of students but without altering the regular curriculum. Hence, the regular student and students with disabilities benefited from the shared experiences of social and emotional awareness, appreciation of individual difference, and a sense of self-worth and achievement (Nordlund, 2004; Wolery & Odom, 2000). This alternative learning design is termed the individual educational plan.

The individualized education plan is exclusively designed for each students with disabilities. Flexible in nature, for review and revisions, it considers the availability of supplementary aids and services within the school. The individualized education plan team comprises the students with disabilities, the students with disabilities’ parents, the class teacher and a qualified government specialist. An individualize educational plan

“details their special learning needs and mandates appropriate services. Short and long-term goals and objectives” for students with disabilities (Mastropieri & Scruggs, 2002, p. 13). An individual educational plan validates why a student with disabilities requires a modified curriculum in the regular classroom and also supports the development of an alternative tool to measure the students with disabilities achievement.

### *2.3.2 Integration*

Integration was introduced in the 1980s by Warnock (1978). Placement decision was a key focus in this paradigm. Students with disabilities were enrolled in a class appropriate to their age level. Attendance was either on a part-time basis with special education classes within the school premises or regular classes on a full-time basis (Wolery & Odom, 2000). Integration placed students with disabilities in the least restrictive environment while they had to cope with the regular classroom requirements. Some research has argued that even so-called appropriate placement is insufficient to foster equal opportunities for students with disabilities. Restructuring the physical school environment and learning experiences may be essential to accommodate the specific needs of students with disabilities (Mittler, 2000; Thomas, 1997).

In some contexts, however, integration advocates a focus on coping skills’ development and active class participation. While this has been linked to de-emphasising educational outcomes, integration nevertheless commonly seeks to afford equal opportunities for maximum learning, creating social awareness and acceptance of students with disabilities. Integration hence was the introductory step to inclusion (Mastropieri & Scruggs, 2002).

### *2.3.3 Inclusion*

The inclusion concept originated in the Scandinavian countries. This system was initially implemented in Europe and North America (Kisanji, 1999; Wolfensberger, 1972). The central features of the inclusion concept are admission of the students with disabilities in the regular local schools, placement in grade- or age-appropriate classes, and provision of specialised support in the general education classroom. The philosophies of inclusion and inclusive education are outcomes of academic debates (Sailor, 1991, 2002a).

Sailor (2002b) identifies grade-level placement of students with disabilities as the differentiating factor between the concepts of inclusion and inclusive education. In the inclusion framework, students with disabilities are accommodated in the regular class

based on age or grade appropriateness with paraprofessionals' support. In inclusive education, the regular curriculum is altered depending on the students with disabilities' abilities.

As this literature shows, there is considerable overlap across the terms related to inclusive education and even within the inclusive education literature itself; ambiguity in definition and leniency in its usage make inclusive education a vague and fluid concept (Singal, 2005). As noted above, research has shown that the concept of inclusive education is sometimes inaccurately interpreted synonymously with integration and mainstreaming. In agreement, "some educators define inclusion as a movement toward combining special education and general education services by including students with disabilities into the regular class" (Clampit, Holifield, & Nichols, 2004, pp. 2). In addition, "many educators contend that inclusion as a definition refers to a place in a general education classroom" (Bondurant, 2004, p. 2). These definitions could well satisfy the concepts of both mainstreaming and integration.

The provision of educational opportunities for students with disabilities is the focal point in the inclusive education system (Halvorsen & Neary, 2001). Inclusive education is when "students with disabilities are supported in chronologically age appropriate general education classes in their home (neighbourhood) schools and receive the specialised instruction delineated by their individualized education programs within the context of the core curriculum and general class activities" (Florida Developmental Disabilities Center, 2002).

This literature makes it clear that, still today, "inclusion has different meanings for different people" (Baker & Zigmond, 1995, p. 179). Alternatively, inclusion could also be explained as:

The diverse needs of all children are accommodated to the maximum extent possible within the general education curriculum ... Driven by a vision of schools as a place where all children learn well what we want them to learn, schools become creative and successful environments for adults and the children they serve. (Sailsbury, 1991, p.82)

However, from any angle, inclusive education is a child-centred, value-loaded, democratic educational program based on the human rights principle that every child has a right to an education.

The term inclusive education is employed in this study. However, as noted in the introduction to this thesis, in the Indian context understandings of "inclusion" are shaped by India's history of struggle in terms of moving away from a British education system

that devalued much of the Indian culture and population, towards a system that is able to value and include Indian citizens. This focus is explored in more detail in the following part of the literature review. The part that follows provides an overview of literature that outlines key historical moments in India's development of policies and practices relating to inclusive education.

#### **Part 4: A Historical Perspective on India's Move towards Inclusive Education**

##### **2.4 Review of Policies and Practices Pre-Independence**

The literature provides a detailed picture of the history of inclusive education in India. It has been shown that Christian missionaries initiated the education of the physically disabled in India. Consequently, "it was voluntary effort that played a pioneering role in the field of education and social service" (Gupta, 1984, p. 78). In the period prior to independence the government effectively ignored education for students with disabilities (Taylor & Taylor, 1970), and only privately funded non-government organizations assumed this responsibility (Jangira, 1995).

The Sargent Report of 1944 (Sargent, 1948), renamed the Central Advisory Board of Education and Health Report of 1949, was the first official documented study on the education of students with disabilities in India. The report criticised the Government of India's neglect of students with disabilities' education, arguing that "handicapped children should be educated in normal schools; services should be provided by the national system of education" (Sargent, 1968, p. 109). The report further suggested that social issues should not be the responsibility of the non-government organizations. In response, the Ministry of Education established in 1947 assumed the responsibility of addressing the educational needs of students with disabilities (Department of Education, 1950).

##### **2.5 Policies and Practices Post-Independence**

Historical research into the Government of India's interest in students with disabilities' education shows that this was slow paced during the early post-independence era (Alur, 2002b). The Government of India's involvement in improving students with disabilities' education extended to the establishment of 50 special education schools nationwide (Alur, 1998), and an increase from one to 20 schools for the mentally retarded and grants-in-aid (financial assistance) to non-government organizations (Kundu, 2000).

In the 1960s, the Ministry of Social Welfare, a sub-sector of the Ministry of Education, assumed the responsibility of distributing grants-in-aid funds. Urban non-

government organizations received 90% assistance and rural non-government organizations obtained 95% assistance for special schools' construction and vocational programs (Alur, 1998; Jangira, 1995).

It is of interest to note that still today non-government organizations are the backbone of education for students with disabilities in India (Canadian International Development Agency, 2003; Sharma & Deppeler, 2005). Their efforts are reflected in the aims and operational working of institutions such as the Divine Light Trust for the Blind, a pioneer non-government organization school, in Karnataka, South India, established in 1982, which has attempted to introduce an inclusive education program.

Also included is the Spastics Societies, the National Association for the Blind, the National Federations for the Mentally Handicapped and the Hearing-Impaired, the Karnataka Handicapped Parents Association and religious organisations, offering education and vocational training on a micro level. As a point of interest, terms such as spastic and mentally handicapped continue to be used in India to describe various types of disabilities, although internationally these terms have been phased out and replaced with more sensitive labels such as the differently abled.

The Government of India's (1994) national survey recorded 2,456 non-government organizations caring for persons with disabilities. Non-government organizations operated 1,200 special schools to accommodate students with disabilities, of which 450 received national and state government grants for operational costs (Kumar & Singh, 2006). These statistics disclose the Government of India's poor involvement in the education of students with disabilities (Jangira, 1995). In summary, the Government of India perceives that students with disabilities' education is best catered for by non-government organizations.

The first Indian Education Commission, or the Kothari Commission Report (1964) and the Sargent Review (1968), recommended that the central and state governments assume responsibility for the students with disabilities' education. Furthermore, it recommended inclusion of students with disabilities in the regular school system (Gupta, 1984; Jangira, 1995). The Kothari Commission made the following recommendations:

Their education has to be organized not merely on humanitarian grounds of utility. Proper education generally enables a handicapped child to overcome largely his or her handicap, and makes him into a useful citizen. Social justice also demands it. It must be remembered that the Constitutional directive on compulsory education includes handicapped children as well. (Kothari, p.204)



By 1965, with non-government organizations' help, there had been a twofold increase in schools to educate blind and deaf students with disabilities (Kothari, 1966). It is of interest to note that the Government of India's attention towards students with disabilities education was only concentrated on educating the deaf and the blind, since the Government of India assumed that the mildly physically disabled could attend regular schools, no provision). Additionally, the National Centre and a Teacher Training Centre were constructed (Nehru, 1961).

The Government of India in 1986 approved the Common School System recommended by the Kothari Commission, 1964–1966: “A Common School System (CSS) is an education system providing education of an equitable quality to all children irrespective of caste, creed, community, language, gender, economic condition, social status, and physical and mental ability” (Dubey, Sadgopal, & Jha, 2007, p. 29). However, this approval never materialised and the project was shelved for no given reason.

At a similar time, the National Literacy Mission (Department of Education, 1988) was launched with responsibility to eliminate adult illiteracy and create social awareness for students with disabilities. Four premier national institutes were also established to identify disabilities, conduct research and promote sustainable development for students with disabilities (Karlekar, 2004). The Artificial Limb Manufacturing Unit was established for “developing, manufacturing, marketing and distribution of artificial limbs” (Naik, 1994). The Education for All Summit (Naik, 1994) explained that district rehabilitation centres were organised to provide rehabilitation services training, employment and distribution of specialised equipment. However, education for students with disabilities was not a national priority. Nonetheless, the Government of India developed education policies in support of students with disabilities. Hegarty and Alur (2002) claim that the above-mentioned establishments are reflective of the government's priority to rehabilitate persons with disabilities in India and have marginalised attention towards the education of students with disabilities.

In 1989 the Government of India signed the United Nation's Rights of the Child legislation and the United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization Jomtien Convention policy of 1990 (Wadi, 1990). This resulted in the Rehabilitation Council of India Act 1992 No. 34 (Ministry of Welfare, 1992) to standardise teaching requirements for students with disabilities (Vakil, Welton, & Khanna, 2002). The Government of India's commitment to the Salamanca Statement is reflected in the Delhi Declaration on Education (1994) advocating education for all (Singal, 2005).

The Government of India's commitment to the Salamanca Statement (Mayor, 1994) instigated further legislation. First, the Persons with Disability, Equal Opportunities Protection of Rights and Full Participation Act, 1995: Chapter V (Ministry of Social Justice and Empowerment, 1995), confirms provision of free education in an appropriate environment till the age of 18 years for students with disabilities (Alur, 2006a, 2006b, 2006c). Second, the 8th Five Year Plan (1991–1996) saw budgets increase fivefold for inclusive education for students with disabilities (Ministry of Social Justice and Empowerment, 2000; Vakil, Welton, & Khanna, 2002). Third, legislation of the National Trust for Welfare of Persons with Autism, Cerebral Palsy, Mental Retardation and Multiple Disabilities Act (Ministry of Law, Justice and Company Affairs, 1999) was passed, to address cerebral palsy and autism problems nationwide. The literature notes that all of these are significant moments in India's inclusive education history. For example, Sharma and Deppeler (2005) claim that the revised Integrated Education of Disabled Children program highlights the Government of India's efforts to maintain commitment to the Salamanca Statement, by making available:

100 percent assistance ... to schools involved in the "integration" of students with disabilities. Various non-government organizations are now fully funded to implement the program. According to the most recent estimates, the revised Integrated Education of Disabled Children is being implemented in 26 States and Union Territories, serving more than 53,000 students enrolled in 14,905 schools.(Ministry of Information and Broadcasting, 2000; Sharma&Deppeler, 200(, p.3)

In 2002, the 86th Constitution Amendment Act Article 21A (Chaturvedi, 2007) was legalised. This policy states, "The State shall provide free and compulsory education to all children of the age six to fourteen years in such a manner as the State may by law determine". Additionally, the Right to Education Bill (Department of School Education & Literacy, 2002) aimed to implement the 86th Constitution Amendment Act Article 21A (Alur, 2006b). The Bill of Rights of Education, Amendment 93 (Planning Commission, 2002) in the Constitution of India (Appendix 4) re-emphasised the Right to Education Bill (Department of School Education & Literacy, 2002) and the 86th Constitution Amendment Act Article 21A. A mention of the policies is essential to show that the Government of India's involvement in the promotion of inclusive education is still on the drawing board and efforts to specifically implement the inclusive education program are at an invisible distance.

These overarching legislative frameworks have been paralleled by a series of national five year plans. These plans allocate the national budget for the country's development projects. The next section outlines the Government of India's financial commitment towards the implementation of the Salamanca Statement goal of education for all.

## 2.6 Five Year Plans

The Government of India has taken some progressive steps in legislation of policies as a commitment to the Salamanca Statement goal of education for all. Nonetheless, a review of the 11 national five year plans extending from 1951 to 2012 reflect the Government of India's extremely marginal prioritisation of education for students with disabilities in the nation's development agenda.

The chairman of the Planning Board Hussain (1956), argued that in the early stages, the national plans should concentrate on the "development of economic programmes" (p. 3) and "followed by improvement in the foreign exchange" (p. 4). "Education, health, housing, etc., are important and some of the main ultimate objectives of national policy ... if we put social services before economic development ... we must prepare ourselves to face bankruptcy" (p. 3). None of the critics of the national five year plans highlighted the Government of India's limited interest in promoting the welfare of this particular marginalised section of society. In my personal opinion this situation may exist because of the socio-religious stigma attached to persons with disabilities in Indian society, making persons with disabilities invisible members in the community.

In contrast to this positioning of economic development as an alternative to social support, the 10th Five Year Plan (2002–2007) recognised the need to support the universalisation of elementary education, for national progress. The Sarva Shiksha Abhiyan is credited as the Government of India's project for Children with Special Needs. The Government of India's goal of education for all by 2010, ironically, slackened the progress of education of students with disabilities by limiting fund allocation and the national interest shifted to women's education (Vajpayee, 2002).

The 11th Five Year Plan (2007–2012) saw the National Knowledge Commission's budgetary allocation disclosing limited funds for education of students with disabilities, compared with other marginalised sections of society such as women, rural dwellers and minority groups (e.g., Muslims). This allocation is detrimental to the plan to effectively achieve its educational aims (Maheshwari, n.d.). Human Resource and the Development Minister Arjun Singh stated, "It should and will be our objective to make mainstream

education not just available but accessible, affordable and appropriate for students with disabilities” (A. Singh, 2005). However, the lack of funds for education of students with disabilities was clearly highlighted in the article “Show Us the Money” (Alur, 2006c).

To summarise, critical analysis of India’s policies relating to students with disabilities has shown limited progress but growing commitment. This commitment is further illustrated in the most recent policy document, which is discussed below.

## 2.7 Contemporary Policy: Sarva Shiksha Abhiyan 2002–2011

### 2.7.1 *Sarva Shiksha Abhiyan Description*

In 2002, the President of India in 2002 approved the Bill of Rights (Jain, 2002) and the Sarva Shiksha Abhiyan program to promote universal elementary education. The Sarva Shiksha Abhiyan is a subdivision of the Ministry of Human Resource Development, financially supported in a 75:25 ratio between the Government of India and state governments respectively. The state governments’ responsibility is to implement programs and activities in collaboration with the local community. The Sarva Shiksha Abhiyan is a time bound program extending from 2001–2002 to 2010. The Sarva Shiksha Abhiyan program considers it imperative for schools to collaborate with the community for bridging sociocultural gaps that have eroded Indian society (Huchaiah, 2007).

### 2.7.2 *Sarva Shiksha Abhiyan Purpose*

The Sarva Shiksha Abhiyan’s fundamental ethos rests in the Salamanca Statement’s aim to elevate and standardise basic education nationwide. The Sarva Shiksha Abhiyan aims to promote social justice via elementary education for all children up to the age of 14 years irrespective of differences in socio-economic status, and of physical or mental disabilities. This is to be achieved through community-owned quality education services, which require active community participation in the school’s functioning and management strategies, thus nurturing the grassroots of “political will” for elementary education nationwide. The Sarva Shiksha Abhiyan’s functional target was to implement a well-balanced, education-for-all system at the primary level by 2007 and the elementary level by 2010 to achieve the 2010 universal retention goal (Department of Elementary Education and Literacy, 2014).

### 2.7.3 *Sarva Shiksha Abhiyan Evaluation*

In 2014, the Government of India’s Sarva Shiksha Abhiyan 19th Joint Review Mission released the Karnataka State Report. This report highlighted that Karnataka was

more progressive than other states in compliance with the “right to education” and had significantly achieved the Sarva Shiksha Abhiyan’s goals in enrolment, retention and bridging of social gap (Department of Elementary Education & Literacy, 2014, p. 1).

Nonetheless, progress was hindered since the requested budget of “Rs. 3,12,313.11 lakhs from Ministry of Human Resource Development was reduced to Rs. 1,18,216.08 lakhs” (Department of Elementary Education & Literacy, 2014, p. 16). This resulted in a drastic reduction of required educational material. For example, 40% of the required Braille books were not available and only 6,250 of the 35,449 students with disabilities received the required aids and appliances (Department of Elementary Education & Literacy, 2014).

Practical suggestions of the report included stabilising the tenure of Sarva Shiksha Abhiyan officials; investing in teachers by providing stronger support in knowledge and skills development; allowing freedom in class management; providing on-site paraprofessional assistance; increasing the number of well-equipped resource centres; linking schools for more collaboration and resource sharing; conducting more frequent state Sarva Shiksha Abhiyan meetings since, as pointed out, no meeting had been conducted since 2011; developing an efficient monitoring audit system; and including representation from unrepresented departments such as health and rural welfare (Department of Elementary Education & Literacy, 2014, pp. 11–12). The emphasis in these recommendations on the need to invest in teachers provides the catalyst for the research undertaken in this thesis. The next section explores how changing policy context has been connected to changing definitions of both disability and inclusion.

## 2.8 Definition of Disability and Inclusion in India

The previous sections have already acknowledged the considerable confusion among Indian authors’ use of terminology in describing education practices in India. For example, Singal (2005) argues that inclusive education was implemented in India prior to the Salamanca Statement (Mayr, 1994), since education is open to all children in local schools. Mani (2000) contradicts Singal’s (2005) assertion by stating that *integration* and not *inclusion* was the practice in India.

This highlights the point made earlier that in India, there is no accepted formal definition of inclusion. In addition, the mere placement of students with disabilities in the regular classrooms cannot be accepted to mean inclusive education. Nevertheless, there is some guidance on the use of the term to be found in a range of Indian documentation. The Draft Scheme on Inclusive Education prepared by the Department of Education

(2003) states, “Inclusive education means all learners, ... with or without disabilities being able to learn together in ordinary preschool provisions, schools, and community educational settings with appropriate network of support services. Inclusion means the process of educating children with SEN alongside their peer in mainstream schools” (Swarup, 2006, p. 11).

Sarva Shiksha Abhiyan’s Distance Education Program defines inclusive education as “the act of ensuring that all children despite their differences, receive the opportunity of being part of the same classroom as other children of their age, and in the process get the opportunity of being exposed to the curriculum, to their optimal potential” (Sarva Shiksha Abhiyan, 2008, p. 2).

The Action Plan for Inclusive Education of Children and Youth with Disabilities concludes that:

In its broadest and all-encompassing meaning, inclusive education, as an approach, seeks to address the learning needs of all children, ... with a specific focus on those who are vulnerable to marginalization and exclusion. It implies all learners, ... with or without disabilities ... being able to learn together through access to common pre-school provisions, schools and community educational setting with an appropriate network of support services. (A. Singh, 2005, p. 5)

For administrative and legislative purposes, the Government of India has adopted the World Health Organization definition of disabilities. I feel this definition is too narrow in scope and fails to include all types of disabilities including social and economic disabilities. Nevertheless, this indicates the potential need to investigate attitudes to disabilities in their broadest sense. This leads to the next part of the literature review: research that explores influences on attitudes and behaviors.

## **Part 5: Attitudes in Regard to Behavior**

Attitude, as defined by Carl Jung, “is the readiness of the psyche to act or react in a certain way” (Odajnyk, 1976, p. 3). The expandable parameters make this concept evasive and it is difficult for a singular definition to encapsulate its full scope (Muller, 1986). The literature below explores briefly how the concept of attitude has evolved over time and outlines the links between attitudes, influences on attitudes, and teachers’ attitudes and behaviors and how this literature informed the research explored in this thesis.

## 2.9 Studies of Attitudinal Change

Researchers have argued that an interest in the analysis of attitudes has developed across three waves (or what has been referred to as “peakings”) (McGuire, 1985, p. 235). The first peaking, in the 1920s–1930s, reflects a “measurement model” and explored the evaluative factors affecting attitude: development, structure and change. Attitude evaluations in this phase explored whether existing attitudes were causative factors for the success or failure of an ongoing process (Guttman, 1944; Likert, 1932; Thurstone, 1929).

In the second peaking (1950s–1960s) research focused largely on attitude *development* and change. Persuasions with logical reasoning were identified as catalysts for attitudinal change (Hayland, 1975; Janis & Feshbach, 1953). The dual process theory emphasises that persuasive messages and empirical evidence instigate attitudinal change (Hovland & Weiss, 1951). The elaboration likelihood model (Petty & Cacioppo, 1981, 1986) and heuristic-systematic model (Chaiken, 1987) are refined versions of the dual process theory. These theories propose that processing of persuasive messages requires satisfaction of one of three requisites—accuracy, social impression management and/or ego defence—for attitudinal change occurrence.

The third peaking (from the 1980s to the 1990s) identified attitude structure, namely, the cognitive affective and the cognitive molecule make-up, including predicative factors causing attitudinal change. From this perspective, knowledge, experience and persuasion are identified as modifiers of attitudes. A more receptive attitude is developed with additional knowledge (acquisition), increased task performance (activity) and positive persuasive (approval).

Across these time periods, psychologists have concluded that attitudes reflect an individual’s likes or dislikes, vary in strength and are not readily conducive to change. However, they have also shown that restructuring of attitudes is possible when new valid information is provided, and if there is a realisation that change is advantageous to the individual’s self-esteem and social functioning.

This literature also advocated two imperatives essential in the study of attitudes: a scaled questionnaire construction for attitude intensity measurement and identification of contributory factors for the attitude development (McGuire, 1985). Both the considerations were attended to in this study (as described in more detail in the following chapter). Literature also suggests that research into attitudes and behavior should involve an inquiry into the three components that influence the formation of an attitude, namely, knowledge, experience and social context. These three components combine in varying

proportions to form an individual's attitude towards a given phenomenon. Literature relating to this "trio of factors" and the influence of attitudinal changes, impact an individual's behavioral pattern as explained by Ajzen (1991) in the theory of planned behavior, is reviewed in the next section.

#### 2.10 Relevance of the Theory of Planned Behavior to Studying Teacher Attitudes towards Inclusive Education

The literature reviewed in Part 4 of Chapter 2 shows that India has achieved marginal progress towards implementing the Salamanca Statement's goals. There appears to be a gap between the behaviors we might expect to see and the behaviors that actually are seen. Alur (2002b) attributes this discrepancy to the negative social attitude towards persons with disabilities in India. This attitude creates an invisible barrier, segregating persons with disabilities from mainstream society. Attitudinal barriers develop each individual's framework or reference for behavior. In agreement, Bose (2009) claims that "pervasive barriers" towards persons with disabilities still exist in India. Eiser (1994) identified social attitudinal misconception as the biggest barrier faced by persons with disabilities. This gap challenges us to perceive the reasons for teachers' beliefs about inclusive education, and to identify the relative influence of knowledge, experience and context.

Here the Theory of Planned Behavior is useful. This theory is discussed more fully in the following chapter but here it is necessary to highlight that Ajzen's Theory of Planned Behavior (1991) has been widely used to explain human actions (such as teacher behavior in regards to a particular agenda) in situations where understanding or changing the behavior of people is advantageous to an organisation, program, country or group of students. The Theory of Planned Behavior focuses on three sets of beliefs: behavioral beliefs (or attitudes about a desired behavior such as inclusive education); control beliefs (or beliefs about the extent to which an individual can control or influence a situation); and normative beliefs (or beliefs about how other people value a behavior). This framework is particularly relevant to the study of the beliefs and behaviors of teachers because of the connected beliefs, first, that teachers are the agents of change in an educational system and, second, "that teacher beliefs are precursors to change" (Ajzen & Fishbein, 1980; Battista, 1994; Ballone & Czerniak, 2001; Pajares, 1992). Change, in this context, is a result of the fact that beliefs underpin attitudes: a relationship that is also recognised within literature relating to teachers' and inclusive education.



## **Part 6: Influences on Teachers' Attitudes and Attitudinal Influences on Teachers' Behavior**

### **2.11 Overview of Attitudes Influencing Teachers' Role in Implementing the Inclusive Education Policy**

Attitudes feature prominently in research relating to teachers' behaviour. The contemporary approach to gaining insights into the working dynamics of the inclusive education program in the classroom, according to Rose (2001), is to examine teachers' attitudes towards implementing the inclusive education program in their classroom. Cassady (2011), in agreement, adds, "It is important to identify teachers' attitudes towards inclusion because it can dramatically affect their performance and the success of children with disabilities in the classroom." (p. 2). In addition, Alghazo, Dodeen and Algaryouti, (2003) claim that teachers play a crucial role in determining the success or failure of any educational reform process. Furthermore, Ringlaben and Price (1981), Wilczenski (1992), and Chow and Winzer (1992) argue that teachers' attitudes strongly influence the effectiveness of the inclusive education program. This is because "attitudes of teachers affect their acceptance and commitment to implementing inclusion" (Agbenyega, 2007, p. 50). Therefore, Hobbs and Westling (1998) claim that teachers with positive attitudes towards inclusion will be more enthusiastic about effectively promoting the inclusion program, and their positive attitude will likely be reflected in their varied teaching approaches to meet the different learning needs of all the students in the classroom.

According to literature, therefore a positive attitude towards students with disabilities is a strong indicator of the effectiveness in implementing the inclusive education program, as claimed by Van Reusen, Soho and Barker (2001). This claim is reiterated in Ajuwon's (2012) study in Nigeria, where inclusive education is yet to transfer from stagnant theory to effective implementation. The teacher's attitude is one of the most important determining variables for the success of the inclusive education program. Alternatively, it stands to reason that a teacher's negative attitude would be an obstacle in effective implementation of the program. This assumption has been expressed by Brooks (2007): "The entire inclusion process can be hindered by the attitudes of teachers" (p. 16). In agreement, Cassady (2011) states, "When general education teachers have negative attitudes towards inclusion and are unwilling to have students with disabilities in their classroom, they may not provide the necessary supports that would create a beneficial learning environment for the students" (p. 3).

It would be safe to conclude that research on inclusive education considers the teacher's attitude a key component for the operational functioning of the inclusive education policy, and a teacher's negative attitude can dramatically affect the success of the entire program. Teachers' attitudes therefore mirror the progress of the inclusive education program.

Literature suggests that some teachers consider themselves facilitators of inclusive education implementation; hence, they require a comprehensive understanding of the policy for effective program implementation (Advani & Chadha, 2002). As one author notes, "the success of inclusion largely depends on the teachers towards students with special educational needs and their knowledge on how to properly educate them" (Dapudong, 2014, p. 8). This is not to suggest that knowledge on policy is sufficient: rather teachers need to be able to link policy to literature relating to best practice for working with students as a disability. Without this ability teachers can feel powerless or inadequate.

Accordingly, statements such as the following are typical of the mainstream teacher: "I felt extremely inadequate ... since I hadn't any experience or training in this area ... I was unsure of how (the child) and I would interact ... and concerned about my lack of knowledge" (Chorost, 1988, p. 8).

In addition, literature has suggested that a positive attitude is developed through increase in self-efficacy, as explained in the theory of self-efficacy (Bandura, 1997), which advocates that a higher level of self-efficacy generates a more positive attitude towards task performance (Avramidis & Norwich, 2002). Self-efficacy can be developed through a comprehensive understanding of the inclusion policy, types of disabilities, professional training, experience and administrative support (Burke & Sutherland, 2004). Values and socially accepted behavior should also be included in the list (Sharma & Deppeler, 2005). Positive social values validating the inclusive education policy are an important influence on teachers (Bose, 2009).

Together this research argues that the personal factor of a positive attitude towards inclusive education develops stronger teacher commitment to policy implementation. It is noteworthy to mention that in addition to the significant role played by teachers, the inclusive education program's success requires the concerted efforts of school administrators (Agbenyega, 2007; Clayton, 1996), paraprofessional staff (Dapudong, 2014), the community (Crabtree, 2007) and the government (Ajuwon, 2012; Alur, 2001) for effective implementation. Teachers, when afforded additional external support by the

community, have a greater chance to develop a positive attitude towards implementing inclusive education.

In the next section it is necessary to examine other literature which explores in more detail the impact of knowledge, experience and social context on teacher attitudes.

## **Part 7: The Impact of Knowledge, Experience and Social Context on Teacher Attitudes**

### **2.12 Teacher Knowledge**

Knowledge for effective teaching is not limited to “what to teach” (curriculum, content) but more importantly “how to teach” (inclusive education practices and procedures). Knowledge is an imperative for teachers’ self-efficacy (sense of capability), which has been identified by Bandura (1986) as a prerequisite for positive attitude development. Positive attitude has been endorsed in numerous research studies, such as those of Alghazo et al. (2003), Bhatnagar and Das (2013), Dapudong (2014), Subban and Sharma (2005), as an essential element to facilitate the transference of knowledge and skills from the teacher to the learners.

Favourable or unfavourable attitude development, explains Katz (1960), involves a cognitive evaluative process. Theoretically speaking according to Banduras’ (1977) Self-Efficacy and Ajzen’s (1991) Theory of Planned Behavior it can be concluded that prior acquired knowledge (including the factors of experience and influence of social norms) with the acquired available information enables the individual to conclusively determine an attitudinal stand or induce attitudinal change. Knowledge justifies the attitude conceived on the grounds of reasoned validity. Hence, knowledge helps the individual to internalise, analyse, develop and justify an attitude formation or attitudinal modification in compliance with the individual’s value system. Knowledge is a reference point for validation of the individual’s attitude. In an ideal scenario knowledge on a given issue makes provisions for an individual to make a choice to behave positively or adversely in a given situation such as including a student with a disability in an activity; choosing to incorporate parents of students with a disability in educational planning; or choosing to undertake professional development about a particular disability. In other words, knowledge could further reinforce desired attitudes or induce attitudinal change, based on the extent of knowledge the individual possesses; it plays a key role in developing beliefs.

Knowledge in inclusive education is therefore a significant variable in positive attitude development. The study of Center and Ward (1987) and Westwood (1993) claims that a lack of sufficient knowledge accounted for teachers’ negative attitude towards

inclusive education. Alternatively, pre-service teachers on completion of an inclusive education course held a more positive attitude compared with peers not having completed the course (Shoho, Katims, & Wilks, 1997; Skipper, 1996).

Studies have shown that adding updated information on inclusive education and disability types in teacher training courses and in-service programs will raise the level of positivity, since teachers will know “how to implement” the program better than those lacking in knowledge (Most, 2004; Stakes & Hornby, 1998). Additionally, explicit training in inclusive education teaching strategies has been shown to contribute to positive attitude development (Carpenter, Cavanagh, & Hyde, 2005).

Alternatively, inadequate knowledge culminates in teachers developing negative attitudes towards students with disabilities (Giangreco, Dennis, Cloninger, Edelman, & Schattman, 1993; Hastings & Oakford, 2003). I agree with Stajkovic and Luthans (1998), who argued that since the impact of self-efficacy on positive attitudinal development cannot be overestimated, it stands to reason that there is a direct relationship between self-efficacy and task performance. Increased knowledge generates a more positive attitude towards task performance shaping what Ajzen (1988) refers to as behavioral beliefs.

Increased degree of disability is inversely proportional to teachers’ attitudinal decline towards students with disabilities. The higher the disability level the further the teachers’ attitudes decline (Forlin & Cole, 1993). This claim is further endorsed in the study of pre-service teachers’ attitude towards students with severe disabilities (Hastings & Oakford, 2003).

In contradiction to teachers exhibiting a positive attitude towards inclusive education, their attitude towards students with disabilities varies with the type and severity of disability (Center & Ward, 1987). Further, teachers are more accepting towards students with social or physical disabilities than those with cognitive and behavioral problems (Jobe, Rust, & Brissie, 1996; Wilczenski, 1992).

This literature suggests that teachers’ attitudes (including behavioral beliefs and normative beliefs) towards types of disabilities may be connected to their knowledge. This has shaped the design of the study by ensuring an examination into the curriculum of the Bachelor of Education teacher training program and incorporating test items in the written questionnaire inquiring into the teachers’ **knowledge** on the inclusive education policy and strategies, which is essential for teachers to develop a positive attitude to effectively implement the inclusive education program in India. On a note of caution it is worthy to mention that in some instances the belief system is so strong that increased knowledge may not necessarily correspond to change in attitudinal patterns (Richardson,

1996). For example, citing a personal observation – warning captions provided to smokers about the health hazards of tobacco consumption has not completely prevented the consumption of this product.

### 2.13 Teacher Experience

There is a direct correlation between experience and teachers' attitudes towards inclusive education (Alghazo et al., 2003; Bondurant, 2004; Burke & Sutherland, 2004; Fulk & Hirth, 1994; Sack, 1998). Research has shown that teaching experience with students with disabilities results in higher acceptance of students with disabilities. Conversely, inexperience contributes to the teacher trainee's negative attitude (Pennell & Firestone, 1996; Taylor, Richards, Goldstein, & Schilit, 1997).

Limited practicum experience in teacher training curriculum has been claimed to account for pre-service teachers' higher negativity towards inclusive education (Shade & Stewart, 2001). For this reason, it has been argued that it is imperative that teachers participate in a hands-on inclusive education program to gain experience in effective inclusive education implementation (Smith, Price, & Marsh, 1986).

Experience is also an integral factor determining *in-service* teachers' attitudes towards inclusive education (Van Reusen, Soho, & Barker, 2001). The degree of experience with students with disabilities raises the level of attitude positivity (Reynolds & Reynolds, 1982). Therefore, inadequacy of practical experience requires more in-service support for effective inclusive education implementation (Snyder, 1999).

Hence, it stands to reason that an increase in positive experiences will help develop an individual's self-efficacy and sense of control. Self-efficacy means an individual's perception of the difficulty level involved in performing a behavior. Controllability is the extent to which performance is possible. Together these factors influence the individual's motivation to develop positive intent for positive attitudinal behavior towards students with disabilities (Ajzen, 2005). In the Theory of Planned Behavior, this is reflected through analysis of teachers' behavioral beliefs, and perceived behavioral controls.

In response to this literature, for the current study on teachers' attitudes towards the inclusion program in India, I considered it essential to examine the impact of **experience**. This examination would require inquiry into vicarious experience opportunities as well as enacted experience opportunities, including discussion of the practicum inclusive education course offerings afforded to the pre-service teacher in the Bachelor of Education teacher training program. The in-service teachers' experiences factor was given due consideration in the written questionnaire and group discussions. An

examination of governmental policies was conducted to determine adequacy of experience and opportunities to develop self-efficacy in teachers for effective implementation of the inclusive education policy in India.

#### 2.14 The Influence of Social Norms

Every culture has social norms or standards that are the “expected behaviors” that members of the social group “accept” to conform with the defined values and beliefs of their society (Aronson, 2011, p. 258). It therefore stands to reason that people adhere to norms to belong to a defined group. In other words, it can be argued that norms influence our attitude towards behavior. Watt, Maio, Haddock and Johnson (2008, p. 193) reiterate Shavitt’s (1989, 1990) claim that social norms are a strong determinant of attitude formation. This is because an individual’s societal acceptance is based on the individual’s self-identification with the social group for the purpose of maintaining the groups’ social esteem. The individual therefore often expresses attitudes in adherence to the prevailing socially accepted social norms.

According to Ajzen’s Theory of Planned Behavior, social influence refers to an individual’s compliance to social subjective norms and normative beliefs. Subjective norms are the socially desired and expected behavior in a particular context (Ajzen, 1991). Normative beliefs relate to behavior influenced by others (Ajzen, 1991). An individual’s attitude is therefore rooted in collectivistic culture-related variables. Hence, although behavior is individually performed, desired behavior, located in the social environment (family, school and workplace) is performed in adherence to social expectations. For example, in the study of Crabtree (2007) in the United Arab Emirates, “religious interpretation by parents were positive forces that worked towards acceptance of disability in the child” (Ajuwon, 2012, p. 55). Alternatively, teachers’ negative attitudes towards students with intellectual disabilities directly reflect their reluctance towards inclusive education. In research conducted by Barnatt and Kabzems (1992), “one respondent wrote, ‘Since I am afraid of violence that can be experienced from such people (i.e., children with intellectual disabilities), I would totally refuse such cases in my class. I feel that they must be handled at special institutions other than schools’” (p. 141).

Consideration of the historical background, and the negative and passive attitude of Indian society towards children with disabilities (Alur, 1998, 2001, 2002a, 2002b; Government of India, 1944; Kothari, 1966), validates an inquiry into social norms, which may be a contributory factor reducing the pace of the inclusive education program in India. As explained by the Theory of Planned Behavior, teachers may be experiencing

“low perceived behavior control” since the strong negative or at the least passive normative belief of society towards students with disabilities may have developed a negative subjective norm and may reduce teachers’ acceptance of the inclusive education program. To assess the influence of **social norms** on teachers’ attitudes, a review of literature on the topic under study, a written questionnaire and an audio taped focus group discussion were administered. These three data collection methods supported analysis of how social norms impact on teachers’ attitudes towards the implementation of inclusive education in India. This specific focus contributes to the sub-set of literature that has previously considered teachers’ attitudes towards inclusive education in India. This is discussed further in the section below.

## **Part 8: Literature on Teachers’ Attitudes towards Inclusive Education in India**

### **2.15 Teacher’s Role in India**

The literature presented above shows that teachers’ attitudes towards inclusive education have a direct impact upon their willingness to implement various inclusive education policies. It also suggests that attitudes can be shaped by diverse factors, including prior **experience**, **knowledge** and education, self-efficacy and the social, political and religious **context**: a trio of factors that shape teachers’ behavioral beliefs; control beliefs and normative beliefs: an argument that will be returned to across the thesis as a whole.

To date, there has been little research that focuses specifically on teachers’ attitudes towards inclusive education in India (Alur, 1998; Jangria & Mukhopadya, 1991; Jangria & Srinivasan, 1991). One study showed that in India more than 50% of the educators perceive inclusive education negatively because of a lack of administrative and community support nationwide (Jangria, 1991; Jangria & Srinivasan, 1991). Masters of Education qualified teachers ranked highest, followed by Bachelor of Education and Doctor of Education qualified teachers, in exhibiting a positive attitude towards students with disabilities (Parasuram, 2002); this finding reinforces the potential value of exploring the impact of experience and education on teachers’ beliefs.

Others have argued that social norms based on the cultural background of a country influence teachers’ attitudes towards students with disabilities (Lasley, 2006; Sharma et al., 2006). This is most transparent in developing countries (Alur, 1998; Berry & Dala, 1996). Some Asian myths suggest the possession of contagious evil spirits causes disabilities (Prasurarm, 2002). In India, a Hindu dominated country, the concept of karma

(atonement for sins of past life) overshadows the concept of equal rights, accounting for a negative or passive attitude towards students with disabilities (Alur, 2001; Miles, 2000).

The research studies in India are also in agreement that lack of funding, ambiguous policies, weak political will and negative social norms might contribute to the delays in inclusive education implementation. The Government of India's disinterest in the education of students with disabilities is reflected in the 1st–10th National Five Year Plans (discussed in Section 2.6). This disinterest extends into ambiguous policies slanting towards the charity or medical model of disabilities.

A review of the education policy for students with disabilities in Karnataka is reflective of India's problems on a micro level. The Bachelor of Education curriculum lacks content and skills for inclusive education implementation. Limited funding, the government shifting responsibility to non-government organizations, the passive or negative attitudes of teachers towards students with disabilities and the Karnataka Government's incapacity to legislate a policy on inclusive education (the current policy is still a draft) are factors that could potentially be influencing the in/effectiveness of inclusive education implementation (Sarva Shiksha Abhiyan, 2013).

## 2.16 Summary

This section of the literature review provided a brief overview of key perspectives on “attitude” and its development. While necessarily brief, this section has shaped the research project discussed in the thesis—in both the design and the analysis—and it is therefore necessary to outline key ideas relating to attitude here. This material is revisited in the following chapter with a specific focus on how attitudes are researched through this project via the work of Ajzen (1991).

Inclusive education has emerged through the Salamanca Statement as an educational priority internationally over the past 21 years (1994–2015). During this time there have been substantial shifts in the ways that disability is defined as well as changes in how inclusive education is understood. Research into this area has shown that teachers' attitudes affect what they do in terms of implementing policy. The research reviewed suggests that teachers' attitudes may be tied to a trio of factors: knowledge, experience and context. Attitudes can be negative due to lack of understanding about the inclusive education concept, insufficient training for effective implementation, inadequate knowledge in teaching strategies and time constraints. This body of research has also shown that beliefs are influenced by things such as prior experiences, education, self-efficacy and the beliefs that are dominant in wider society. Although India has a lengthy



history of policy relating to education for all and inclusive education, generally there is little research that seeks to explore teacher attitudes towards students with disabilities. There is also a shortage of research that investigates influences on attitudes (such as qualifications or education and experience or awareness of social attitudes).

This thesis investigates this gap in the literature by addressing the following question: What are the attitudes of pre-service teachers and in-service teachers towards the implementation of inclusive education in (selected) schools in Bangalore, Karnataka State, India? In the following chapter the theoretical resources used to design the study are explored in more detail, and the research design is discussed.

## **Chapter 3: Research Design**

The previous chapters introduced the research question: What are the attitudes of pre-service teachers and in-service teachers towards the implementation of the inclusive education program in (selected) schools in Bangalore, Karnataka State, India? The significance of the question was demonstrated through a review of literature on the benefits of, barriers to and enablers of inclusive education goals in the global context, and in the current political and policy context of Karnataka. This chapter provides an overview of the research design development process and the way the study was conducted. The chapter is divided into eight parts. Part 1 introduces the research approach. Part 2, discusses the framework for data collection. Part 3 explains the theoretical framework. Part 4 outlines the research design. Part 5 explains how the data is collected and Part 6 describes how the data was analysed. Part 7 states the ethical clearance process this research went through. Part 8 explains the background of the research participants. The final section provides a summary of the contents in this chapter.

### **Part 1: Research Paradigm and Research Design**

#### **3.1 Defining Research Design**

A research design is the “plan or proposal to conduct research” (Creswell, 2009, p. 5) that informs a research project. Essentially, it is the blueprint for the research exercise. Creswell (2009) identified three requirements for researchers to consider: philosophy, strategy and method, all of which he represents as essentials in developing research design. Each requirement will now be examined.

##### *3.1.1 Philosophies or Worldviews*

The researcher’s philosophy (McKenzie & Knipe, 2006) or worldview (Creswell, 2009) is the basis for any individual’s research. Often referred to as the research paradigm, this is the “basic set of beliefs that guide action” (Guba, 1990, p. 17). A researcher’s beliefs are reflected in the way their research is designed, how data is collected, analysed and how research results are presented (Belbase, 2007). The significance of a research paradigm makes clarity imperative.

Creswell (2009) suggests that there are four major research worldviews: post-positivism, social constructivism, advocacy/participatory and pragmatism. In the terms

used by Creswell, this research is located within the pragmatism paradigm for the following reasons. First, it challenges the post-positivist worldview's rigid explanation of human social issues as a "causes and consequences sequence", presented in quantitative data, with no scope for elaboration of human expression (Phillips & Burbules, 2000). Second, the social constructive worldview uses qualitative research strategies to interpret a social phenomenon, but has been described as based on personal perceptions and experiences, and thus lacking in validity (Crotty, 1998; Neuman, 2000). Lastly, the pragmatic worldview addresses social problems by finding practical solutions, as Cherryholmes (1992) explains. It may reflect the beliefs of other worldviews; however, it employs whatever approaches are most appropriate to allow for the research to achieve its goals. The "pragmatic" nature of this worldview recognises that qualitative and quantitative methods are valuable if they help researchers address their questions and provide solutions to the problems. The literature reviewed in the previous chapter demonstrated the potential impact of both questionnaires and focus groups—both quantitative and qualitative data—and this has therefore shaped the design of this pragmatic paradigm. For other authors, the term pragmatic (in regards to paradigm) is replaced by reference to 'mixed methods', as both a paradigm and a research design. This will be discussed further below.

### *3.1.2 Strategies for Data Collection*

The pragmatic paradigm is considered the most appropriate to this research since it uses different, multiple and complementary approaches to data collection: in other words, it employs a mixed methods design that uses qualitative and quantitative data collection techniques (Creswell, 2009). In some literature, the labels quantitative and qualitative are incorrectly used to describe a research methodology or a research paradigm. In this research I am using these labels to refer to different approaches to data collection.

The quantitative strategy for data collection is most commonly reflected in the use of surveys and experiments. This strategy allows the researcher to examine the relationship between the independent and dependent variables, or test theoretical applications. Questions are often closed-ended leaving no scope for ambiguity. Findings are quantified with measurement scales (e.g., Likert Scale, 1932) and described numerically (Creswell, 2009).

Qualitative strategies investigate issues in different ways, using diverse techniques to collect data. Ethnographic and longitudinal studies exemplify qualitative strategies (Creswell, 2009), which involve such things as interviews, focus groups, diary entries and

observations. Open-ended questions are common as they provide for individuality in response, and the findings are often described in a narrative form.

When both strategies are brought together within the mixed methods design that is commonly associated with the pragmatic paradigm, they provide a framework “for collecting, analysing and mixing both qualitative and quantitative data in a study in order to understand a research problem” (Clark, Creswell, Green, & Shope, 2008, p. 364). This strategy has been claimed to eliminate the subjectivity of the qualitative method and the rigidity of the quantitative research method through integration of both the aforementioned research methods. The two sets of collected data are merged together for interpretation and analysis. It is this mixed method approach that is employed in this research.

## **Part 2: Mixed Methods as Framework for Data Collection**

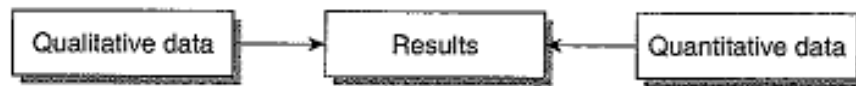
### **3.1.3 Mixed Methods and The Pragmatic Paradigm**

As noted above, this research is located within the pragmatic paradigm and draws upon mixed methods to address the organising question. It is important to acknowledge that mixed methods is a term sometimes used to refer to a research *paradigm*. In this context, mixed methods research has been defined as:

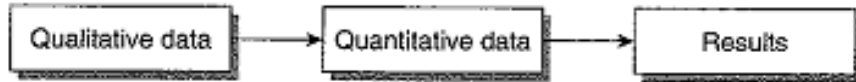
... a research design with philosophical assumptions as well as methods of inquiry. As a methodology, it involves philosophical assumptions that guide the direction of the collection and analysis of data and the mixture of qualitative and quantitative approaches in many phases in the research process. As a method, it focuses on collecting, analyzing, and mixing both quantitative and qualitative data in a single study or series of studies. Its central premise is that the use of quantitative and qualitative approaches in combination provides a better understanding of research problems than either approach alone. (Creswell & Clark, 2007, p.5)

While acknowledging the point made above, in this thesis, the term ‘mixed methods’ is used to refer to an approach to data collection that is common within pragmatic research. Creswell (2009) advocated three approaches to mixed methods research, namely, sequential, concurrent and transformative approaches. The combination of procedures is outlined in Figure 1.

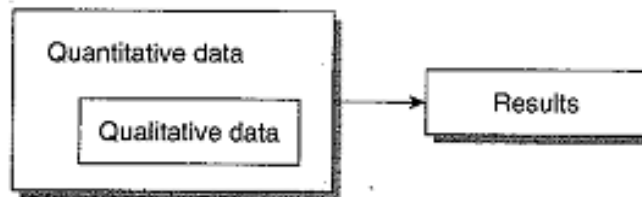
**Merge the data:**



**Connect the data:**



**Embed the data:**



**Figure 1.2** Three Ways of Mixing Quantitative and Qualitative Data

(Creswell & Clark, 2007, p. 7)

Figure 1: Three Ways of Mixing Quantitative and Qualitative Data

In contrast, Morse (1991) suggested four mixed methods project designs, namely, triangulation, embedded, explanatory and exploratory. After reviewing the various designs offered, I considered the mixed method sequential explanatory research design as most appropriate for this study.

In the sequential approach, qualitative research strategy precedes quantitative research strategy implementation or vice versa. The explanatory sequential design is constructed on a two-phase plane. Initially, data are collected and analysed utilising the quantitative research strategy. Subsequently, these data are validated by a secondary data collection, utilising the qualitative research strategy. The quantitative research strategy is initially used to specifically identify the significant differences and inconsistencies in the data collected. The qualitative data provides for the reasoning of the differences and inconsistencies in the findings of the quantitative research method of inquiry (Creswell & Clark, 2007). Through this process, “the researcher (is able) to elaborate on or expand on the findings of one method with another” (Creswell, 2009, p. 14).

The specific ways in which the sequential explanatory research design is implemented depends upon the theoretical framework that is used to guide the design and analysis of data. This is now outlined in the next part of this chapter.

### **Part 3: Theoretical Framework**

The literature reviewed in the previous chapter has shown the potential impact of experience, knowledge and context (including social norms) on teachers' attitudes to inclusive education. The literature also explored factors that contribute to positive or negative attitude formation. The literature on attitudes (also outlined in the previous chapter) aimed to draw attention to the factors that curtail teachers' often positive intentions to execute a particular plan of action, which in this study is implementation of the inclusive education program. An understanding of the cause of problems (such as negative or passive attitudes) is necessary to lead to viable solutions to these problems (increased knowledge, experience and positive social support).

The literature has also shown that beliefs underpin attitudes which, in turn, drive actions and have a greater impact than policy. For example, in the study of Barnatt and Kabzems (1992) in Zimbabwe, although the government made inclusive education compulsory, teachers refused to teach students with disabilities because of social norms. This study seeks to examine teachers' beliefs and attitudes in the under examined cultural context of India. The limited research that has been conducted in this context suggests that the cultural context of India could have both 'positive' and 'negative' impacts on attitudes. The history of basic education advocated by Gandhi (for example) has had a major influence on how people view the concept of education for all. On the other hand, a long history of economic and social division and the influence of Hinduism is sometimes linked to entrenched negative attitudes. It was therefore considered imperative to map teachers' attitudes and also to investigate the extent to which, in India, different kinds of beliefs affect different kinds of populations.

The previous chapter identified multiple ways in which the concept of attitude is explicitly defined. In this study teachers' attitudes and the factors that affect attitudes are examined through the use of Ajzen's (1991) Theory of Planned Behavior. As introduced in the previous chapter, the Theory of Planned Behavior framework explores teachers' attitudes by beginning with a mapping of their beliefs. These beliefs are mapped into three areas: behavioral beliefs, subjective norm and perceived behavior controls. Using the Theory of Planned Behavior allows identification of teachers' beliefs (and thus ultimately their attitudes) to be a primary focus, but also facilitates identification of influences on beliefs and attitudes. While these influences may ultimately reflect previous literature, this study did not assume that in the Indian context variables would influence teachers' beliefs in any predetermined way. In other words, the investigation remained open to

unexpected findings and did not decide in advance which kinds of beliefs will emerge. The next section provides an overview of the Theory of Planned Behavior. This is followed by a discussion of how the Theory of Planned Behavior, combined with the literature review, has shaped the design of the research project.

### 3.3 The Theory of Planned Behavior

According to the Theory of Planned Behavior, “volitional human behavior is immediately preceded by intention to engage in this behavior” (Lee, Cerreto & Lee, 2010, p). Intention, according to Ajzen, is the result of beliefs and attitudes. The Theory of Planned Behavior explores three sets of beliefs that influence attitudes, intentions and thus behavior. Ajzen represents the relationship between these beliefs, attitudes, intention to act and behavior in Figure 3.

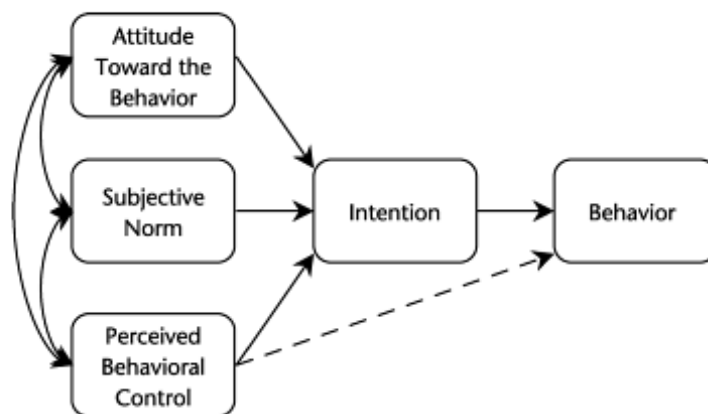


Figure 6.1 The theory of planned behavior

Figure 2: Ajzen’s Theory of Planned Behavior (2005, p. 118)

These three sets of beliefs and the resultant and linked attitudes have also been described as behavioral beliefs, normative beliefs and control beliefs by Underwood (2012, p. 913), who sees all three sets influencing both intention to act and behavior (see Figure 2).

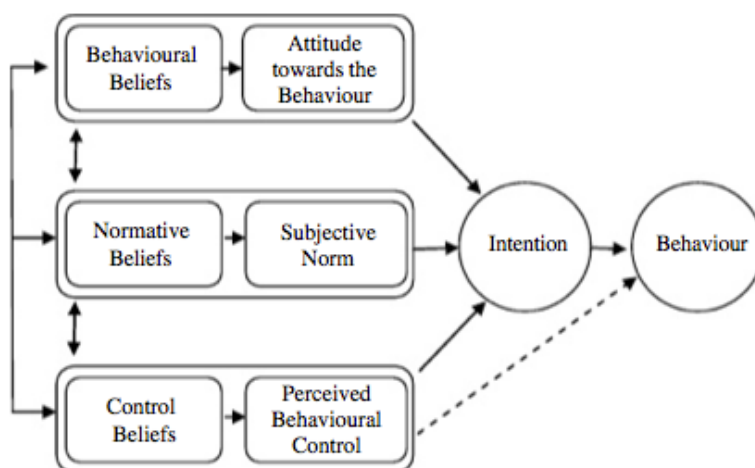


Figure 3.1. A simplified schematic representation of the Theory of Planned Behaviour (adapted from Ajzen, 2005, p. 126).

Figure 3: Underwood’s Description of the Theory of Planned Behavior

Thus, as outlined in Chapter 1, for Ajzen beliefs are the building blocks that lead to the development of attitudes which, in turn, ultimately inform behaviour. The Theory of Planned Behavior therefore begins with beliefs—and thus relies heavily upon use of the specific term, ‘beliefs’—but does so in order to allow conclusions to be reached about *attitudes*. An initial focus on beliefs, therefore, is necessary to facilitate completion of this research project which seeks to determine the teachers’ attitudes towards the inclusive education program. The ways in which the term ‘beliefs’ is used within the Theory of Planned Behavior is outlined below.

### 3.3.1 Behavioral Beliefs and Attitudes

Behavioral beliefs are an individual’s personal beliefs about the value of a particular behavior (Ajzen, 1988, p. 120). These beliefs underpin the development of attitudes where “attitude toward the behavior represents the extent to which an individual believes the target behavior will lead to desirable consequences” (Ballone & Czerniak, 2001, p. 10). The impact of behavioral beliefs, therefore, is tied to the attitude of an individual towards the likely outcomes of a behavior, also understood as the individual’s attitude towards a proposed initiative. Thus, our beliefs shape our behavior.

### 3.3.2 Subjective Norm

The second dimension of behavior is the beliefs a person holds about *other people’s* beliefs. This set of beliefs (held by peers or significant others) Ajzen calls the “subjective norm”. They reflect people’s beliefs about *other* people’s attitudes towards the behavior,



but also depend upon the relative importance a person accords to other people's opinions (Cox, Preston, & Cox, 1999). Subjective norms are the "extent to which the person believes that others who are considered important to them think the behavior should be performed" (Ballone & Czerniak, 2001, p. 10). In other words, the subjective norm is the individual's perception about the social pressure to act in a particular way.

### 3.3.3 *Perceived Behavioral Control*

A third factor shaping individuals' behavior relates to how much control they believe they have over the implementation of the behavior. This "perceived behavioral control" component of Ajzen's framework refers to the extent to which people believe themselves to be capable of implementing a behavior. It is a mixture of a sense of competence and an analysis of what is possible in a particular environment. As Ajzen (1988) states, Perceived Behavior Control "is assumed to reflect past experience as well as anticipated impediments and obstacles" (p. 132).

## 3.4 Studying Teachers' Attitudes through the Theory of Planned Behavior

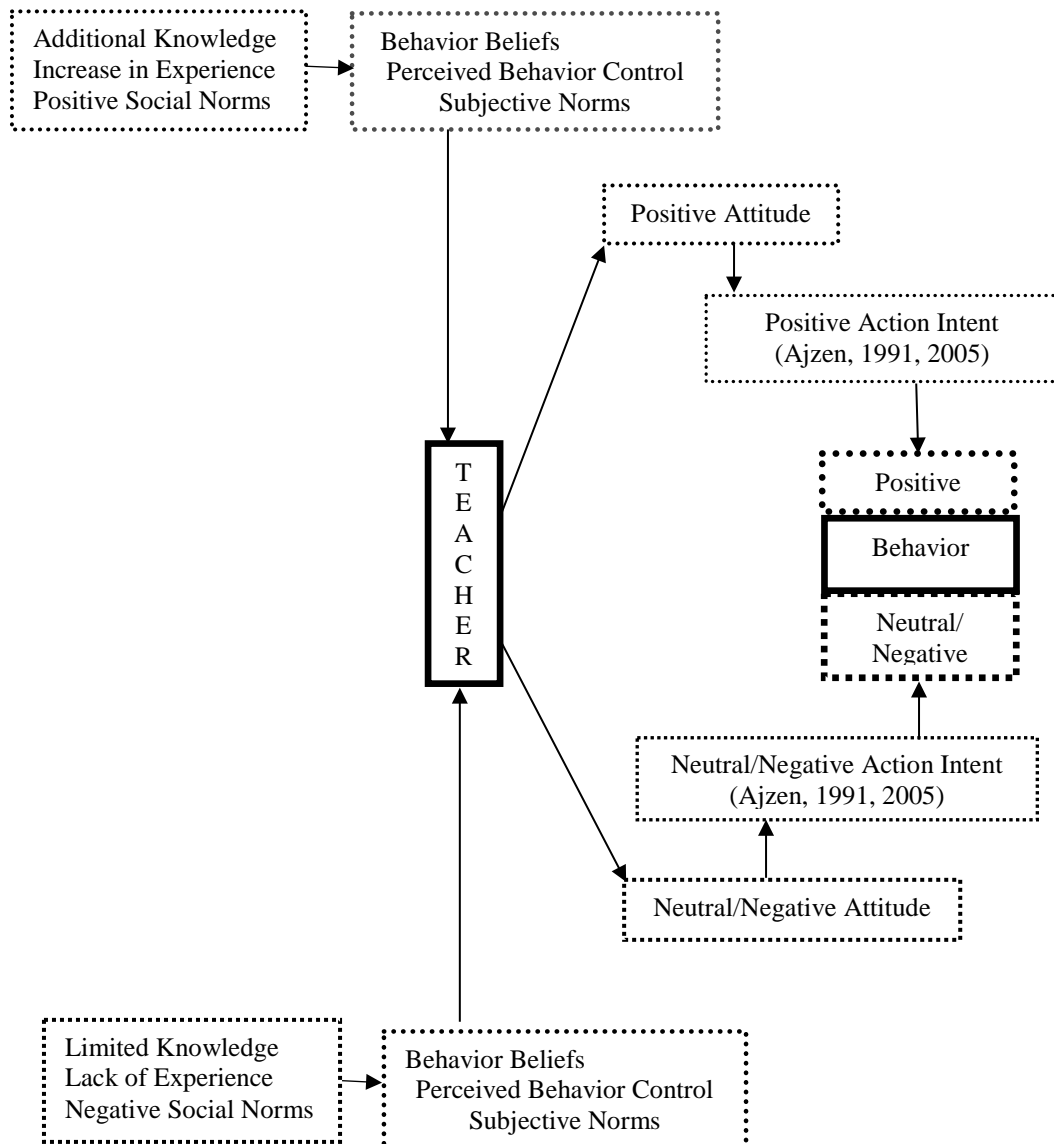
When applied to analysis of teachers' attitudes the Theory of Planned Behavior highlights the existence of diverse factors influencing beliefs and, therefore, attitudes and intentions. Intention to act, according to Ajzen, reflects attitudes which, in turn, are the result of beliefs. Therefore, an understanding of the relationship between these beliefs is central to predicting behavioral outcomes or achievements (Giorgi & Roberts, 2012):

The extent to which individuals view a particular behavior positively (attitude), think that significant others want them to engage in the behavior (subjective norm), and believe that they are able to perform the behavior (perceived behavioral control), serve as direct determinants of the strength of their intention to carry out the behavior. (Lee, Cerreto&Lee, 2010)

The Theory of Planned Behavior therefore encourages researchers to focus initially on identification of beliefs, because of an understanding that these ultimately shape attitudes, intentions and actions. The Theory of Planned Behavior also allows consideration of the factors that influence beliefs, including the beliefs of others, the impact of context, and the role of experience and knowledge.

The following discussion of the theoretical framework which guided both the design of the project and analysis of data shows how the concepts discussed above are connected. The theoretical framework is the infrastructure upon which this research is based.

Table 1: Theoretical Framework Illustrated



#### Part 4: Specific Research Design for the Study

The mixed method sequential explanatory research design, based on the pragmatic worldview, and informed by Ajzen's Theory of Planned Behavior, led to a study that employed the following data collection methods over three research phases. Each phase contributed to the overarching goal of mapping teachers' attitudes within the Theory of Planned Behavior framework, and allowing opportunities to reflect upon the influences on these attitudes, including exploring possible connections between participants' beliefs, attitudes and knowledge, experience and social context.

The three research phases were:

1. archival records analysis,
2. written questionnaire,
3. focus group verbal interview.

The specific data collection methods of each phase are outlined below (see Figure 5).

### 3.5 Data Collection, Phase One: Archival Records

The first step was to locate the Indian Government's inclusive educational policies and programs, and then conduct an archival analysis of the same (Yin, 1994). This included a study of the evolution of educational policy and practices in India, as set out in Chapter 2. This provided information about the Indian context that was crucial to the selection of research methods, and also helped inform the selection of issues included in both the questionnaire and the focus group (as outlined further below). The full range of documents reviewed in this phase are listed in Figure 4.

### 3.6 Data Collection, Phase Two: Questionnaire

The second phase of data collection involved the administration of a written questionnaire to collect the quantitative data in this study. A questionnaire is a research instrument designed to gather concise and relevant qualitative data that can be statistically interpreted into a quantifiable measure from a sample population on an issue of interest. As explained by Mitchell and Jolley (2007), the aim is to gather descriptive quantifiable data on a descriptive hypothesis about the general characteristics or co-relations between variables to determine how many persons possess a particular characteristic or support a position, for the purpose of establishing relationships between variables; develop a characteristic profile of certain social groups; and/or predict behavioral patterns. The questionnaire is designed to inquire into the extent to which the respondents support a position relating to a topic of interest by marking the degree of agreement on a "fixed alternative items" scale (Mitchell & Jolley, 2007, p. 300). The results are easily collated and quantified to draw general conclusions on the defined hypothesis or topic of inquiry.

Written questionnaires are cost effective, especially when the research sample involved is large. The document can also be administered repeatedly over intervals of time to measure consistency of changes in the responses on a topic of interest and for comparison with other studies to further explore the topic studied (Rose, Spinks, & Canhoto, 2014). In my review of related literature, I observed that this research tool has been the "choice" research tool used worldwide for decades by researchers examining teachers' attitudes towards inclusive education. To name a few, there are Taskiridou and Polyzopoulou (2014, Greece); Woodcock, Hemmings and Kay (2012, Australia); Lambe, and Bones (2006, Ireland); Agbenyega (2005, Ghana); Subban and Sharma (2005, Australia); Avramidis et al. (2000, United Kingdom); Alur (1998, India); Barnatt and

Kabzems (1992, Zimbabwe). This validates the use of quantitative questionnaire tools for researching teachers' attitudes.

Table 2: Archive Analysis Diagram

Archive Analysis		
International Documents	Indian Government Documents	Karnataka Government Documents
<p>The Salamanca Statement (Mayor 1994)</p> <p>Human Development Report (2002/2008) United Nations Development Programme 2008</p> <p>Universal Declaration of Human Rights Article 26, Section 1, 1948</p> <p>Declaration of the Rights of the Child 1959</p> <p>Universal Declaration of Human Rights of 1948 (Office of the High Commissioner of Human Rights, 1997)</p> <p>United States Individuals with Disabilities Act, 1975, and the Individuals with Disabilities Education Act Revisions 1997</p> <p>The International League of Societies for Persons with Mental Handicap, Jerusalem (1968)</p> <p>The World Declaration on Education for All, Jomtien, Thailand (1990)</p> <p>1996, Mid-Decade Review in Amman, Jordan</p> <p>United Nations Declaration on the Rights of the Disabled Persons (1975, Article 6)</p> <p>Dakar Framework for Action (2000)</p> <p>The Convention on the Rights of Persons with Disabilities (2008)</p> <p>The (1973) Vocational Rehabilitation Act, Section 504</p> <p>Adelaide Declaration (1999) and Hobart Declaration (2001)</p> <p>Commonwealth Disability Discrimination Act 1992</p> <p>The Disability Service Act, 1993 in New South Wales</p> <p>The Catholic Educational Commission of Western Australia 1982-1997 Policy</p>	<p>Constitution of India, Article 21A, Government of India 1950</p> <p>Wardha Committee Report or Zakir Hussain Report 1937</p> <p>Rehabilitation Council of India Act 1992</p> <p>The Bill of Rights of Education Amendment 93 of the Indian Constitution (Planning Commission, 2002)</p> <p>Persons with Disabilities (Equal Opportunities, Protection of Rights and Full Participation) Act of 1995</p> <p>National Trust (for the Welfare of Persons with Autism, Cerebral Palsy, Mental Retardation and Multiple Disabilities) Act of 1999</p> <p>7th All India School Education Survey to all the 35 State Governments and Union Territory</p> <p>The Fundamental Rights, Directive Principle of the State Policy and Fundamental Duties contained in India's 5th Five Year Plan of 1975</p> <p>The 1947, Integrated Education of Disabled Children, Project Integrated Education of the Disabled 1987</p> <p>The 1946, Person with Disabilities (Equal Opportunities Protection of Rights and Full Participation) Act</p> <p>Sargent Report (Government of India, 1944)</p> <p>Kothari Commission, (1964–1966)</p> <p>The Delhi Declaration on Education 1994</p> <p>Rehabilitation Council of India Act 2 (1992)</p> <p>2002, the 86th Constitution Amendment Act Article 21A</p> <p>Right to Education Bill (2002)</p> <p>1st Five Year Plan (1951–1956)</p> <p>2nd Five Year Plan (1956–1961)</p> <p>3rd Five Year Plan (1961–1966)</p> <p>4th Five Year Plan (Gandhi, 1970)</p> <p>5th Five Year Plan (1974–1979)</p> <p>6th Five Year Plan (1980–1985)</p> <p>Integrated Child Development Services Scheme</p> <p>7th Five Year Plan (Gandhi, 1985)</p> <p>8th Five Year Plan (1992–1997)</p> <p>9th Five Year Plan (1997–2002), (Cabniet, 1997)</p> <p>Community Based Rehabilitation Scheme, Integrated Education for the Disabled Children</p> <p>10th Five Year Plan (Vajpayee, 2002)</p> <p>Sarva Shiksha Abhiyan developed in 2002, District Primary Education Program, the Mid-Day Meal Scheme, Teacher Education Scheme and the Kasturba Gandhi Balika Vidyalaya Scheme</p> <p>Lok Jumbish Project</p>	<p>Karnataka Grama Panchayat School Development and Monitoring Model By-Laws 2006</p> <p>State of Karnataka, with the Sarva Shiksha Abhiyan-Karnataka in 2006-2007, draft policy</p>

Validity of the questionnaire is further supported by the fact that the questionnaire employed for this project was derived from previously conducted surveys on inclusive education. For example, Carpenter et al. (2005) employed a three-tier time interval survey to examine progressive changes of pre-service teachers' attitudes based on the acquisition of increased knowledge and skills in a teacher training program conducted in Queensland, Australia; Sharma and Desai (2002) employed the survey research tool to examine the attitudes of 310 primary school teachers and 484 teachers' concerns about the acceptance of students with disabilities in integrated education in Delhi, India; Minke, Bear, Deemer and Griffin (1996) conducted a survey with 185 general education teachers in traditional classrooms and 71 general education and 64 special education teachers who co-taught children in inclusive classrooms to evaluate their attitudes towards the inclusion of students with disabilities in the general classroom; and Subban and Sharma (2005) interviewed 10 mainstream teachers in Victoria, Australia, to evaluate their attitudes towards the inclusive education program. Each variable in the questionnaire was positioned on a five-point Likert Scale (1932), since "a scale permits responses along an agree, disagree continuum" (Charles & Mertler, 2002, p. 163). In this study the scale reads thus: 1, not at all; 2, a small amount; 3, a fair amount; 4, quite a lot; and 5, a great deal. Note that the full questionnaire is included in an appendix 6.

The following section provides some more detail about the questionnaire structure and items that were included.

### *3.6.1 Questionnaire: Demographic Profile*

As noted above, the project seeks to identify teachers' attitudes, but also to link these attitudes to different variables including the "trio of factors" commonly identified in the literature: experience, knowledge and context. The first section of the questionnaire therefore inquired into the respondents' personal demographic profile, namely, age, gender, educational qualifications, work experience (if any), and additional education on inclusive education (if any). The inclusion of these variables was designed to reflect previous research and to ensure that factors that affect attitudes could be most effectively identified.

The age variable, in combination with the experience variable, was employed in this study to determine whether the respondents had experience in the field of teaching. The mixed and contradictory findings on the age variable with some researchers claiming that age has no impact on teachers' attitudes, such as Dapudong (2014) and Abgenyega

(2007), and others, such as Stoler (1992), claiming that older teachers have a less positive attitude prompted the inclusion of this variable in the questionnaire. This literature validates the inclusion of this variable in the questionnaire.

The gender variable is highlighted since issues relating to childcare are viewed as the woman's social responsibility in most cultures (Lampropoulou & Padellidu, 1997), including India, and this commonly shapes attitudes towards children, teaching and the care of students with disabilities. A review of literature focused on this theme suggests that female teachers exhibit a more positive outlook towards teaching students with disabilities than male teachers (Leyser & Tappendorf, 2001). However, some studies contradicted this conventional thought (Bondurant, 2004; Jobe et al., 1996). These inconclusive results suggested that gender should be added to the questionnaire to generate original knowledge on this in the Indian context.

In some earlier research, educational qualifications and experience have also been identified as significant for attitude development (Bondurant, 2004; Ring & Reetz, 2000; Snyder, 1999). Some studies concluded that teacher trainees with limited inclusive education knowledge exhibit a less positive attitude compared with the general teacher. Alternatively, other studies, such as Kuester (2000), Heiman (2001) and Subban and Sharma (2005), revealed a contradictory view. These opposing research findings validated inclusion of the experience and knowledge factors in this study.

In-service training was also investigated as a source of attitudes and behaviors. It has been argued by one researcher to have a marginal impact on teachers' attitude towards inclusive education (Bondurant, 2004). However, Snyder's (1999) study contradicted this finding. To ascertain the situation in India, in-service training impact was included in the questionnaire.

### *3.6.2 Questionnaire: Variables Relating to Influences on Teacher's Attitude*

The second section of the questionnaire, containing 30 questions, inquired into factors that influence the attitude of teachers towards inclusive education implementation. The questions explored various issues relating to teacher beliefs about inclusive education, including issues connected to time constraints, workload, physical and educational resources, community involvement, human rights, classroom population, financial rewards, anxiety and stress, and cultural influences.

The variables explored through these questions were initially divided into three sections. Each section reflected the literature reviewed above, which recognises the potential impact of different kinds of factors on beliefs. Thus, the knowledge factor

recognises the potential impact of training and so on; the experience factor recognises the potential impact of past experiences on attitudes; and the social norms factor recognises the potential impact of an individual's local, social and political environment on attitudes. Each of these data sources was subsequently used to map teachers' beliefs, and the way these variables appear to affect beliefs.

#### *3.6.2.1 Questions relating to knowledge*

The knowledge factor was explored by asking questions about factors highlighted within the previous literature: questions about academic qualifications, in-service training facilities, paraprofessional help availability, and alternative physical equipment. Research on teachers' self-evaluation on knowledge and skills for implementation of inclusive education reflected that teachers who perceived themselves as having the required skills and knowledge held a more positive attitude than their counterparts who perceived otherwise (Avramidis et al., 2000). This finding prompted the inclusion of this variable on the questionnaire.

Provision of extra time for class preparation and modification of instructional materials to benefit all sections of students was recommended (Avramidis et al., 2000). Planning instructional activities, attending to students with disabilities' special needs in the classroom and extra time spent disciplining students with behavioral problems cut into the actual instructional time (Jacobs, 2008). These issues validated inclusion of the time constraint variable.

#### *3.6.2.2 Questions relating to experience*

The experience factor was explored through questioning relating to the number of years' teaching experience, construction of alternative teaching methodologies and anxiety in teaching students with disabilities in the general classroom. These reflect key themes in related literature. Issues relating to instructional choices are justified by Soodak, Podell and Lehman's (1998) research, which concluded that teachers using appropriate instructional materials showed a more positive attitude, compared with teachers without alternative instructional materials.

#### *3.6.2.3 Questions relating to context and social norms*

The impact of context and social norms on teachers' attitudes were explored by asking questions about parental beliefs, composition of classroom population, impact of traditional cultural influences, human rights and the reward system for teachers. Each of these questions reflects the literature relating to possible influences on teachers' attitudes.

For example, it has long been argued that inclusive education is not a single-handed project. Community involvement is essential for implementation, emphasise Monaham, Marion and Miller (1996). The school administrators, parents, teachers and professional staff are vital links in the policy into practice procedure. Considering this important factor, variables relating to these persons involvement were added to the questionnaire.

In a large classroom population situation, more students means increased workload, and additional stress, which can be compounded by physical space restrictions. In India, the dearth of schools and trained teachers compared with the number of students enrolled means that classes often outnumber the 45 students per class limit. This situation justifies analysis of teachers' opinions about class size and its impact on their beliefs and attitudes towards inclusive education. Hence, this item was placed in the questionnaire. Workload increase was also seen as a detrimental factor in terms of teachers' attitudes in Vaughn, Schumm, Jallad, Slusher and Samuel's (1994) study. I myself have experienced this problem firsthand as a teacher implementing the inclusive education program. I therefore personally support the study of this variable, which was also included in the questionnaire design.

As noted throughout the early chapters of this thesis, socioculturally shaped beliefs and attitudes (such as the conclusion that disability is linked to karma) still prevail in India. However, this has not been examined in significant depth in regard to teachers' attitudes towards inclusive education. A question concerning the attitude of general students' parents and the apprehensions of students with disabilities' parents regarding acceptability of the students with disabilities in general school systems was therefore built into the questionnaire.

The extent to which teachers value the democratic principles of equality and willingness to promote the fundamental right to students with disabilities through inclusive education practices justified the human rights variable addition in the questionnaire.

Together, this combination of questions allows the research to ultimately use the Theory of Planned Behavior and insights from previous research projects to shape the design and conduct of the project, with the greatest chance of having a positive effect on inclusive education practice in the Indian context. This was further strengthened by the use of focus groups as discussed below.



### 3.7 Focus Group

The third data-gathering instrument for this study was the focus group semi-structured verbal interview. Once again, the dual focus was on mapping teacher beliefs into behavioral beliefs, perceived behavioral and subjective norms, and then relating those beliefs to the trio of influential factors that shape attitudes, as outlined in the literature, including social context, knowledge and experience. The use of focus groups is consistent with the requirement of mixed methods' commitment to multiple sources of data. My preference for this technique was determined by the necessity to obtain firsthand information on teachers' attitudes towards inclusive education implementation in India. Additional considerations were the time constraints and the limited finances at my disposal. Sharing Edmunds's (1999) reasoning, focus group interviews are less time consuming than one-to-one interviews, and further financial expenses are eliminated if the researcher assumes the interviewer role. I found this technique appropriate for the study.

Other factors considered are that in a debate hesitant people are less hesitant to express their personal opinion on controversial issues (Jones & Neil-Urban, 2003), although (as discussed in Chapter 4) this did not appear to apply in the Indian context. Additionally, Edmunds (1999) explains, brainstorming on controversial issues can result in insight and new ideas for furthering revisions, or reinforcement of positive practices that might otherwise have remained unspoken. High validity assurance was accounted for, since the respondents expressed their opinion in their own words (Coll & Chapman, 2000). In addition, Freebody (2003) argues that the researcher and respondents have some flexibility, since open-ended questions provide, in addition to direction and structure or procedure, opportunity for respondents' expansion of expression.

The 11 interview questions were derived from previously conducted surveys focused on inclusive education (Minke et al., 1996; Subban & Sharma, 2005) and each was included to prompt *identification* of beliefs and attitudes and *influences* on beliefs and attitudes. The previously validated use of these surveys in two different sites justified the selection of these questionnaire instruments. The questions were reconstructed for more language clarity since English is not the national language in India. They were open-ended, thus allowing elaborate discussions on the issue. They were based upon the insights into the Indian context previously explored and the key themes identified in the literature review on inclusive education, and were a complement to the written questionnaire variables, which include:

- evaluation of basic education in the present curriculum,

- perceptions on inclusive education principles,
- beliefs about issues hindering inclusive education implementation,
- probable positive and negative outcomes of the inclusive education program,
- how teachers' attitude towards inclusive education can be enhanced,
- respondent's willingness to implement inclusive education policy.

An audio tape recorder was used for accurate recording of the interviewees' responses (Gall, Gall, & Borg, 1999). I assumed the role of the moderator to voice the predefined questions. The interview venue was a room on the campus site and the interview was conducted immediately after completion of the written questionnaire.

Limiting the group to only five respondents ensured that all participants had sufficient time to express their opinions.

Participation was open to all the written questionnaire respondents. The selection was on a first come basis. Aside from keeping the groups size small so as to afford all the participations an opportunity to air their opinions the clustering of respondents according to their roles as teachers or students helped to establish some level of homogeneity between the group members. Prior to the discussion all the interviewees were provided with a copy of a written text (refer to Appendix 6) which served as a jump-start for the ensuing discussion. The interview time frame was extended until all the questions were exhausted.

### 3.8 Approval of Questionnaire and Interview Questions

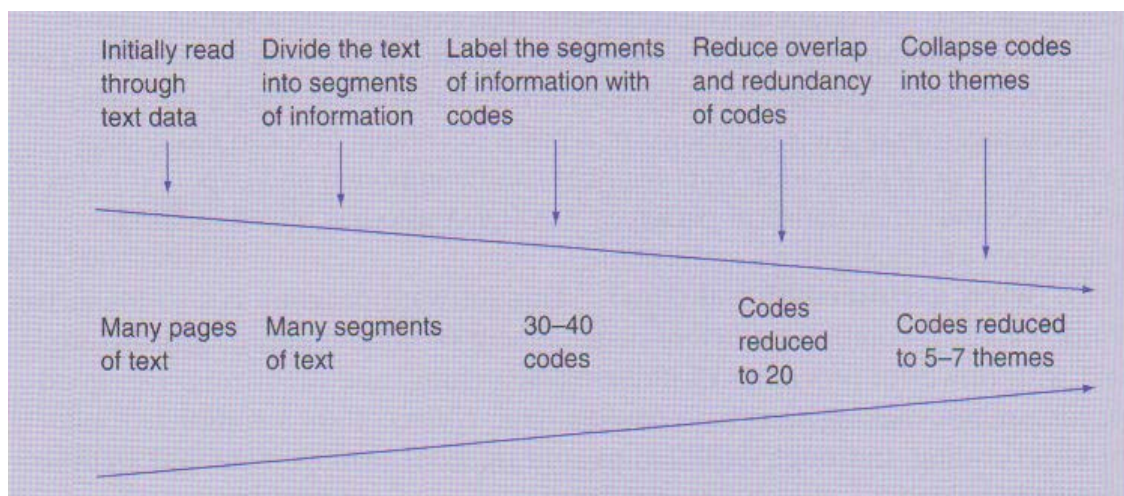
The written questionnaire and verbal interview questions were approved by a panel of experts. The panel comprised two professionals from Griffith University Prof. Merve Hyde and Dr. Lorelie Carpenter, Australia; the director and a head of department from a non-government organization in India (see Appendix 7); and a high school principal/college professor, also from India (see Appendix 8). To ensure clarity in language and appropriateness of the statements examined, since English is not the national language in India, understanding of each statement and question was essential to avoid ambiguity in understanding and accuracy in response by the respondents. A pilot study was conducted for language usage and comprehension in the Indian setting. Based on the recommendations, revisions were incorporated in the final draft.

## Part 5: Data Analysis

Data analysis refers to the “processing of data in order to answer the research questions” (Boeije, 2010, p. 75). The archival records (see Figure 4) provide the blueprint of requirements and expectations for inclusive education implementation. The pre-service and in-service teachers’ responses on the written questionnaire and focus group interviews provided data to determine the respondents’ attitudes towards inclusive education implementation (See Figure 5 and 6).

Working with mixed method approaches requires the need to manage multiple forms of data. The written questionnaire responses were statistically treated using the Statistical Package for the Social Sciences Version 2.02. This statistically analyses, manages and documents the data. The qualitative data analysis involved a process of coding and identifying themes. This was accomplished by “making distinctions between relevant fragments in the data. Fragments ... are then sorted into meaningful groups. Groups or categories inductively emerge ... are then named or coded” (Boeije, 2010, p. 79). A visual model of the coding process is presented in Figure 4.

Figure 4: Model on Coding Process



(Creswell, 2012, p. 244)

Drawing on this framework, the Theory of Planned Behavior and literature highlighting the impact of knowledge and experience on beliefs and thus attitudes, the focus group interview responses were thematically analysed and interpreted (see Figure 5).

## Part 6: Analysis

As outlined above, analysis of the quantitative and qualitative data was guided by Ajzen’s Theory of Planned Behavior. Data were initially analysed to identify influences

relating to what are referred to by Ajzen (1991) as behavioral beliefs, subjective norm and perceived behavior control.

Within this framework attention was given to three factors, namely, knowledge, social context and experience influences on beliefs and thus attitudes. Thus, the analysis was focused on identifying behavioral beliefs, subjective norm and perceived behavior control (see Table 3).

Figure 5: Overall Data Collection

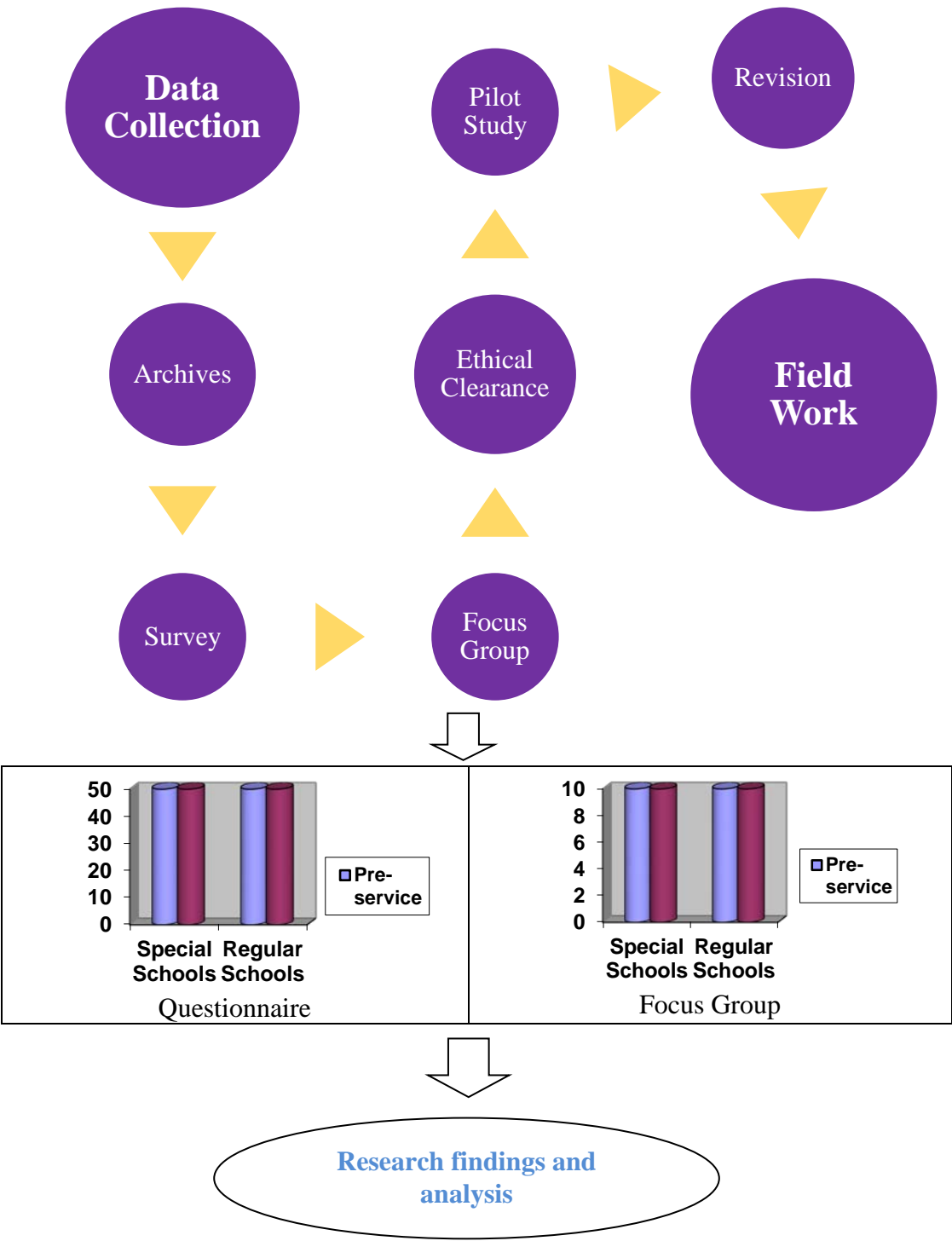
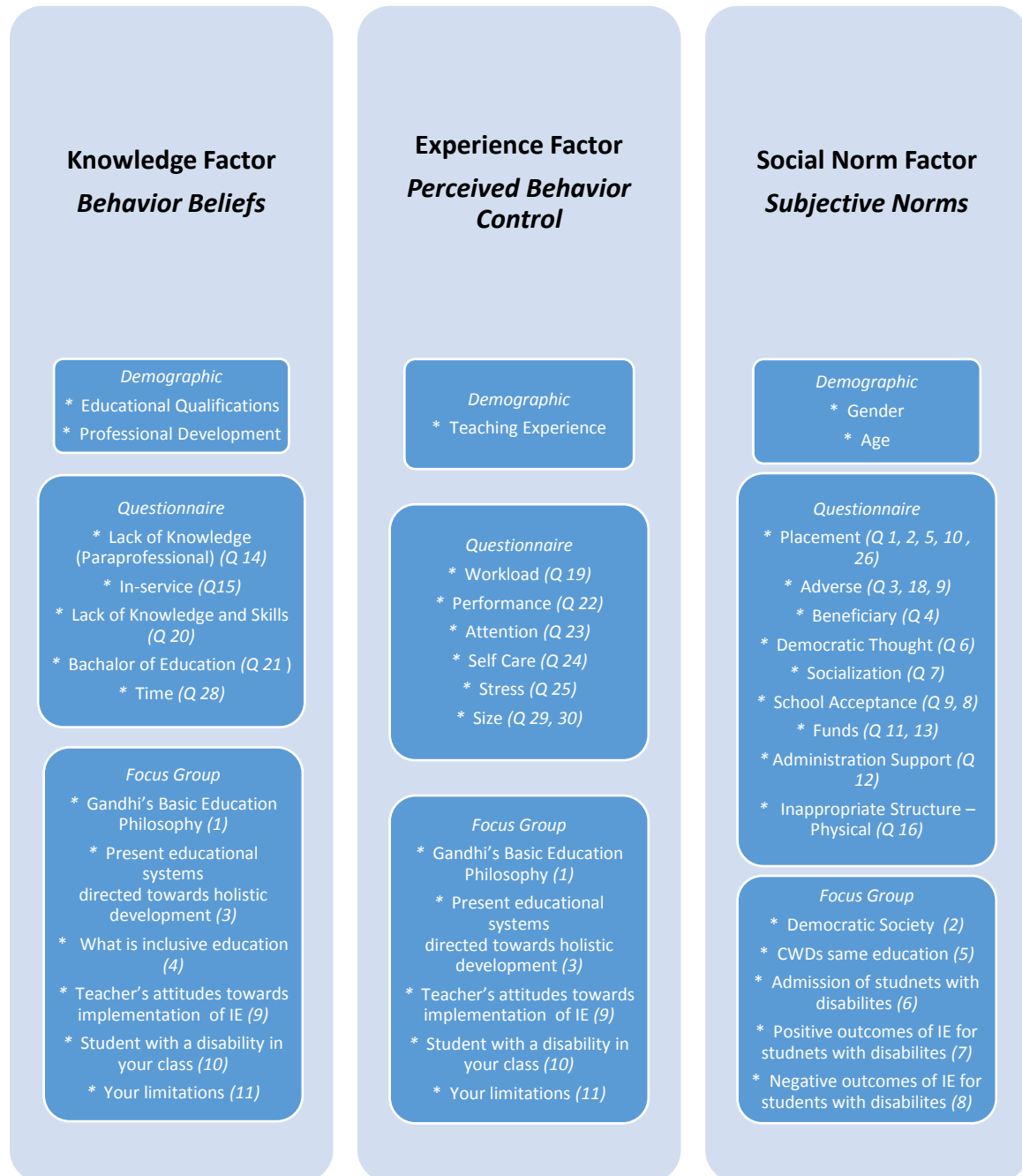


Table 3: Tri-Factor Categorisation of Analysis



## Part 7: Ethical Considerations

In Australia the National Statement on Ethical Conduct in Human Research (Australian Vice-Chancellors' Committee, 2007) stipulates the statutory considerations Government of India required to conduct research studies in accordance with the 1992 National Health and Medical Research Council Act. The statement is the nationally

approved standardised reference for ethical considerations and emphasises the following ethical principles: integrity, respect, beneficence, justice, consent and merit.

The statement stipulates that all institutions establish human research ethics committees to review, approve and monitor the adherence to statutory ethical standards in all research studies involving human participation. Griffith University, to which I am affiliated, has a human research ethics committee that examines, approves and monitors research conducted in the university (see Appendix 9). The checklist cited below provides a blueprint of the ethical considerations observed in the planning and executing process of this research.

### 3.9 The Ethics and Integrity in Research Checklist

This study was guided in compliance with the dictates of the National Statement on Ethical Conduct in Human Research (2007) series of guidelines made in accordance with the National Health and Medical Research Council Act 1992 (Australian Vice-Chancellors' Committee, 2007).

These standards are based on the five ethical principles essential for responsible research conducted in Australia. I would like to mention here that the principles are aspirational in nature, while the ethical standards, which are based on the principles, are mandatory obligations to be adhered to by researchers. As such, the ethical principles form the basis of the ethical standards. An outline of the five principles and standards is presented below.

**Principle of Beneficence** defines standards that require the research to be conducted for the welfare and benefit of the participants in the research context and the general society. The standards include precautionary safeguards to protect the welfare and rights of all against personal, financial, social, organisational and political factors that might lead to misuse of their influence as well as participants' awareness and voluntary consent to any and all physical or emotional risks involved. In studies where the participants are not the beneficiaries of the study, the risk levels need to be lowered below the acceptable general standard risk level.

**Principle of Fidelity and Responsibility** identifies the standards to establish the researcher's obligation to accept responsibility to resolve and manage issues of conflicting interest that are detrimental to their respondents' personal or emotional wellbeing; and cooperation with other professionals and institutions to serve the best interests of all employed in the study.

**Principle of Integrity** requires standards of accuracy, honesty and truthfulness and non-intentional misrepresentation of facts; adherence to the recognised and defined principles of research; honesty in conducting the research; and that the unbiased and accurate dissemination of research outcomes should be assessable to all research participants.

**Principle of Justice** standards advocate the recognition of equality and justice rights for the participants, including adoption of precautions to ensure fair selection of participants and non-exploitation of any section of participants in the research process. Participants have the right to withdraw at any given time.

**Principle of Respect for People's Rights and Dignity** standards stipulate adherence to the value of respect for dignity and self-worth of all people, including recognition and respect for of individuals to privacy, confidentiality and self-determination; and sensitivity to cultural differences in religion, language, nationality and ethnicity. The researcher also has to be cautious towards sensitive aspects of the participants, namely, welfare, beliefs, perceptions, customs and cultural heritage, both on an individual and a collective scale. Also included is the elimination of the researcher's personal biases against any involved or group of participants involved in the study. In addition, the research needs to be modified or terminated when the risks involved do not justify the benefits of the research.

Additionally, mention was made that the study was being conducted purely for academic purposes and the identity of the participants would remain anonymous. All approvals were recorded in writing and documented for the purpose of authenticity (see Appendix 2).

## **Part 8: Research Participants**

The research population comprised 200 respondents: 100 pre-service teachers and 100 in-service teachers. The pre-service teachers' population comprised students enrolled in a 2006–2007 Bachelor of Education course at two colleges and two vocational centres in Bangalore, India. The in-service teachers are qualified teachers currently teaching in a private school, two public schools and a foundation centre in Bangalore, India.

On completion of the written questionnaire the respondents were invited to participate in the verbal interview. In total, forty respondents made up the verbal interview population. Ten respondents from each of the four groupings of teacher respondents (general education teachers, special education teachers, general education pre-service teachers and special education pre-service teachers) were selected for the verbal

interview. Participants were selected through a “first come, first served” voluntary sign up protocol. The first ten participants from each group who signed on to the project were then divided into two equal size groups to create eight focus groups of five participants each.

The selection of (in-service teachers) respondents was based on the understanding that schools have adopted the inclusive education program and hence the teachers are implementing the inclusive education program. The selection of the pre-service teacher respondent rationale is that all the pre-service teachers are currently enrolled in the Bachelor of Education and Doctor of Education courses (prerequisites for teaching in Karnataka State, India).

Both genders were included in the study. The age range extended from 20 years to 58 years (retirement) to provide for a broader spectrum of data collection based on varying experience levels.

The respondents’ involvement was purely on a voluntary basis. Participation opportunity was offered to all the in-service teachers and pre-service teachers in the above-mentioned institutions. Permission to conduct the study was secured from the involved educational institutions. Additionally, the written consent of each participant was sought in compliance with the Griffith University Code of Ethics (see Appendix 3).

### 3.10 Summary

This chapter included the theoretical rationale for the selection of the mixed methods approach as a research design employed in this study. The selection process, and measures employed to secure validity of the two data-collecting instruments, namely, the written questionnaire and the verbal interview, were also included in this chapter.

The written questionnaire containing 25 variables graduated on a five-point scale inquired into the respondents’ demographic profile, knowledge, understanding of, attitude towards and perception of hindrances in the implementation of inclusive education. The content material of the variables was drawn from earlier research on inclusive education. The research population comprised 100 pre-service teachers enrolled in teacher training programs and 100 in-service teachers employed during the academic year 2006–2007 in Bangalore, India.

The focus group interviews comprised groups of five respondents each who earlier participated in the written questionnaire. The 11 open-ended questions directing a discussion within the group, aimed to obtain the respondents’ opinions on factors contributory to attitude formation on inclusive education.



The respondents' answers to the two questioning instruments would reflect their attitude towards inclusive education. These findings were statistically treated with the Statistical Package for the Social Sciences data analysis for conclusive evidence of the respondents' attitudes towards inclusive education. Results of the analysis are explored in Chapter 4 and Chapter 5.

## Chapter 4: Quantitative Data

### 4.1 Introduction

This chapter presents the quantitative data in three progressive steps. Initially, the individual items in the questionnaire are presented in a descriptive manner, and items that seemed significant are identified and discussed. Second, an exploratory factor analysis was undertaken to interrogate the underlying structure of the instrument constructs vis-à-vis the data. The data were then reduced into the two subscales that were identified through the exploratory factor analysis, and differences based on the independent variables were explored using multivariate analysis of variances. These quantitative findings then provide the structure for the qualitative analysis and subsequent discussion in the chapters that follow.

### 4.2 Descriptive Statistics

The instrument contained 30 items that relate to beliefs about inclusive education and teaching students who have a disability. The general descriptive statistics related to the independent variables were outlined in Chapter 3 when describing the sample for this study. Initially, the data were interrogated by examining the individual items and the mean and standard deviation for each item is presented in Table 4.

This initial rudimentary inspection highlighted four items that received strong agreement (mean score > 4).

- Students should be treated equally, regardless of their limitations (#6).
- Teachers require additional professional development to cater to the needs of students with disabilities (#15).
- The Bachelor of Education curriculum should be revised to include latest developments on national policy and teaching practices to implement educational policy (e.g., inclusive education policy) (#21).
- Parental involvement in the educational process of a child with disabilities is a vital factor for the child's educational progress (#27).

Table 4: Descriptive Statistics

Items	N	M	SD
1. The regular classroom is an ideal setting to accommodate students with disabilities	200	2.14	1.02
2. Students with disabilities should attend special school/class, and not the regular school	200	3.04	1.36
3. Students with disabilities adversely affect the required learning content of the classroom program in regular classroom	200	2.71	1.18
4. The inclusion of students with disabilities in regular classrooms can prove to be beneficial for the progress of all students	200	2.79	1.27
5. Students in regular schools can be prepared to accommodate all students regardless of their ability	200	3.29	1.17
6. Students should be treated equally, regardless of their limitations	200	4.27	1.20
7. Students with disabilities learn to socialise with regular students	200	3.75	1.06
8. Regular schools are prepared to include students with disabilities	200	2.48	1.17
9. Regular students generally do not accept students with disabilities	200	2.60	1.17
10. Parents of regular students appear to be concerned regarding the seating of children with disabilities in the regular classroom	200	3.12	1.30
11. Schools in general lack sufficient funds for implementation of a successful inclusive program	200	3.41	1.08
12. Lack of sufficient administrative support hinders implementation of the inclusive program	200	3.62	1.19
13. There is a lack of sufficient incentives (e.g., additional salary) to include students with disabilities	200	3.34	1.32
14. There are inadequate paraprofessionals (e.g., speech/occupational/physio therapists) staff to support students with disabilities	200	3.75	1.21
15. Teachers require additional professional development to cater to the needs of students with disabilities	200	4.34	.92
16. Inappropriate infrastructures (e.g., architectural barrier) cause difficulties in accommodating students with disabilities	200	3.84	1.12
17. There are inadequate resources and instructional materials to cater to the needs of students with disabilities (e.g., teaching aids—Braille)	200	3.59	1.12
18. Overall academic standards of the school will suffer if students with disabilities are included	200	2.48	1.19
19. Teaching students with disabilities means extra work caused by the need for additional documentation	200	3.23	1.21
20. I lack sufficient knowledge and skills to teach students with disabilities	200	3.16	1.38
21. The Bachelor of Education curriculum should be revised to include latest developments on national policy and teaching practices to implement educational policy (e.g., inclusive education policy)	200	4.07	.97
22. My performance as a classroom teacher will decline if I have students with disabilities in my class	200	2.20	1.32
23. I will have difficulty in giving equal attention to all students in an inclusive classroom setting	200	2.69	1.22
24. I will be unable to cope with students with disabilities who have inadequate self-care skills (e.g., not toilet trained)	200	2.78	1.32
25. Inclusion of students with disabilities in my class will contribute to my anxiety and stress	200	2.44	1.24
26. Parents of students with difficulties are apprehensive about admission of their child in a regular class	200	3.19	1.10
27. Parental involvement in the educational process of a child with disabilities is a vital factor for the child's educational progress	200	4.22	1.02
28. Teachers are reluctant to accept students with difficulties because of the increased time required for lesson modification	200	3.24	1.23
29. Large population (over 30) hinders teachers from accepting students with learning difficulties	200	3.67	1.23
30. Teaching a multi graded class of inclusive students with disabilities is impractical	200	2.98	1.25

The overwhelming high consensus of the participants on the above-named four issues is indicative of the participants' general attitude towards inclusive education practices. The high mean in item 6 indicates that generally the participants hold a view that equity is important in terms of students' educational experiences and opportunities. However, the high means for the other three items listed above are indicative of the issues and barriers (Social Norms and Perceived Behavioral Control) that inhibit inclusive education implementation.

Before undertaking the more rigorous statistical analysis outlined in the rest of this chapter, an initial inspection led to the recoding of certain items to avoid negative correlations (items 1, 4, 5 and 8).

#### 4.3 Exploratory Factor Analysis

The 30 items in the Inclusive Education Beliefs Scale were subjected to principal components analysis using Statistical Package for the Social Sciences, Version 20. Prior to performing principal component analysis the suitability of data for factor analysis was addressed. Inspection of the correlation matrix revealed the presence of many coefficients of .3 and above. The Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin value was .83, exceeding the recommended value of .6 (Kaiser, 1970, 1974) and the Bartlett's test of sphericity (Bartlett, 1954) reached statistical significance, supporting the factorability of the correlation matrix.

Principal component analysis revealed the presence of two components with eigenvalues exceeding 1, explaining 23.5% and 12.5% of the variance respectively. An inspection of the scree plot revealed a clear break after the second component. Using Catell's (1966) scree test, it was decided to retain two components for further investigation. Five items (items 6, 7, 19, 28 and 29) did not load on either component and they were thereby deleted. To aid in the interpretation of these two components, varimax rotation was performed. The rotated solution (presented in Table 5) revealed the presence of simple structure (Thurstone, 1947), with both components showing a number of strong loadings, and all variables loading substantially on only one component. The two factor solution explained a total of 37.2% of the variance, with Component 1 contributing 24.3% and Component 2 contributing 12.9%. The interpretation of the two components was consistent with previous research and theory related to Ajzen's (1991, 2005) Theory of Planned Behavior (behavioral intention predicts defined behavior). Specifically, items in Component 1 related to *attitude towards the behavior* (AB), and Component 2 related to *subjective normative pressure from others to engage in the behavior* (SN) and the

*perceived ability to control the behavior* (PBC). This estimation is based on the individual self-efficacy or the capability (in a given context) to perform an action.

Table 5: Varimax Rotation of Two Factor Solution for Inclusive Education Beliefs Scale Items<sup>1</sup>

Item	Component 1: Attitude (AB)	Component 2: External Influences (SN and PBC)
23. Is difficult to give equal attention	.74	
25. Increases stress	.72	
18. Academic standing of school suffers with inclusion	.65	
24. Involves different kind of work (i.e., work not relating to teach but dealing with lack of self-care skills)	.64	
22. Will impact negatively on teacher performance	.64	
30. Multi-grade problem	.64	
2. Disabled students should attend special schools	.62	
4. Inclusion is beneficial for all	.61	
3. Disabled students affect learning content	.55	
20. Lack of knowledge	.53	
1. The regular classroom is an ideal setting for disabled students	.42	
5. Regular schools accommodated all students	.39	
8. Regular schools will include students with disabilities	.32	
12. Lack of administrative support		.74
15. Teachers required additional professional development		.70
17. Lack of resources		.69
11. Schools lack funds for inclusion		.67
13. Lack of incentives for teachers		.66
14. Inadequate paraprofessional		.66
16. Inappropriate infrastructure		.59
10. Parental attitudes		.57
27. Parental involvement vital factor for the disabled child progress		.54
26. Disabled students parents apprehensive about regular classroom		.47
21. Changes to the Bed		.45
9. Regular students don't accept disabled students		.31

<sup>1</sup> Only loadings above .3 are displayed.

The results of this analysis support the use of the Attitudes about Inclusive Education items and the External Influences to Inclusion in the Classroom items as separate subscales, where the second combines the social norms and perceived behavior control dimensions of Ajzen's (1991) Theory of Planned Behavior. Whereas in the Theory of Planned Behavior the factors of social norms and perceived behavior control are distinct, in the quantitative data collected for this project they were not distinguishable from each other. This could be for a number of reasons including the focus of the study (inclusive education) and the cultural context (India). Although the quantitative data did not reveal subjective norms and perceived behavior control as statistically distinct subscales, there were qualitative data that allowed these ideas to be explored in greater depth, and this is presented in the next chapter.

#### 4.4 Multivariate Analysis

A between-groups multivariate analysis of variances was then employed to determine whether there were differences in the teachers' beliefs across the two factors generated by the data reduction technique. Two dependent variables were used: *attitudes about inclusive education* and *external influences to inclusion* in the classroom. Scores were calculated by generating a mean score for the high-loading items for each of the two variables. Items were scored in the same direction such that a '5' represented strongly supportive beliefs whereas a '1' indicated unsupportive beliefs. For the subscale *Attitudes about Inclusive Education*, a higher score indicated positive attitudes about inclusive education, and for the subscale *External Influences to Inclusion in the Classroom*, a higher score indicated a view that the external factors substantially impinged upon the capacity for inclusion in practice. The means, standard deviations, skewness and kurtosis values, and the reliability coefficients for the two subscales are presented in Table 6.

Table 6: Means, Standard Deviations, Skewness and Kurtosis Values, and Alpha Coefficients of the Subscales

Measures	Subscales	
	Attitude	External Influences
Items	13	12
Mean	2.91	3.59
Standard deviation	.73	.68
Skewness	.45	-.43
Kurtosis	-.19	-.21
Cronbach's alpha	.841	.840

The skewness and kurtosis values indicate that the respective distributions of each subscale do not differ substantially from the normal distribution (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2001). Furthermore, the Cronbach's alpha coefficients of the two subscales are greater than .7, indicating that they can be considered reliable.

The independent variables were gender, school type, pre-service or in-service, general or special school, age, qualifications and teaching experience. The independent variables were analysed in turn and in each case preliminary assumption testing was conducted to check for normality, linearity, univariate and multivariate outliers, homogeneity of variance-covariance matrices, and multi-collinearity, with no serious violations noted.

#### 4.4.1 Gender

The data were analysed to ascertain whether there were any statistically significant attitude differences between the male and female teacher participants in the study. Table 7 shows the means and standard deviations for male and female teachers across the two attitude dimensions.

Table 7: Means and Standard Deviations for the Subscales by Gender

	N	Attitude	External Influences
Male	40	2.81 .56	3.40 .47
Female	159	2.93 .76	3.63 .72

There was no statistically significant difference between males and females on the combined dependent variables.

This finding is consistent with a number of other studies in India and across other parts of the world, including Logan and Wlimer's (2012) study of 213 male and female regular in-service high school and middle school teachers in Georgia, USA. Similar were the research findings from 100 Ghanaian teachers (33% males and 67% females) from five schools implementing an inclusive education program and five non-inclusive education schools by Agbenyega (2007).

Also, in Parasuram's (2002) study of primary and secondary regular teachers from state-aided, private and municipal schools in Mumbai, there was no gender difference in the teachers' attitudes towards inclusive education. Van Reusen, Soho and Barker (2001) reported on 125 in-service teachers from San Antonio, Texas, including study results of Coronoldi, Terreni, Scruggs and Mastropieri (1998) and Kuester (2000) that concurred

that there are no differences in male and female teachers' attitudes towards inclusive education.

However, the findings of some researchers in a range of contexts on the issue of gender offered an alternative view, claiming that gender differences do effect attitude towards inclusive education. Therefore, the results of this study, although in agreement with some related studies, differ from those of other researchers. For example, the general consensus of 141 Nigerian special educators was that female teachers have a more positive attitude towards students with disabilities (Ajuwon, 2012). This was also the conclusion drawn in the study of United Kingdom pre-service teachers by Avramidis, Bayliss and Burden (2000). Similarly, Pearman, Barnhart, Huang and Mellblom (1992) found that female teachers seem to have more favourable attitudes and beliefs towards inclusive education than their male counterparts. Again in support of this claim is Yunker and Block's (1986) review of 129 studies, which disclosed that 44% of females had a more positive attitude towards inclusive education. In addition, Harvery (1985) claims that in Australia male teachers hold a more negative attitude than their female counterparts in teaching students with disabilities. I presume the reason for this is that women play the nurturing social role and therefore are more accommodating towards students with disabilities needs.

Nonetheless, the above conclusions are challenged by the findings of Lampropoulou and Padelliadu's (1997) study in Greece that male teachers hold more positive views about inclusive education practices than women do. In addition, Bhatnagar and Das (2013) claim that the general teachers from private schools in New Delhi share a view that male teachers have a more positive attitude towards inclusive education than their female counterparts.

It is important to note that each of these studies was undertaken in different national, cultural and educational contexts, and so it is perhaps not surprising that the results vary. However, on a note of interest, this study also reveals the gender imbalance in teacher population engaged in the study. The male–female ratio is extremely uneven, as indicated in Table 5, with the female teacher population being nearly four times that of the male population. This situation is not unique to this study.

Other studies that support this finding include that of Parsuram (2002), in which the gender demographics revealed that participants comprised 80.3% female and 19.7% male respondents. Similarly, in Ghana, female teachers outnumbered their male counterparts in a ratio of two females to every one male teacher (Agbenyega, 2007). Likewise, the demographic profile of participants in Logan and Wlimer's (2012) study reflected that



female respondents far exceed their male counterparts. A British Broadcasting Company report (2005) claimed that only 15% of all primary school teachers in England are men. The United States National Education Council 2006 statistics report shows that men accounted for less than one-fourth of the teacher population. Also in agreement is a study of Briggs, Johnson, Shepherd and Sedbrook (2002) in the Midwestern United States that highlights this gender imbalance among a general teacher population from 12 schools comprising 512 teachers in which there were only 75 male teachers.

Briefly, it can be concluded that since more females than males are engaged in the school-teaching profession (as cited in the above-mentioned research), the attitudes reflected towards inclusive education are dominated by the female teachers' attitudes towards teaching students with disabilities in the regular classroom.

#### 4.4.2 In-service and Pre-service

The data were analysed to ascertain whether there were any statistically significant attitude differences between the in-service and pre-service teacher participants in the study. Table 8 shows the means and standard deviations for in-service and pre-service teachers across the two belief dimensions.

Table 8: Means and Standard Deviations for the Subscales for In-service and Pre-service Teachers

	N	Attitude	External Influences
In-service teachers	100	3.12 .83	3.73 .75
Pre-service teachers	99	2.69 .53	3.44 .68

There was a statistically significant difference between the in-service and pre-service teachers on the combined dependent variables:  $F(2, 196) = 11.68, p < 0.01$ ; Wilks'  $\lambda = .89$ , partial eta squared = .11. When the results for the dependent variables were considered separately, both reached statistical significance using a Bonferroni adjusted alpha level of .025. The results of the univariate tests on the nature of these differences are shown in Table 9.

Table 9: Tests of Between-Subjects Effects for In-service and Pre-service Teachers

Variable	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Attitude	1	9.33	19.25	.000
External influences	1	4.13	9.21	.003

An inspection of the mean scores (see Table 8) indicated that the in-service teachers had attitudes that were more positive towards inclusive education, but they also saw the practical external influences being more substantial and difficult to overcome. This result is perhaps not surprising given that the in-service teachers were drawing on their years of experience in classrooms as well as their professional knowledge, beliefs and ethics, whereas the pre-service teachers might have been a little more idealistic. This finding is revisited in Chapter 5, through the qualitative data.

This finding is also consistent with some other research that found that in-service teachers generally had positive attitudes towards inclusive education, whereas pre-service teachers were not so affirming. For example, Savolainen, Engelbrecht, Nel and Olli-Pekka (2012) found that the general consensus of 319 South African and 822 Finnish in-service primary and secondary teachers was a positive attitude towards inclusive education practices. However, these teachers expressed concerns regarding inclusive education implementation in their classrooms. Leatherman and Niemeyer's (2005) research also found that teachers who had prior experience in the inclusive education classroom had a more positive attitude towards inclusive education practice, and in Taskiridou and Polyzopoulou's (2014) study, results indicated that Greek general teachers expressed a positive attitude towards inclusive education practices. Alternatively, a number of studies (Agbenyega, 2007; Alghazo et al., 2003; Avoke, 2002; Barton, 1996; Bhatnagar & Das, 2013; Forlin & Chambers, 2011; Hemmings & Woodcock, 2011; Laslesy, 2006; Vaughn et al., 1994) are in agreement that in-service teachers harbour negative attitudes towards inclusive education. It is noteworthy to mention here that the in-service teachers might be sympathetic and recognise the rights of students with disabilities, but this did not seem to lead to more positive attitudes towards inclusive education, and they did express unfavourable attitudes towards inclusive education principles and practice. Agbeyenga (2007) traced the Ghanaian teachers' negative attitudes towards inclusive education in the words of a respondent: "our schools are not accessible to those students in a wheelchair ... classrooms are overcrowded with one teacher teaching 50 to 60 students ... If those students with visual impairment, intellectual disabilities and those with speech problems are included, we do not think it can work ... we do not have the requisite knowledge, skills and experience to do that sort of teaching" (p. 48). These studies, along with the findings of this study, are from a range of sites, and therefore, this issue appears to concern a broader context than just the Indian context.

That said, it is important to note that a few studies reported contradictory findings, noting that pre-service teachers had more positive attitudes than in-service teachers. Costello and Boyle's (2013) study of 193 Australian pre-service secondary teachers showed an initial positive attitude towards inclusive education. However, this positivity was noticed to have reduced in subsequent research results as the academic course progressed over the years. Costello and Boyle (2013) claim a probable cause in the decline of interest was the shortcomings in the course offering.

Again, Lambe and Bone's (2007) research showed that 125 student teachers in Northern Ireland's responses reflected a positive attitude towards the principles of inclusive education, nevertheless, they did express concern about attempting to implement the program. The interesting results from the comparative research on pre-service teachers' attitudes from Canada, Australia, Singapore and Hong Kong conducted by Sharma et al. (2006) showed that the pre-service respondents from Canada and Australia held a more positive attitude towards students with disabilities than their counterparts from Hong Kong and Singapore. The researchers suggested cultural difference may have contributed to this differentiation in attitude between the pre-service teachers involved in the study. However, interestingly, Hemmings and Woodcock's (2011) Australian study, employing a two round survey research analysis, disclosed that pre-service teachers revealed a negative attitude, claiming that they did not feel competent enough to effectively implement the inclusive education program.

#### 4.4.3 General and Special School Teachers

The data were analysed to ascertain whether there were any statistically significant belief differences between the general school teachers and the special school teachers in the study. Table 10 shows the means and standard deviations for general school and special school teachers across the two belief dimensions.

Table 10: Means and Standard Deviations for the Subscales for General School and Special School Teachers

	N	Attitude	External Influences
General school teachers	100	3.14 .79	3.48 .72
Special school teachers	99	2.67 .57	3.70 .62

There was a statistically significant difference between the general school and the special school teachers on the combined dependent variables:  $F(2, 196) = 20.85, p < 0.01$ ;

Wilks' lambda = .83; partial eta squared = .18. When the results for the dependent variables were considered separately, both reached statistical significance using a Bonferroni adjusted alpha level of .025. The results of the univariate tests on the nature of these differences are shown in Table 11.

Table 11: Tests of Between-Subjects Effects for General School and Special School Teachers

Variable	Df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Attitude	1	11.07	23.27	.000
External influences	1	2.40	5.24	.023

An inspection of the mean scores (see Table 10) indicated that the general school teachers had attitudes that were more positive towards inclusive education, and they also expressed beliefs that were less pessimistic about the external influences in the classroom. This result may be because the special education teachers operate in a school structure that is by its nature “not inclusive”. In addition, the constant and consuming focus that special school teachers have on this topic means that their views are significantly influenced by the pragmatic concerns of their everyday practice. The attitude of the general teacher respondents in this study is consistent with the findings of Scruggs and Masteropieri (1996), who reported on a review of four decades of attitudinal research to confirm general teachers’ support for the inclusive education concept: “Twenty-eight investigations were identified in which general education teachers were surveyed regarding their perceptions of including students with disabilities in their classes” (p. 47). In addition, Pooman (1996) found in his New Delhi study that 78% of general teachers expressed a willingness to educate students with disabilities. Jangrai and Srinivasan (1991), through their research, also indicated that general teachers held positive attitudes towards educating students with disabilities in the general classroom.

However, it is worthy to note that some research findings are at odds with the findings of this study, claiming that general teachers hold a negative attitude towards inclusive education (e.g., Barnatt & Kabzems, 1992; Forlin & Cole, 1993; Roberts & Zubrick, 1992). A similar negative attitude towards inclusive education practices was expressed by Palestinian teachers in Lifshitz, Glaubman and Issawi’s (2004) research, and by Israeli teachers in Glaubman and Liftshitz’s (2001) study. Interestingly, the research of Barnatt and Kabzems (1992, p. 141) found that in Zimbabwe general teachers hold a strong negative attitude towards inclusive education. With 40% of the research

respondents saying that “they would refuse to teach a student with an intellectual disability if placed in their classroom”.

Also noteworthy with reference to this study is the contradictory claim of Liu and Pearson’s (1999) study in Alabama, where many of the 90 schools involved were implementing the inclusive education program. In this study the special educators were more positive about the benefits of inclusive education for students with disabilities, but 60% of the general teachers expressed a negative attitude towards full inclusive education implementation and only 27% showed a positive attitude towards inclusive education. Furthermore, Olson’s (2003) study showed that although both general and special teachers might express a positive attitude towards inclusive education, this attitude is strongly tempered with reservations regarding the external factors and implementation process.

#### 4.4.4 Age

The data were analysed to ascertain whether there were any statistically significant belief differences based on the age of the teachers in the study. The participants were categorised as *younger* if their age was between 21 and 32 years, and *older* if their age was between 33 years and 63 years. Table 12 shows the means and standard deviations for the two age groups across the two belief dimensions.

Table 12: Means and Standard Deviations for the Subscales for Younger and Older Teachers

	N	Attitude	External Influences
Younger teachers	101	2.83 .54	3.48 .61
Older teachers	98	2.98 .88	3.70 .74

There was a statistically significant difference between the younger and the older teachers on the combined dependent variables:  $F(2, 196) = 3.11, p = .047$ ; Wilks’ lambda = .97; partial eta squared = .03. When the results for the dependent variables were considered separately, only *external influences* reached statistical significance using a Bonferroni adjusted alpha level of .025. The results of the univariate tests on the nature of these differences are shown in Table 13 below.

Table 13: Tests of Between-Subjects Effects for Regular School and Special School Teachers

Variable	Df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Attitude	1	1.14	2.16	.144
External influences	1	2.51	5.50	.020*

An inspection of the mean scores (see Table 12) indicated that the older teachers held negative beliefs that saw the external influences being more difficult to overcome. This finding is supported by numerous studies conducted earlier that highlight age as an important consideration for teachers' attitudes towards the inclusive education program.

I presume since older aged teachers have worked longer in the teaching field they have more experience in the teaching profession and are more aware of the lack of support from external factors such as administrators, parents, funding and resources (instructional material and appropriate physical infrastructure) needed for effective implementation of the IE program, which is a difficult task to accomplish. This presumption is supported by claims from numerous studies such as Stoler's (1992) study of 182 in-service teachers, including Cornoldi and colleague's (1998) report on 523 general teachers in Italy, which agreed that age had a significant impact on attitudes towards inclusive education. Lampropoulou and Padeliaadu (1997) endorsed this in their claim that age is a defining factor in teachers' attitudes towards inclusive education and that younger teachers exhibited a more positive attitude towards inclusive education, although in their study the youngest age group accounted for only 15 respondents in a research population of 416 teachers. This reasoning is further supported by Heiman's (2001) findings from 116 middle school teachers in Israel, which claimed that the age factor did influence teachers' attitudes towards inclusive education practices. The study showed the younger teachers held a more positive attitude towards the inclusive education program. Ajuwon's (2012) study of 141 Nigerian special educators aged between 30 and 60 years also shares this idea. The younger teachers explained that the availability of resources encouraged them to perceive a more positive attitude towards the implementation of inclusive education. Likewise, Bhatnagar and Das (2013) reported that younger general teachers in Delhi, India, disclosed a more positive attitude than their older counterparts. Parasuram's (2002) study in Mumbai categorised the respondents into three age groups. The results disclosed that the youngest age group teachers (20–30 years) and the oldest age group teachers (50–60 years) reflected a more positive attitude towards students with disabilities compared with teachers belonging to the middle age group (40–50 years). Reasons for this might be

that younger aged teachers have more exposure to information on the concepts of equality for social justice. This factor may contribute to younger teachers' more positive perception towards inclusive education. In the case of teachers in the oldest age group, high self-efficacy gained through experience may account for their confidence to include students with disabilities in their general classrooms. Gaad (2004) explains that younger teachers may be more positive towards inclusive education because they have outgrown negative traditional beliefs, whereas the older generation is still influenced by past cultures.

However, Ghanaian teachers do not perceive age differences as an identifiable factor affecting teachers' attitudes towards inclusion practices (Agbenyega, 2007). Likewise, this perception was shared by international teachers working in four schools in Thailand that cater to students belonging to the international community, indicates Dapudong (2014).

#### 4.4.5 *Qualifications*

The data were analysed to ascertain whether there were any statistically significant belief differences based on the qualifications of the teachers in the study. The participants were grouped according to their highest qualification: undergraduate diploma, graduate bachelor degree or postgraduate degree (these labels are the official Government of India's labelling of qualifications). Table 14 shows the means and standard deviations for the three groups across the two belief dimensions.

Table 14: Means and Standard Deviations for the Subscales Based on Highest Qualification

	N	Attitude	External Influences
Undergrad dip	12	3.31 .76	3.80 .77
Bachelor	135	2.88 .71	3.54 .64
Postgrad	52	2.88 .76	3.66 .77

There was no statistically significant difference based on the participants' qualifications on the combined dependent variables. Therefore, this result is not in agreement with the views of Nigerian special educators that higher qualifications better equip teachers with a greater level of understanding and tolerance to accommodate students with behavioral problems and a more positive attitude for students with disabilities requiring sensory supports in the classroom (Ajuwon, 2012).

The Government of India required individuals interested in engaging in the teaching profession to acquire a teaching degree. Parasuram's (2002) study in Bombay concluded that Masters of Education qualified teachers projected a more positive attitude than Bachelor of Education and Doctor of Education qualified teachers. Likewise, the Bachelor of Education teachers' attitudes towards students with disabilities were more positive than those of the Doctor of Education qualified teachers. In agreement, Paterson, Boyce and Jamieson (1999) reported that in South India higher education achievement was identified as a strong indicator of a more positive attitude towards persons with disabilities. Yunker's (1988) studies in the United States confirmed that education achievement is directly proportional to attitude towards students with disabilities.

In disagreement, some studies indicate that high educational qualification is inversely proportional to teachers' attitudes. For example, a study by Forlin, Tait, Carroll and Jobling (1999) claimed that in Queensland, Australia, although the effect of educational achievement towards attitudes was marginal, pre-service teachers with postgraduate qualifications showed more negativity towards students with disabilities than pre-service teachers with high school certification. In addition, the teachers with higher academic achievements held a stronger negative attitude towards the integration of students with disabilities in a report by Antonak, Mulick, Kobe and Fiedler (1995). In agreement with this perception, Stoler (1992) claimed that teachers with high levels of education had less positive attitudes towards inclusion than those who did not achieve master's degree status.

However, this study supports claims put forward by Suban and Sharma (2005), whose interview results derived from four undergraduate and six postgraduate qualified primary school teachers in Victoria, Australia, reflected no significant difference in the respondents' positive attitudes towards inclusion of students with disabilities in the regular classroom. In addition, Dupoux and colleague's (2005) comparative study report of 152 high school teachers in Haiti and 200 high school teachers in the United States concluded that even though the teachers from the United States had higher academic qualifications, educational qualifications were not a determining factor for teachers' attitudes in either of the countries. Heiman's (2001) study's results, gathered from 116 middle school teachers belonging to central Israel, and Kuester's (2000) study in Canada, which targeted variables that may affect teachers' attitudes towards inclusion, showed that differences in academic qualifications was not a determining factor for teachers' attitudes towards students with disabilities.



The reason for this claim could be that the respondents in these studies shared the opinion that other factors such as experience, administrative support and availability of facilities, among other concerns, were more significant factors in determining their attitude towards inclusive education. In the studies that claimed that higher academic qualifications supported higher positive attitude, it could be assumed that education had helped teachers in these countries, such as India, to unshackle themselves from the negative traditional social norms that foster negativity towards students with disabilities. Alternatively, in situations where higher educational qualifications are inversely proportional to teachers' attitudes, a probable cause could be the teacher's low self-efficacy in effectively teaching students with disabilities on par with the general students in a common classroom.

#### 4.4.6 Teaching Experience

The data were analysed to ascertain whether there were any statistically significant belief differences based on the teaching experience of the participants in the study. The participants were categorised as *less experienced* if they had been teaching up to six years, and *more experienced* if they had been teaching more than seven years. Table 15 shows the means and standard deviations for the two *teaching experience* groups across the two belief dimensions.

Table 15: Means and Standard Deviations for the Subscales for Less and More Experienced Teachers

	N	Attitude	External Influences
Less experienced	113	2.69 .54	3.51 .60
More experienced	86	3.18 .84	3.68 .77

There was a statistically significant difference between the less experienced and the more experienced teachers on the combined dependent variables:  $F(2, 196) = 12.81, p < .01$ ; Wilks' Lambda = .88, partial eta squared = .12. When the results for the dependent variables were considered separately, only *inclusive education* reached statistical significance using a Bonferroni adjusted alpha level of .025. The results of the univariate tests on the nature of these differences are shown in Table 16.

Table 16: Tests of Between-Subjects Effects for Less and More Experienced Teachers

Variable	Df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Attitude	1	12.03	25.55	.000*
External influences	1	1.39	3.00	.085

An inspection of the mean scores (see Table 16) indicated that the more experienced teachers were more positive in their attitudes about inclusive education, and again, this result will be examined further in the next chapter using the qualitative data.

This finding is in congruence with the Van Reusen and colleagues' (2001) findings that experience is an integral factor in determining teachers' positive attitudes towards inclusive education practices and procedures. Reynolds and Reynolds (1982) also claim that more experience with students with disabilities raises the degrees of positive attitudes towards effectively implementing the inclusive education program. Tait and Purdie (2000) explain that an increase in practicum via workshops and seminars will provide for an increase in exposure and experience, and help increase positive attitudes towards inclusive education. This finding was supported by Suban and Sharma's (2005) study of Australian in-service teachers, who shared opinions that exposure to students with disabilities in the classroom will increase teachers' experience and promote a positive feeling towards students with disabilities. This finding is similar to an earlier study of LeRoy and Simpson (1996) in Michigan, which extended over a span of three years that examined the impact of inclusive education practices on teachers' attitudes. The results disclosed that teachers' experience with students with disabilities showed an increase in their positive attitudes towards students with disabilities. Likewise, although Kalyva, Gojkovic and Tsakiris's (2007) investigation into the attitudes of 72 Serbian in-service teachers towards the inclusion of children with special educational needs in mainstream schools showed that Siberian teachers held a negative attitude towards inclusion of students with disabilities in the general classroom, teachers with experience in working with students with disabilities held a more positive attitude towards their inclusion compared with their colleagues who lacked this experience in conformation.

The conclusive results of research by Ali, Mustpha and Jeals (2006), Campbell, Gilmore and Cuskelly (2003), Shade and Stewart (2001), Taylor et al. (1997) and Pennell and Firestone (1996) showed that an increase in experience is essential for positive attitude development, and support the findings of this study.

This study does not endorse claims in Forlin, Douglas and Hattie's (1996) research in Western Australia that more experience does not contribute to a greater acceptance of students with disabilities. Nor does it contribute to Barnes's (2008) findings on 168 general teachers' attitudes in Pennsylvania, who shared the general opinion that teachers do not consider experience a determining factor to develop a positive attitude towards teaching students with disabilities (autistic children). This study also disagrees with Forlin's (1995) claim that as teachers acquire more experience their level of acceptance declines towards students with disabilities in the general classroom. In addition, the suggestion of Harvey (1985) that pre-service teachers with no experience hold a more positive and optimistic attitude towards students with disabilities, and are more willing to accept students with disabilities than experienced teachers supports Parasuram's (2002) Mumbai, India, study, which found that teachers with less than five years' experience hold a more positive attitude than teachers having experience ranging up to 25 years. In addition, a study by Dupoux et al. (2005) and Dapudong's (2014) study of international teachers working in Thailand found that experience is not a significant factor in determining teachers' attitudes towards students with disabilities.

#### 4.5 Summary

The quantitative data were analysed in three related ways. First, the descriptive statistics were calculated for each of the questionnaire items and these revealed that there was a widely accepted need for additional professional in-service and pre-service development in inclusive education. Second, the data were subjected to a principal component analysis to identify the underlying structure of the teachers' beliefs. Two subscales were identified: (1) Attitudes about Inclusive Education and (2) Beliefs about External Influences in the Classroom. Further analysis showed that these subscales were statistically reliable (alpha coefficients of .841 and .840 respectively) and together accounted for 37.2% of the variance. Third, a multivariate analysis of variances was employed to examine differences in the two subscales identified through the principal component analysis on a range of independent variables. The results showed that:

- There were no statistical differences based on gender or qualifications.
- The teachers in Type 1 schools (general school teachers with teaching experience) were more positive about inclusive education than the teachers in other schools.

- The teachers in Type 3 schools (special education teachers with experience) saw greater external influences in the classroom.
- The in-service teachers were more positive about inclusive education, but saw greater external influences than the pre-service teachers.
- The general school teachers were more positive about inclusive education and experienced fewer external influences than the special school teachers.
- The older teachers saw greater external influences on their capacity for inclusion than the younger teachers.
- The more experienced teachers were more positive about inclusive education than the less experienced teachers.

These results were compared to previous literature noting points of agreement and disagreement. These results are now examined and exemplified in greater depth using the qualitative data in the next chapter.

## Chapter 5: Qualitative Analysis

The previous chapter explored quantitative data that identified participants' beliefs about, and linked attitudes towards, inclusive education in Bangalore, India. The analysis found four items that received strong agreement:

- Students should be treated equally, regardless of their limitations (#6).
- Teachers require additional professional development to cater to the needs of students with disabilities (#15).
- The Bachelor of Education curriculum should be revised to include latest developments on national policy and teaching practices to implement educational policy (e.g., inclusive education policy) (#21).
- Parental involvement in the educational process of a child with disabilities is a vital factor for the child's educational progress (#27).

As discussed in Chapter 4, the high mean in item 6 indicates that generally the participants hold the view (i.e., the behavioral belief) that equity is important in terms of students' educational experiences and opportunities. However, the high means for the other three items listed above are indicative of the issues and barriers (i.e., subjective and perceived behavior control beliefs) to enacting inclusive education practices. In other words, while teachers felt very positively about the importance of inclusive education, they expressed concerns about the external factors that affect the achievement of inclusive education goals, and similar concerns about the ways in which the subjective norm—or beliefs of others—would also shape what was possible and realistic to aspire towards.

This chapter draws upon qualitative data to further investigate teacher *attitudes* that flow from their beliefs. It explores behavioral beliefs, subjective norm and perceived behavioral control beliefs and links these to attitudes that shape behaviours. These were investigated through focus group discussions organised around the following questions:

1. In your opinion, to what extent is Gandhi's basic education philosophy still present in education today?
2. Do you think education is essential for creating a more democratic society in which all people may have an opportunity to participate?
3. In your opinion, are present educational systems directed towards holistic development of an individual, or more towards academic achievement?

4. What do you understand by the concept of inclusive education? Do you know any key principles of inclusive education?
5. Can children with disabilities be afforded the same educational opportunities as other students in a regular classroom?
6. Do you think that admission of students with disabilities can create a more realistic learning environment for all students?
7. Describe any possible positive outcomes from implementation of a regular school inclusion program for students with disabilities.
8. Describe any possible negative outcomes from implementation of a regular school inclusion program for students with disabilities.
9. How could teacher's attitudes towards implementation of an inclusive education program influence the effectiveness of the inclusion program?
10. If you had a student with a disability in your class how could you cater to his/her needs?
11. What limitations might affect your ability to respond?

As previously noted, these questions were based upon previous research conducted by Minke et al. (1996) and Subban and Sharma (2005), who investigated teachers' attitudes towards inclusive education. The focus group questions were designed to provide multiple prompts that would ultimately provoke responses relevant to the overall research questions: teachers' beliefs about inclusive education in India.

Participants' responses were analysed using the Theory of Planned Behavior as a frame for thematic coding. As outlined above, the Theory of Planned Behavior relates to three sets of beliefs that influence attitudes, intention and thus ultimately behavior: behavioral beliefs, subjective norm and control beliefs. Thematic analysis therefore locates responses under these three broad headings, and then groups them according to their common features. It is important to be clear here that while the chapter necessarily makes significant use of the word 'beliefs' this is in order to facilitate identification of attitudes.

### 5.1 Behavioral Beliefs and Attitudes

As outlined previously, behavioral beliefs are an individual's personal beliefs about the value of a particular behavior (Ajzen, 2005). As stated by Greenwald and Banaji in their review, "attitudes, self-esteem, and stereotypes have important implicit modes of operation" (1995, p. 4). Identifying teachers' behavioral beliefs about inclusive education

helps identify their attitudes towards the likely outcomes of inclusive education initiatives.

Analysis of focus group data revealed three main beliefs related to teachers' attitudes towards inclusive education. As inclusive education is a new concept in India it was necessary to also provide participants with an opportunity to comment on their attitudes towards more familiar—but closely related—concepts, such as Gandhi's basic education and the idea of education for all.

#### *5.1.1 Gandhi's Basic Education is a Worthwhile Goal to Promote the Education-for-all Pedagogy.*

The current school education system in India is patterned on a textual academic achievement program while basic education is craft oriented (see Appendix 6). In a situation wherein academic achievement is highly prioritized and teaching efficiency is measured by students' test scores, the teacher student instructional contact time is of significant importance. The allocation of time for the study of craft was therefore seen as counter productive in the current academic and grade centred context.

Consequently in spite of the long history of Indian political leaders supporting basic education (as defined by Gandhi) there was only modest agreement by three of four participant groups, namely, the general education in-service teachers, special education in-service teachers and special education pre-service teachers. The general education pre-service teachers opted to differ on this issue as they did not view the goals of basic education as important and worthwhile, or as offering multiple benefits in general to the Indian population and in particular to every individual:

For example, general teachers argued that "everyone should have basic education at all levels" and that education should "reach the remotes [sic] corners of the world". A similar point was made in a different way by some special pre-service teachers who argued that Gandhi's education philosophy "is not given the importance it should have in the education in India". In agreement, the special education in-service teacher's opinion was expressed by two respondents of this group: "Ideally Gandhi's educational philosophy although good is not put into practice". However, one respondent added, "Special schools maybe there is a little more emphasis". (The reason may be that in special schools emphasis is given to psychomotor skills development such as stamping, gardening, card making and other craft or psychomotor development activities whereas cognitive achievement takes a secondary position). All the general education pre-service teachers held the view expressed by one respondent: "No, Gandhi educational philosophy of basic education is not important in the present school course".

This statement is a reflection of the criticism of basic education principles and practices by some prominent educators in India, who explain why basic education is only marginally visible in the current school curriculum. Aggarwal (2008) and Pathak (2012) agree that some of these arguments are voiced by R. K. Singh, who claims that one-sixth of the learning time in the working day of a student is allocated to learning academic disciplines (the three Rs: reading, writing and arithmetic) and the rest of the time is spent on craft study (i.e. spinning and weaving, gardening leading to agriculture, book craft including paper and cardboard work leading to wood and metal work, leather work, clay work and pottery, fisheries and home craft) (see Appendix 6). The Editorial Board of the Indian Institute of Education, Bombay and Bakshi (1955) pointed out flaws in the basic education curriculum plan. For example, as per the Wardha Scheme of Education (Kher, 1937), the basic education prescribed timetable allocates time for craft education study sessions, prior to the time allocated for academic study. Engagement in craft-related activities involving physical efforts will reduce students' energy levels and may adversely affect their interest and learning abilities of academic subjects. P.S. Naidu criticised the basic education aims for overemphasis on psychomotor development while marginalising attention to cognitive development, failing to recognise the individuality in each student, crippling creativity energy released in play activities and the notable absence of child psychology in the Wardha Scheme's teacher training course. In addition, S. Natarajan (Varkey, 1940) argued that only when a country has a sound economic standing will it be in a position to support social developments such as education and social upliftment. The strong emphasis on craft development and downplay of knowledge in science, technology and mathematics in basic education fails to relate to India's urgent need to gain economic stability. In their Editorial Education Review, Bombay and Bakshi (1955) claim that with the global trend for industrialisation, knowledge in mathematics and science has a higher weighting than handicraft skills development. A. N. Basu is of the opinion that in basic education the individuality of the child is secondary in the basic education agenda (Varkey, 1940). Rabindranath Tagore (1961), a contemporary of Gandhi and a prominent educator in the country, shared Gandhi's advocacy of education in the mother tongue, the propagation of educational institutions in the rural areas, anti-discrimination policy in education against defined sections of Indian society, and the mass education system. However, Tagore opposed Gandhi's basic education policy of closing the education system in India to multi-cultural influences. Jha (1999) quotes Tagore's opinion on multiculturalism: "He wanted students to think in terms of the whole mankind—to be universal men/women—to overcome feelings of narrow nationalism in order that the



world could live and grow in peace and fellowship” (p. 11). Tagore, also in contradiction to Gandhi’s hatred of the English language, recognised the importance of studying the English language as the path to exposure to the outside world (Jha, 1999).

While this same question was asked across all focus groups, in most cases the reactions were primarily about the barriers to this occurring, and this is discussed in more detail in the following section under theme 2.

#### *5.1.2 Education for All is, in Theory, a Desirable Goal.*

Participants were also asked to comment specifically on the benefits that flow from education for all: to an individual and to the nation. In response to this question there was a much stronger and more widespread agreement across all four cohorts (10 special education teachers, 10 pre-service special education teachers, 10 general education teachers and 10 pre-service general education teachers) that education for all (as opposed to the more specific concept of basic education) was a socially, economically and ethically desirable goal. In responding to this question, participants raised multiple points about the value of education. This was, in fact, one of the most generative of all the questions asked, with participants offering multiple comments about the idea of education for all. There were three particularly recurring sub-themes with regard to this question.

First, there was strong agreement among all the four groups about the general value of education in shaping life opportunities and creating conditions for people to exercise personal autonomy. The positive awareness factor in this response is indicative that the respondents were well aware that education was the route for India’s future progress. They noted, for example, that “without education we can’t do anything” (special education pre-service teacher), and that education “always provides more choices and opportunities” (special education in-service teacher).

Second, across all participant groups there was strong emphasis placed on the role of education in democratic society and the importance of democracy to the Indian context. It was observed, however, that the special education in-service teachers were most emphatic on this agenda. This observation illustrates the passion of the special education in-service teachers towards the education of students with disabilities. Generally speaking, however, this attitude of all the teachers is linked to their belief that education encourages individual rights and recognition of the rights of others. This is illustrated in the quotes below:

Definitely yes, without education there cannot be democracy and equality in society (general education in-service teacher).

Only an educated nation can realise every citizen has equal rights and liberties (general education pre-service teachers).

Yes, education is the door that opens minds of people to think in a democratic way that gives all the rights to equal opportunity (special education in-service teacher).

Yes, because uneducated people do not realise the rights of others. (special education in-service teacher).

Third, participants justified the importance of education in terms of the pursuit of equal opportunity for all. This is seen in two ways. First, people talked about their own rights: “At least you do learn that there are options” (general education pre-service teacher). This sentiment was reiterated through the general consensus shared by all four groups underlining their opinion that education is the equalising factor because through education every individual has “equal rights and opportunities”. Further, education “gives every person the opportunity to be equally and actively involved in society” (special education pre-service teacher). Additionally, education “provides more choices and opportunities” (special education in-service teacher) and ensures that “all people have equal rights” (general education in-service teacher). It is important to note that the concept of having equal rights for an education and to apply for any opportunity of employment are human rights long denied to the larger section of Indian society. This denial stems from the sociocultural caste system, which denied certain sections (women and lower caste members, not to mention persons with disabilities, who were discounted in society) their right to education and certain employment opportunities, for example, the *shudras* and the untouchables could never aspire to attend general schools, nor hold the professional position of a doctor, accountant, or any managerial position in an organisation. Secondly, people talked about the valuable role of teaching people about the rights of others, for example, as aptly stated:

Yes, because an uneducated people do not realise the rights of other people (special education pre-service teacher).

Education is the door that opens peoples’ minds to think in a democratic way that gives all the rights to equal opportunity (special education in-service teacher).

Only an educated nation can realise that every citizen has equal rights and liberties (general education pre-service teacher).

Only an educated society can promote values (general education in-service teacher).

Sentiments such as those cited above demonstrate the realisation that through education individuals will not only realise their own rights, but just as importantly become aware of the rights of others. In the Indian context this would mean that children

belonging to the lower castes have the right to attend school with their counterparts belonging to the higher castes. Girls have an equal right to education alongside their male counterparts, and children with disabilities should not be denied their right to an education in the general school system. This concept is the platform of basic education generally, and the inclusive education perspective that every child has an equal right to an equal education.

Across all of the responses it is possible to identify a high level of agreement with the broad idea that education for all is a worthwhile social and political goal. This is consistent with long-standing government agendas (and Gandhi's basic education) even though the concept of basic education was less overtly supported (see above and below) than the concept of education for all. The participants perceived this as related to India's history and culture and, more specifically, to a struggle to gain independence and political autonomy. This was most emphatically stated by the pre-service teachers:

Prior to independence we were slaves to foreign rulers; education is the only tool the common man has against oppression (general pre-service teacher).

India is the largest democracy in the world, so I think every Indian should have the right to equal opportunity to study and progress in life (general pre-service teacher).

Without education where will democracy be? The rich and powerful will decide and the masses will have to follow (Special pre-service teachers).

The special teachers expressed strong agreement with this idea. As one noted, "Yes, education is the door that opens people's minds to think in a democratic way". Another stated, "Without education, no democracy, and without democracy certain sections of society like the backward classes would never have the opportunity to equal rights in society" (special education in-service teachers).

The importance of an education program that aims to promote and sustain democratic thought is summed up in the words "Education is the vehicle for democracy, education is vital to the development of a democratic society; without education, there cannot be democracy and equality in society" (general education in-service teacher).

This focus group data showed strong agreement across all four cohorts of participants that, in theory, education is desirable for all members of society. This desirability was linked to the key ideas of democracy, individual rights, equal opportunity, personal progress and social development.

This is consistent with the strong agreement in the quantitative data about the value of inclusive education that was expressed through agreement with the statement:

Students should be treated equally, regardless of their limitations (#6).

However, despite strong levels of agreement that education for all is important and that all students should be treated equally, analysis of normative beliefs and control beliefs reveals widespread scepticism about what is actually possible to achieve in practice. It is important to note here that in the quantitative data it was not possible to separate out normative beliefs from control beliefs. However, the qualitative data provides a clearer insight into both of these belief sets.

In summary, therefore, analysis of participants' behavioral beliefs showed modest agreement with the ideals of basic education and stronger agreement with the concepts of educational for all.

## 5.2 Subjective Norm Beliefs and Attitudes

The second dimensions of behavior explored by Ajzen (1991) are the beliefs a person holds about *other people's* beliefs. This set of beliefs (which may be held by peers, or significant others, including those in positions of authority within school or education systems) are referred to by Ajzen as the subjective norm. For this project, reflecting upon subjective norms involves focusing on the participants' beliefs about other people's attitudes towards inclusive education in order to ultimately identify participants' own attitudes. As discussed earlier, Ballone and Czerniak (2001) see the subjective norm as the "extent to which the person believes that others who are considered important to them think the behavior should be performed" (p. 10). The subjective norm therefore provides insights into the extent to which teachers may believe they are under pressure to act in particular ways. Analysis of the focus group data revealed five main subjective beliefs underpinning attitudes:

1. The Indian education system (and associated curriculum) does not value basic education or inclusive education.
2. Parents do not value inclusive education.
3. Parents and teachers prioritise academic results over equality and inclusive agendas.
4. "Normal" students do not value inclusive education.
5. Teachers do not value inclusive education.

As noted above, there were some questions relating to the subjective norm that was not responded to by all participants.

Teachers require additional professional development to cater to the needs of students with disabilities (#15).

This could be attributed to the inexperience of special education pre-service teachers in the educational field. Also, some in-service teachers' hesitance to respond, in particular to (#15) could be to "save face" and avoid embarrassment by disclosure of their limited expertise in teaching student with disabilities. In addition, the general education pre-service teachers lacked the knowledge to provide substantial response.

#### *5.2.1 In Policy and Practice the Indian Education System does not Value Either Basic Education or Inclusive Education*

All Sfour cohorts of teachers concurred that the concepts of basic education or inclusive education have little status in the present Indian education system. In contrast to the behavioral belief that education should support the achievement of all individuals, the participants argued that, in present-day India, educational attainment is seen more as a means to an end, the end being employment opportunities. Educational qualifications are seen as the stepping stone into an employment opportunity. In this scenario, high "academic grade scores" are of more significance than values or psychomotor skills development. All school learning is therefore geared towards achieving a high score in the final exam. Commenting on this feature of the present education system, Seshagiri and Chhapiya (2011) reported that the Scientific Advisory Council to the Prime Minister, C.N.R. Rao, candidly reported to the prime minister, we "have an examination system but not an educational system". Although Gandhi's basic education system advocates the unilateral development of mind, and values, through craft development programs, according to participants, "the present school curriculum does not lend itself to the use of Gandhi's educational philosophy since more emphasis is put on text book study" (special education in-service teacher). This sentiment was reiterated: "the emphasis is on text learning (learning from text books) and not much hands-on experiences" (general education in-service teacher).

In line with this reasoning, one participant argued that "educational achievement is measured by how much student knows and not what a student can do so Gandhi's philosophy is not of much importance" (special education pre-service teacher). Another argued that since educational success is measured by the academic grade report card, "The learning content in education is directed more to learning the three Rs—reading, writing and arithmetic". From the participants' point of view, this explains why "In school courses there is more emphasis on studying subject content from the text books and Gandhi's philosophy has little scope for application in the present school curriculum especially in the high school and middle school" (general pre-service teacher). This is summed up by two participants who clearly stated that:

The present school curriculum does not lend itself to the use of Gandhi educational philosophy (and) Gandhi's "philosophy has little scope for application in the present school curriculum" (general education in-service teacher).

The absence of Gandhi's basic education philosophy is best captured in the following two statements:

Although we have studied about Gandhi's educational philosophy I do not think it is part of the curriculum in schools; even our practicum classes did not include basic education (general education pre-service teacher).

Although the curriculum might mention the need for basic education it does not really happen in the real classroom activities education (general education in-service teacher).

### *5.2.2 Parents may not all Value Inclusive Education.*

The Indian Constitution claims India is a secular state. Nonetheless, India is predominantly a Hindu country, with the majority of the population practising the Hindu faith. Hinduism is a religion steeped in rituals, traditions and culture. One of the precepts of Hinduism is the concept of karma, which supports the idea of rebirth or reincarnation into another life form after this life. The future life form is dependent on the good and bad actions committed in this present life. Hence, all disabilities and problems are attributed to one's karma. It is for this reason some traditional Hindus do not look kindly on children with disabilities.

As stated by Alur (2002b), "A negative and pejorative attitude prevails in the sub-continent (which) keep people with disability apart from the rest of society through socially constructed barriers ... an ideological and cultural mind set against disabled people emerging as a major obstruction in accepting them" (p. 11). Putting the Indian scenario on a global plane, Lambe and Bones (2008), Alghazo et al. (2003) and Sharma et al. (2006) claim that inclusive education policy and practice success is to a large measure influenced by the historical and social beliefs upheld within a nation's social framework. In agreement, Agbenyega (2007), Avoke (2002) and Oliver-Commey (2001) confirm that similar conditions hold true for Africa, the United Arab Emirates (Alqaruti, 2003), among the Palestinian community (Gumpel & Awartani, 2003) and Northern Ireland (Lambe & Bones, 2008). It is worth noting here that the data which follows also illustrates this point. Many of the participants use terms such as 'normal' 'special', 'disabled' to refer to different children: a generally pejorative distinction that runs counter to inclusive education principles.

Further, Armstrong, Armstrong and Barton (2000) suggested that a struggle is necessary against the socially acceptable and existing sociocultural ideology that validates the segregation of children with disabilities from mainstream societal involvement and for the effective implementation of the inclusive education program.

This situation is highlighted by the remark “Parents might not encourage their children to play or mix with children with disabilities” (general pre-service teacher).

Further, this negative religious mindset may influence their non-supportive attitude towards inclusive education. Parents of general students may presume that the teacher spends more time with children who are not able to cope with the class requirements and the general child will be denied the required contact time with the teacher: “Parents of regular students may not like the idea and question the teacher of spending more time with the disabled students” (special pre-service teacher).

This sentiment is reflected in other research claims, such as that of Price, Mayfield, McFadden and March (2000,) who are concerned about “the amount of teacher time that these students will require (often to the detriment of the other students in the class)” (pp. 25–26), and Morrison and McInty (as cited in Lifshitz, Glaubman, & Issawi, 2004,) claim that “teachers perceive themselves as agents for passing on society’s values, and believe that pupils with special needs interrupt the advancement of the classroom” (p. 174).

The earlier mentioned special pre-service teachers and general education pre-service teachers’ opinion relating to this question could be linked to the reality that these two groups of teachers are still undergoing training and lack practical classroom teaching experience; they may be foreseeing problems based on their past personal school experiences. Friend and Cook (1992) support this suggestion by claiming that an individual’s negative attitude development stems from past experiences and fears. In addition, Taylor et al. (1997) claimed that previous experiences with students with disabilities affects teachers’ attitudes.

It is true that the special pre-service teachers’ academic course equips them with the skills and knowledge to teach students who have learning difficulties. However, teaching children with difficulties is not included in the current regular Bachelor of Education degree curriculum. The “no response” from the general education in-service teachers group may be because of their hesitance to accept their inadequacies in class management skills, whereas the special education in-service teachers may not encounter any problems since they have the practical expertise to handle these issues. Alternatively, as in the case of the general education in-service teachers, they may be hesitant to accept

encountering any problems because such hesitance will cast a negative shadow on their teaching competencies.

### *5.2.3 Parents and Teachers Prioritise Academic Results Over Inclusive Agendas or Equity Agendas.*

The belief that academic achievement is more important than pursuit of equity is “a reality of life” in India. In the second most populous country in the world, competition is the catchword of the times. It is imperative that an individual’s proficiency level be extremely high even to obtain middle-class financial status. This flows through into beliefs about educational achievement. As one participant said:

Academic grades is the measuring rod for a student’s achievements (general education in-service teacher).

If not a high achiever in academics. You (need to be) super smart in sports or something (or) you cannot go far in life (general education in-service teachers).

It could be safe to assume that academic grades rank high on the priority list compared with inclusive agendas or equity agendas since the population outnumbers job opportunities in India. Secondly, dignity of labour is still not a way of life and social status is of significant importance. Engineers and medical professionals rank high in the social status ladder. It may be for this reason that numerous students attempt to achieve high scores, to gain admission into these professions’ schools. AngloInfo (2000) describe the school curriculum in India as one that has “... a strong focus on academic subjects, with little scope for creativity and few or no extra-curricular activities. Traditional schooling methods tend to emphasise rote learning and memorisation, rather than encouraging independent or creative thinking. There is a strong focus on examinations from an early age”. These statements validate the negative behavioral beliefs shared by the general pre-service teachers on the value of basic education in the current education program discussed above.

This situation is best expressed in the statement of a teacher: “In general, the emphasis in India is on academic achievements; the progress card of a student decides his or her future” (general education in-service teacher).

Once again, however, these beliefs were expressed most strongly by general teachers, while special teachers, general education pre-service teachers and special pre-service teachers, although not having made a verbal comment, when encouraged to respond, were in agreement with the responses of general education in-service teachers. Their responses were expressed with a monosyllable such as “yes” or “right” and “I agree”. At other times some gave a nod of the head in agreement.



The literature suggests that this may be because they (special in-service, general in-service and special pre-service teachers) have a greater idealistic perception of education. For example, the investigation of Jangira and Srinivasan (1999) compared the attitudes of administrators, special educators and general education teachers towards the education of children with disabilities. The results disclosed that special educators had the most positive attitudes about education for all children with disabilities in general schools. Another reason may be that the special education teachers are not pressured for their students to secure high scores as the general teachers are.

A note of interest is that although teachers did not hesitate to express the importance of academic achievement, some did acknowledge that holistic development was also an important consideration in the field of education: “Both are important but definitely academic achievements is what counts in the end” (general education in-service teacher).

#### *5.2.4 Children do not all Value Inclusive Education.*

All four groups of respondents were in agreement that the majority of general school children were unprepared for and not appreciative of inclusion of children with special needs in the general classroom. This non-acceptance might stem from the fact that:

In India disabilities are considered a social taboo; therefore, the child with disabilities will be isolated by his peers because the disabled child is considered a social outcast (special education in-service teacher).

Normal children look down on them and then don't mingle (special education in-service teacher).

The disabled students will feel insecure in the classroom (special education in-service teacher).

Normal children cannot understand the problems of students with disabilities and exclude them from activities (special education teacher).

Talking from the emotional perspective it was presumed that:

The child with disabilities will develop insecurities and low self-esteem (general education pre-service teacher).

It will be very difficult for them seeing normal children and the things a normal child can do ... which they cannot do (general education pre-service teacher).

It may be more of an embarrassment for the child not being able to cope with school requirements (general education in-service teacher).

I cannot see why they should be put in a regular classroom and suffer trying to cope with regular students (general education in-service teacher).

In addition to concerns about their emotional wellbeing, teachers expressed concerns about the impact of inclusion on academic achievement. Teachers supported their reasoning with statements such as:

Best not to mix the disabled students with the normal students since both will suffer, normal students will learn less (special education in-service teacher).

Mixing disabled students with normal students may not be beneficial to either the normal or the disabled students (general education in-service teacher).

I think they (children with disabilities) will learn more in a special environment (general education pre-service teacher).

It is of interest to note that some researchers make alternative claims, for example, Alghazo et al. (2003) argues that students with disabilities are motivated to learn more. Further, their achievement level increases when they are provided with an Individual Education Plan in the general classroom compared with when they are placed in a special classroom.

Although, as cited above, many participants raised objections to children with disabilities being admitted into the general school program, to a very minor extent they agreed that the acceptance for students with disabilities in the general classroom with general students would be beneficial in developing a more democratic society.

Some also linked the inclusion of students with disabilities directly back to the pro-democratic position outlined above: “Admitting disabled students with normal students in a regular school is the democratic way of giving equal opportunity for all to study”; “Maybe the integration of disabled with normal students is good and will create a more realistic learning school environment” (special education in-service teacher); “Admission of children with disabilities might help ‘create social awareness’ for the regular child at a young age” (general education in-service teacher). One special pre-service teacher was of the opinion that inclusion would not be a problem, “If the handicap is not severe”.

An overview of the remarks indicates that most teachers are unaware of the inclusion education practices ostensibly supported by the Government of India (from Salamanca and beyond) and lack knowledge in teaching strategies for a successful inclusive classroom. Another problem could be that the teachers were reflecting their own inhibitions because of their apprehensive social attitude and are not competent enough to encourage change in general students’ attitudes. In India, academic achievement is a highly competitive factor. The general grade point average of the students is the

measuring rod for the teacher's competencies. Teachers might be hesitant to accept students with learning disabilities, since lowered grades will negatively affect the teacher's teaching competencies, leading to lower academic standards (Gary, 1997; Tiegerman-Farber & Radziewicz, 1998).

#### 5.2.5 *Other Teachers do not Value Inclusive Education.*

Literature relating to the power of an individual's beliefs makes it clear that teachers have the power to shape student behavior. It also makes it clear that peers can shape the behavior of other peers. The teacher's function in a classroom is comparable to a captain at the helm on a ship. The teacher steers the learners through a series of learning experiences with the aim to facilitate the learners' acquisition of the prescribed knowledge and skills requirements. Hence, the teachers' positive attitude towards a program is imperative for its success. Alternatively, if the teachers are apprehensive about the program, it is highly doubtful that the program will be successful. Bandura's (1997 & 1986) social learning theory proposes that teachers' positive attitudes are a crucial factor for effective learning. The participants in the program made it clear that, in India, teachers have reservations regarding the inclusive education program. "It is a myth that this is possible—to a limited extent yes but for all India education no", claimed a (special in-service) teacher.

Other explanations for teachers' negative attitudes were, "Most teachers have a negative attitude towards the program because all these programs although they look good on paper and look easy to implement, it is difficult to implement because of lack of time and we get no extra pay for the extra work. ... It is very difficult" (general in-service).

Another speculated that teachers would be opposed to inclusive education as a result of her own beliefs relating to the workload of teachers: "We do not have time for the normal child in a classroom with 40 to 50 children" (general education in-service teacher). The Government of India through the Rashtiya Madhyamik Shiksha Abhiyan (National Mission of Secondary Education, a branch of the Ministry of Human Resource and Development) had recommended the 45:1 student teacher ratio policy. The Government of Karnataka altered the policy by reaffirming on March 2, 2012 the Karnataka Education Act 1983 student to teacher ratio of 70:1 policy. On a noted of interest, Bageshree (2012) in *The Hindu* newspaper article stated that for Karnataka Government aided school and model day schools the ratio was 40:1 and 50:1 in residential schools. From these statements it can be conclude that there is much flexibility in the student teacher ratio policy a school might adopt in Karnataka. Within this potentially

oversized student population teachers are not provided with the support required to implement the program. They therefore show negativity towards the program, considering it to be an extra workload to their already overburdened work schedule. Researchers such as Stoler (1992) and Evans, Townsend, Duchonowski and Hocutt (1996) suggest that aside from the identification of the barriers and challenges that teachers face while implementing the inclusive education policy into practice, attention must be directed towards developing alternative measures to negate such challenges.

Nonetheless, marginal concern was expressed, such as “Do feel sorry for disabled students” and “Might have a positive attitude towards helping them (however) it is impossible we are already overworked” (general education in-service teacher).

Interestingly, both groups of pre-service teachers were hesitant and did not comment on the beliefs of teachers. This might be attributed to their lack of practical teaching experience and the fact that the question was related primarily to the beliefs of current teachers rather than current pre-service teachers.

In summary, therefore, participants identified five subjective norms that affected their own beliefs on the education context within the Indian curriculum, through the eyes of parents, teachers, general students and the students with disabilities.

### 5.3 Perceived Behavior Controls

Perceived behavioral controls relate to the extent to which people believe themselves to be capable of implementing behavior. They are a mixture of a sense of confidence or competence (or self-efficacy) and an analysis of what is possible in a particular environment.

A sense of competence and confidence directly influences how people act. It is therefore important to identify participants’ perceived behavior control beliefs about inclusive education. Questions relating to the perceived behaviour control beliefs were posed to the four groups of participants. An interesting observation within the four groups of this area was that with the exception of one respondent the general pre-service teacher group remained silent on these issues. In addition, none of the special pre-service teachers made much attempt to offer any response. This situation illustrates the Indian cultural trait of remaining silent as the better option than to express one’s inadequacies as a face-saving technique. Nonetheless, the majority of the participants were in agreement that teachers need skills training for effective inclusive education implementation.

There were four themes within this area.

### *5.3.1 Teachers do not Possess Enough Knowledge.*

It is widely argued that inadequate knowledge can lead to teachers having “low self-efficacy”, which translates into ineffective inclusive education teaching procedure. In agreement, the research of Westwood (1993) claims that lack of sufficient knowledge accounts for teachers’ negative attitude towards inclusive education. Barton (1996) and Minke et al. (1996) suggest that lack of knowledge dampens effective inclusive education implementation. Again, Giangreco et al. (1993) and Hasting and Oakford (2003) argue that inadequate knowledge leads to low self-efficacy, resulting in teachers developing negative attitudes towards students with disabilities, while Taylor, Richards, Goldstein and Schilit (1997), Soho, Katims and Wilks (1997) and Sack (1998) claim there is a direct co-relation between teacher knowledge (experience) and inclusive education implementation. In addition, Taylor et al. (1997), Shoho et al. (1997) and Sack (1998) claim that there is a direct co-relation between teachers’ knowledge (experience) and inclusive education implementation.

The Bachelor of Education curriculum contains one course: a general overview on disabilities (Sharma, 2004, p. vi). Pre-service teachers and the new in-service teachers therefore lack theoretical knowledge on inclusive education and types of disabilities, including sufficient practicum to comprehend the working design of the inclusive education program. Burke and Suterland (2004) suggest a complete understanding of the inclusive education aims, policy and practices, and types of disabilities, among other factors, is essential for promoting positive attitude development. Mastropieri and Struggs (2004) claim that increased knowledge in teacher training programs will promote the development of positive attitudes towards inclusive education. Stakes and Hornby (1998) and Most (2004) argue that including current information on inclusive education and disability types in teacher training courses and in-service programs will increase the level of positivity. Teachers will realise the reasons why and acquire the know-how to implement the program, and this will increase the teachers’ self-efficacy to effectively implement the inclusive education program. Skipper’s (1996) and Shoho and colleagues’ (1997) research concluded that pre-service teachers after an inclusive education course hold a positive attitude compared with peers not having attended the course. Based on this assumption, Mungai and Thornburg (2002) suggest that the teachers’ training curriculum be restructured to provide the required theoretical and working knowledge on the inclusive education program, coupled with a comprehensive understanding on disability types, to develop positive attitudinal changes towards inclusive education.

The lack of knowledge on the principles and aims of inclusive education was apparent from the responses of all the focus group participants, regardless of their area of employment, experience or educational qualifications.

All participants struggled to respond to defining inclusive education. The responses elicited showed only a partial understanding of the term, as exemplified in responses such as:

Sorry, I do not know too much about this (general education in-service teacher).

We have integration not inclusion. Do they both mean the same thing (special education in-service teacher)?

Inclusion means having both normal and disabled children in the same classroom (special education in-service teacher).

Further responses include:

I have heard about inclusion. Is it the same as having co-education—I mean boys and girls in the same classroom (general education in-service teachers)?

What is inclusive education (general education in-service teachers)?

It is very difficult (general education in-service teachers).

Not to discriminate between disabled and normal children in a classroom but this is very difficult, special children (general education in-service teachers).

Additionally, pre-service teachers did not respond to this question at all, which raises serious questions about their knowledge on inclusive education.

The lack of knowledge was further demonstrated by the very limited range of teaching strategies that teachers suggested for teaching basic education in the classroom. One suggestion offered was “craft education like needle work and weaving in middle school educational programs” (general education pre-service teachers). This suggestion was expanded to include “Giving disabled students hands-on projects like paper stamping and tree planting are some ways in which Gandhi’s basic education philosophy is put into practice” (special education in-service teachers).

From these responses it can be suggested that teachers lack the required knowledge to effectively implement inclusive education since they lack a comprehensive understanding of the concept of inclusive education.

Numerous prior studies and supporters of the inclusive education program have stressed the need for teachers to have a working comprehension of the definition, scope, principles, aims and strategies of inclusive education if this education program is to be effectively implemented by them in the general classrooms.

### *5.3.2 Teachers do not Possess Enough Skill.*

Bandura's theory of self-efficacy explains perceived behavioral controls as "beliefs in one's capabilities to organize and execute the courses of action required to produce given attainments" (Bandura, 1997, p. 3). Reflecting on Bandura's theory of self-efficacy, it can be deduced that a lack of self-confidence in the ability to perform a task causes hesitance in task performance. This assumption has been echoed by prior studies, such as those of Sack (1998), Alghazo et al. (2003), Bondurant (2004) and Burke and Sutherland (2004), who claim that experience (skills gained from task performance) is directly correlated to the teacher's positive attitude towards inclusive education.

The teachers recognised that they lacked sufficient skills to construct effective learning opportunities for the learners. This limitation was expressed by special education in-service teachers thus: "Most teachers are not ready for special children (inclusion)", "She had to do double teaching" and "General teachers lack the knowledge on teaching techniques and methodologies for teaching children with disabilities". This perception has been supported by Pennell and Firestone (1996), Taylor et al. (1997) and Shade and Stewart (2001), who claim that limited practicum experience in the teacher training curriculum accounts for pre-service teachers struggling to effectively implement the inclusive education program and therefore contributes to the teacher developing a high negative attitude towards inclusive education.

Further, the teachers voiced their lack of classroom management skills with a heterogeneous student population, which included students with special needs, in responses such as "Don't know how to handle big classes with one child with a disability" and "Who do you concentrate on?" (general education in-service teacher). Only one general education pre-service teacher expressed her opinion: "No, I don't think that the teachers are equipped to handle children who are disabled because we do not know too much about disabilities". Tait and Purdie (2000) suggest increased practicum through workshops and seminars will raise self-efficacy to generate a more positive attitude towards task performance.

### *5.3.3 Teachers do not Have Enough Resource Material.*

The respondents showed discomfort and refrained from voicing their opinion on this issue. Although I tried to extract an answer from the two groups of in-service teachers, they refrained from answering. I did not want to pressure them and only asked the question twice. I later learned from another experienced teacher not included in the study that "teachers are hesitant to speak badly about their institutions". In India it is a cultural formality to refrain from being negative by keeping silent. Nonetheless, Kruger,

Struzziero and Vacca's (1995) research claims teachers consider availability of resources essential for a positive attitude towards (integration) inclusion. Chadha (2000) and Tulli (2002) identify the scarcity of proper learning materials and resources as reasons for teachers' negative attitudes towards inclusive education.

However, the researcher cannot verify that the silence and no response relate to a lack of resources. The special pre-service teachers explained their silence as being unemployed and thus "not being aware of the resources available in the classroom".

#### *5.3.4 The National Curriculum/Context does not Allow for Inclusive Education.*

The present school curriculum is structured to provide learners with highly academic data and with more appeal to cognitive development. Development of psychomotor skills and the affective domain are given a lower priority of importance in the curriculum. This notion is expressed in statements such as "The present school curriculum does not lend itself to the use of Gandhi educational philosophy. More emphasis is put on text book study" and "In the regular school educational program his philosophy is barely visible" (special education in-service teacher).

As well as this, academic progress and assessment are geared towards achievement of high academic scores in the public examination administered in Grade 12. Teachers' attention is therefore focused from the grassroots level of first grade to equip the learner with the ability to succeed in written and formal communication. As expressed by a special pre-service teacher, "Educational achievement is measured by how much a student knows and not what a student can do so Gandhi's philosophy is not of much importance". It is interesting to note here that among the teachers there was strong alignment with the notion of disability and intellectual or learning disabilities. There seemed to be little acknowledgement that students with disabilities could be capable of performing academically well.

In this academic climate there is an imbalance between psychomotor and affective domains development and cognitive domain development. It is important to reiterate that basic education is geared towards providing learning opportunities in all three spheres of the learner's personality. This, of course, includes academic and cognitive development for students with disabilities.

The current education curriculum's imbalance favouring the cognitive domain over the psychomotor and affective domains of development is echoed in remarks such as "Gandhi educational philosophy is like a mere shadow and the body of education is textual in nature" (general education in-service teacher).



### *5.3.5 Teachers and Schools are not Supported Enough by other Complementary/External Systems.*

All groups of teachers were in agreement that the Government of India and the allied government agencies assigned to address the problems that confront the inclusive education implementation issues have not shown sufficient support of or interest in this area of national education. This thinking was earlier echoed by Alur (1998). Despite India's signature on the Salamanca Statement, the lack of political will is quite obvious in the 11<sup>th</sup> National Five Year Plan's national budget for inclusive education promotion. This plan is also known as the Educational Plan. The budget allocation for education was directed to women's education with a negligible amount allotted towards inclusive education. As pointed out, "The Government doesn't do enough for the regular children. Can they do anything for special children?" (general education in-service teacher). Interestingly, however, the Government of India was credited by one pre-service teacher with doing the maximum they can to improve overall awareness, "By programs on the television there's a lot of awareness" (general education pre-service teacher). However, the other participants in this group were not in denial that the Government of India's efforts "stop at awareness". Additionally, this group of teachers claim, "The Government of India endeavours are inadequate since, ... most of the special educational centres are run by non-government organizations ... we have a problem in India which is population".

## 5.4 Conclusion

In conclusion, analysis of the qualitative data showed that regardless of their current employment, or status as pre-service or in-service teachers, participants agree regarding most behavioral beliefs, normative beliefs and perceived behavior control all of which influence their attitudes.

There were some occasions when some groups declined to answer, and others when other participants did not appear confident to answer. This was particularly clear regarding the themes on the lack of parent involvement (social norms 2) and that teacher resources (perceived behavior control 3) hinder the growth of inclusive education.

Nevertheless, both the themes that emerged and the spaces where participants were not able to comment provide excellent insights into the beliefs of teachers in India.

In the next and final chapter, I will discuss the implications of the qualitative and quantitative findings for the Indian context, and the implementation of inclusive education (and the goals of the Salamanca Statement) in the Karnataka context.

## **Chapter 6: Discussion, Recommendations & Limitations**

### **Introduction**

The purpose of this study was to examine teachers' attitudes towards the inclusive education program in India and to provide insights into the various factors that may influence teachers' attitudes towards inclusive education. Attitudes were identified by drawing upon the work of Ajzen (1991) to first identify three domains of teachers' beliefs which, in this theoretical framework, are the foundation of attitudes and which lead, in turn, to actions. This chapter contains a summary and concluding discussion of the research findings of this study. In this final chapter the key points are reiterated and discussed vis-à-vis implications for research and practice. Also included are key recommendations arising from the study and an acknowledgement of limitations that may have had a bearing on the findings.

### **Part 1: Brief Summary of Findings**

Here I provide a brief summary of key insights harvested from the data gathered through the teacher respondents' verbal and written responses about their attitudes towards inclusive education.

#### **6.1 The Demographic Profile Factors' Influence**

Analysis of the demographic factors findings revealed that of four key variables—namely, gender, level of academic qualification, age and experience—only the latter two (age and experience) had a significant impact on the participating teachers' attitudes. This could be attributed to the fact that those who are older (33–63 years) have had more hands-on teaching experience and knowledge, which could, perhaps surprisingly, contribute to their more positive attitude compared with their younger (21–23 years), less experienced counterparts. This argument also helps explain why experienced general education in-service teachers had more positive attitudes, although they did identify external influences as a problematic issue. However, in-service special teachers' expertise and awareness of the pragmatic concerns regarding the school's environment reduced their positive attitude to below the level of that of the general teachers.

#### **6.2 Discussion of Attitudes Based on the Belief System as Proposed by Ajzen's Theory of Planned Behavior**

Drawing on on Ajzen's Theory of Planned Behavior (1991) the teachers' attitudes towards the inclusive education program can be summarised using a lens that focuses on

their behavioral beliefs, subjective norms and perceived controlled beliefs. To reiterate Ajzen's Theory of Planned Behavior claims, beliefs (based on knowledge, experience and social norm factors) influence intention, which directly affect attitude formation and are reflected in negative or positive behavioral patterns or educational actions. A discussion on the thematically mapped responses from the written questionnaire and verbal interview was based on the knowledge, experience and social norm factors highlights each teachers' belief and attitudes towards the inclusive education program.

#### *6.2.1 Behavioral Beliefs and Attitudes*

Inquiry into the behavioral (value) belief of education for all was derived from responses to questions regarding India's home-grown basic education system. This behavioral belief revealed a negative attitude held by the general education pre-service teachers towards the importance of the craft-based basic education system. This reflects the belief that academic achievement is the priority of the current education system. The other three cohorts (general education teachers, special education teachers and pre-service special teachers) were in moderate agreement that the basic education curriculum still holds some social worth. They claimed that the basic education aims to promote self-reliance and social equality are still relevant to India's socially fragmented society.

While there was mild agreement that basic education was still relevant, all four cohorts strongly agreed that education for all is a desirable education goal that directly benefits every citizen, promotes social equality and justice, and is the "democratic way in which everyone has equal rights and opportunities" (special education in-service teacher). The high mean of 4.27 on the questionnaire item (#6), Students should be treated equally, regardless of their limitations, emphasised the respondents' strong beliefs about the value of education for all.

In summary, the project produced valuable knowledge on Indian teachers' beliefs about the purpose of education. Although the quantitative data (questionnaire) did not reveal social norms/subjective beliefs (social norms) and perceived behavior control (perceived behavior control) beliefs as statistically distinct subscales, the qualitative data (verbal interview) allowed for some distinction of these ideas.

#### *6.2.2 Subjective Norms Beliefs and Attitudes*

Consideration of subjective norms identified significant areas for analysis and future action. Teachers in India may believe they are expected to behave in accordance with the traditional discriminatory social norms (including the Hindu religious belief of karma) in ways that work against the education of persons with disabilities. The collective

responses from the verbal interview and questionnaire identified five common negative subjective beliefs, and these are listed and briefly described below.

First, *on the value of holistic education*, all four cohorts agreed that the current textbook-based, examination-oriented education system leaves little scope for student oriented education. When students' "good marks on the examination" (general education in-service teacher) are the only measure of a good education, the social pressure to concentrate on academic achievement adversely affects teachers' attitudes towards the inclusion of students with disabilities in the general classroom.

Second, the discouraging subjective norm belief *parents may not all value inclusive education* was voiced by general education in-service teachers, and was agreed with by the other three cohorts. In a competitive society, steeped in traditional religious beliefs, parents of general students "may not like the idea and question the teacher for spending more time with the disabled students" (special education pre-service teacher). The moderately high mean score of 3.12 on the questionnaire for item (#10), *Parents of regular students appear to be concerned regarding the seating of children with disabilities in the regular classroom*, confirms this belief.

Third, responses to the statement that *Parents and teachers place academic achievement on a higher standard compared to the inclusive education's social equity education priority* revealed several powerful barriers to inclusive education in India. The idea that "normal students will suffer" (general education in-service teacher) if inclusion becomes the norm was a strong view among the general teachers. This was influenced by the pressure placed on them to produce high academic grades. This situation has triggered India's chronic employment opportunity scarcity. The Global Employment Trends 2014 report indicated that unemployment rates in India have shown an upward trend from 3.5% in 2011 to 3.6% in 2012, 3.7 % in 2013 and a predicted rise to 3.8% in 2014 (PTI, 2014).

As explained by Kaur (2013), for the majority of the 1.2 billion people in India the only vehicle for economic mobility is to achieve high academic grades, which is essential for employment opportunities. This sentiment was reiterated by a general education in-service teacher: "unless you are outstandingly super in, say, sports you cannot go far without getting good academic grades". All the participants expressed agreement with this opinion in the interviews with a simple "yes" or a nod in agreement.

Fourth, the belief that *normal students show non-appreciation for the inclusive education system* was a common subjective norm expressed by all the participants. Related to the previous point, the demand for the achievement of high academic grades seems to influence the teachers to argue that general students "feel teacher is spending

too much time with the students with disabilities” (special pre-service teacher). Additionally, the influence of significant adults could contribute to the general student non-acceptance of their students with disabilities, who feel “rejection from peers” (special education in-service teacher). This belief was endorsed by the mean rating of 2.60 to the questionnaire statement (#9), Regular students generally do not accept students with disabilities.

Finally, a strong subjective norm belief of the in-service teachers was *Other teachers do not value the inclusive education program*. In agreement with this, special education in-service teachers believed that “most teachers aren’t ready for special children (Inclusion)”. Lack of experience may have caused the pre-service teachers to remain silent. Nonetheless, the mean average score 3.04 on item 2 in the questionnaire, *Students with disabilities should attend special school/class, and not in the regular school*, is indicative that teachers in general hold reservations on the inclusive education program’s value. This widespread culture of disinterest or non-commitment is clearly a barrier to the implementation of inclusive education, as it shapes not only what current teachers may choose to do, but also the extent to which beginning teachers feel able to pursue inclusive education goals they may have developed or studied during their education.

### 6.2.3 Perceived Behavioral Controls: Individual’s Self-Efficacy Belief to Perform a Task

An analysis of responses relating to the perceived behavior control beliefs and the resultant attitudes highlighted the following five negative perceived behavior control beliefs towards the inclusive education program. Before outlining these here, it is important to note again that the hesitance from pre-service teacher groups to respond might have been influenced by an Indian cultural norm to remain silent rather than express one’s inadequacies.

First, the responses to the item *Teachers do not possess enough knowledge* indicated that all the participants struggled to define or explain the concept of inclusive education. For example, a general education in-service teacher asked, “Does integration and inclusion mean the same?” and this reflected their limited knowledge on the inclusive education program. The mean score of 3.16 on the questionnaire items on knowledge, such as the need for revision in the Bachelor of Education curriculum, (#21) and (#20), reconfirms the teachers’ lack of knowledge and skills required to teach students with disabilities.

Second, the lack of teaching skills and classroom management skills essential to *teach a heterogeneous student population* was strongly voiced by the special education in-service teachers, and was well supported by other participants. The high mean score of 4.3 for the questionnaire item (#15) validated this perceived behavior control belief and therefore made it clear that teachers require additional professional development.

Third, *the school curriculum's heavy emphasis on academic achievement compared to psychomotor and affective development* leaves little scope for inclusive education implementation. As mentioned earlier, in an overpopulated country, competition is severe in the tight employment market. In this scenario, a high grade point average is an imperative for admission into university to further the possibility of gaining a future employment opportunity. This is a prime reason why schools have an academic-centred curriculum in India. These beliefs are supported with the reasoning of the subjective belief that *the inclusive education and basic education system's policy and practices is not of value in the current Indian education system* (Chapter 5, Perceived Behavioral Controls Belief 4.).

Fourth, *the lack of sufficient complementary/external systems support* was a perceived behavior control belief expressed by a majority of the respondents. Highlighted concerns included limited Government of India involvement and marginal financial assistance to implement the program. For example, Singal (2005) supports Tulli's (2002), Jha's (2002) and Chadha's (2000) claims that lack of social awareness towards students with disabilities, the scarcity of trained teachers, lack of proper learning materials, dearth of sufficient financial, technical and human resources, disinterest of community involvement and lack of parental involvement and encouragement are the "roadblocks" within the education system responsible for the teachers' low perceived behavior control. These researchers' claims are interesting given teachers' responses to the mean score of 4.22 for the questionnaire test item (#27) "Parental involvement in the educational process of a child with disabilities is a vital factor for the child's educational progress"

Fifth and finally, the perceived behavior control belief about *lacking sufficient instructional materials* was sidestepped by the respondents. In my opinion, this was influenced by the Indian subjective norm that discourages voicing detrimental opinions on employment institutions or authorities. Nonetheless, emphasis on this perceived behavior control was reflected by the 3.59 mean score to the questionnaire item (#17).

#### 6.2.4 *Analysis of Beliefs and Attitudes and the Emergence of a Tri-factor Model*

The preceding analysis of the relevant beliefs shows some incongruence between some of the teachers' beliefs and attitudes and the actual implementation of the inclusive education program. The most noteworthy issue is that although the teachers shared the behavioral belief of "equality for all", they were reluctant to implement the inclusive education program because of their low perceived behavior control beliefs. Their inadequate perceived behavior control beliefs stem from limited knowledge, inexperience and insufficient societal support based on the inadequacies of funding, instructional material, knowledge, opportunities for hands-on experience and recognition for their extra efforts. In the next section, recommendations drawn from the data analysis summarised above and the review of relevant documents are outlined. These relate to the importance of experience, knowledge and beliefs: the key features of the tri-factor model advocated by this research in shaping recommendations.

### **Part 2: Recommendations**

Recommendations were both explicitly voiced and implied by the respondents. These highlighted the need for attention in the areas outlined below.

#### 6.3 Teacher Education

##### 6.3.1 *Pre-Service Teachers*

The out-dated Bachelor of Education curriculum (Kumar, 2004) in Karnataka State must be revised to include substantial and updated knowledge on the inclusive education program for teachers to develop a comprehensive understanding of *why*, *what* and *how* to teach in inclusive ways, prior to the actual teaching practice and the ability to disrupt the subjective norms and perceived behavior control beliefs reported above. The comment "If I have a disabled child in the class it is just going to cause a problem for me" (pre-service teacher) reflects the urgency for changes in the Bachelor of Education. program syllabus.

A review of the Karnataka State Bachelor of Education program conducted by the researcher in parallel with this research highlighted the urgency to redesign the curriculum to explicitly include: theoretical knowledge on the definition, principles and scope; aims of the inclusive education program; information on the Government of India's education policies; the types, characteristics and diverse learning abilities of students with disabilities; new classroom management techniques (such as peer-helping); innovative methodologies and strategies (scaffolding); and including students with

disabilities in the practicum class student population. These provisions for increasing knowledge and experience, as claimed by Ajzen (1991), would strengthen the perceived behavior control and foster a positive attitude among pre-service teachers (the future implementers) towards the inclusive education program.

#### *6.3.2 Parental Involvement*

The high mean score of 4.22 for the questionnaire item (#27), parental involvement as a prerequisite for the education of students with disabilities, and the mean score of 3.12 on the questionnaire item (#10), Parents of regular students are concerned regarding placement of students with disabilities in regular classroom, indicating a clear need for parental involvement to further promote the inclusive education program. Parents could be invited to become involved in the school's policy operations procedures (board of school directors) and volunteer services to conduct co-curricular activities (sports, excursion trips) to help ease the teachers' workload and provide the teachers with the extra time required to prepare learning activities. Being an Indian student who has studied abroad, I have witnessed the positive influence of parent volunteers for both students and teachers. Although this is not yet a common practice in schools in India, it is a feasible practical recommendation.

#### *6.3.3 In-Service Teachers*

There is an immediate need to develop in-service teacher training programs in order to reshape subjective norms and perceived behavior control was highlighted by statements such as "I do not know how to teach students with disabilities ... I was trained to teach only regular students". The in-service teachers harbour low levels of perceived behavior control, since the traditional teacher training education in India was designed for general student education. Ajzen's framework suggests that if teachers have new knowledge and positive experience their behaviors may change. It would be valuable, therefore, for in-service teachers to be encouraged to attend short-term academic courses, online in-service programs and seminars to gain knowledge on the new policies, innovations, teaching techniques and strategies required to teach students with disabilities alongside general students. In addition, interactive in-service programs (webinars) could provide a platform for teachers, paraprofessionals and experts to share gained experiences and insights on problematic issues relating to teaching differently abled students. Schools are also advised to purchase education journals to provide the teachers with the most current information on the inclusive education program. These recommendations will help increase the in-service teachers' knowledge for development of stronger perceived



behavior control beliefs and more positive attitudes towards the inclusive education program.

#### 6.4 Policy Makers' Intervention

The findings of this study indicate that, in principle, teachers hold a positive attitude towards the Government of India's policy to provide education for all. Nonetheless, the lack of deliberate efforts to promote the inclusive education program by the Government of India has resulted in a gap between policy making and policy implementation. A general in-service teacher summed this up by stating, "If the government want us to have a positive attitude and introduce the program they should do things to develop that attitude in us". Some steps towards this direction are outlined below.

##### 6.4.1 *Promote Teacher Education*

The Government of India should stipulate mandatory attendance at free in-service workshops on the inclusive education program for in-service teachers. To this end, the Government of India should issue directives to state governments to organise state-wide seminars and conferences in the regional language. In addition, the publication of literature in journals and circulars outlining newly researched information on teaching strategies and innovative techniques for free nationwide distribution would help disseminate practical ideas about inclusive education. Of course, this could be expedited if the government provided free internet access for all teachers nationwide, as this would facilitate teachers' connectivity to the updated global pool of information on the inclusive education program.

Since the Government of India's Ministry of Education office holds responsibility to determine the curriculum for all education courses nationwide, the Government of India should make it immediately mandatory that all the states revise the Bachelor of Education curriculum to include the inclusive education principles, aims and practices; disability types; and teaching strategies to train the pre-service teachers for effective implementation of the inclusive education program. This point specifically refers to what the Government of India should do since each state has its own version of the Bachelor of Education program.

##### 6.4.2 *Funding*

The review of the Government of India's national five year plans (Planning Commission, 2012) shows the Government of India's low prioritisation of students with disabilities' education since the first national five year plan (Planning Commission, 2012). This situation has continued through to the current 12<sup>th</sup> Five Year Plan. The low

financial budget allocation needs to be immediately increased to provide funds for the improvement of schools' physical infrastructure (e.g., ramps, modified toilets), regular supply of alternative instructional material (e.g., Braille books), publication expenditure for inclusive education information, remuneration for specialists conducting seminars, stipends for teachers attending in-service programs, and, scholarships and grants for teacher education and increased future research on the inclusive education program. The mean score of 3.34 on the questionnaire item (#13), lack of incentives, validates this recommendation so as to reduce the distance towards the Government of India's goal of education for all.

#### *6.4.3 Social Awareness*

Teachers' attitudes towards students with disabilities are negatively influenced by unfavourable social pressure due to traditional social beliefs: "disability is not viewed in India as a normal thing. Problems in your present birth are because you have done something wrong in your previous birth" (general education in-service teacher). Through mass media platforms such as television and radio broadcasts, the Government of India, non-government organizations and social agencies can reverse these discriminatory beliefs by promoting nationwide public education on principles of social equality, which is the ethos of the inclusive education program.

I personally recommend that the Government of India introduce the "quota system" (statutory provision) with specific mention of a mandatory percentage of reserved seats for students with disabilities in all schools nationwide. This quota system is in tune with Article 15(4), which authorises the Government of India to make special provision for socially and educationally backward classes of society. The new quota policy will serve as a remedial measure to ensure social equality for all. Simultaneously, the policy will create public awareness that students with disabilities are a part of mainstream society. The Constitution of India clearly states, "The State shall not discriminate against any citizen on grounds only of religion, race, caste, sex, place of birth or any of them" (Article 15, 1), and further emphasises that the State has the liberty and the power to make "special provisions for the advancement of any socially and educationally backward classes of citizens or for the Scheduled Castes and the Scheduled Tribes)" (Article 15, 4). It gives special emphasis to bringing equality in education.

The Government of India, Ministry of Education should standardise and clarify terminology specifically to the inclusive education program. For example, disability as used in the Indian context needs to indicate which marginalised sections of society are

included in this grouping. Disabilities types such as spina bifida, Asperger's syndrome, attention deficit hyperactive disorder, speech and language disorders need to be introduced in the disability classification listing. These revisions will help more students with disabilities to access financial aid and the social benefits provided for them.

Another feasible recommendation is for curriculum designers to include the values on social equality and respect in the expected learning competencies requirement at all grade levels. This social awareness may prompt the general students' acceptance of students with disabilities in the classroom and ease negative social pressure on the teachers' attitudes towards students with disabilities in the classroom.

#### 6.4.4 *Teacher Empowerment*

The recommendation to give teachers a sense of empowerment and responsibility aims to act as an impetus to increase the perceived behavior control beliefs for positive attitude formation related to inclusive education. In India, teachers are excluded from any involvement in the policy making process, and this may be why some teachers are resistant to implementing new policies, as was indicated by one of the general education teachers: "these are all very big ideas with no proper plan ...". Developing partnerships by including teacher representatives in the policy making process will give teachers a sense of ownership and the "motivational push" to effectively implement the inclusive education policy. Teachers' representatives should be included in the policy design, monitoring, research and evaluation processes of the educational program. Furthermore, tapping into their expertise could also provide the advantage of increased teacher involvement and engagement. In addition, teacher representatives should be included in delegation panels (instead of only political administrative personnel) attending interstate and international inclusive education seminars and conferences. The increased sense of involvement and responsibility could encourage effective implementation of the program.

Teachers' involvement can also be extended to the nationwide inclusive education program evaluation process. Teacher input on questionnaires that measure the level of achievement and areas requiring revisions or reinforcement will provide a source of valuable and practice-informed information for further Government of India development and interventions. Empowering teachers through active involvement in the program will help reduce *reluctance to accept students with disabilities in the regular classroom* (# 28; mean score 3.24).

## 6.4 External Support

### 6.4.1 Administrative Support

Advocacy for increased administrative support was not explicitly expressed in the verbal interview because of the Indian social norm requiring loyalty to the organisation. Nonetheless, the mean score of 3.62 on the questionnaire item (#12), Lack of administrative support, supports this recommendation.

Since subjective norm beliefs strongly influence teachers' attitudes, the lack of administrative support can adversely influence teachers' attitudes towards the inclusive education program. School administrators need to provide teachers with the academic and moral support essential for effective inclusive education implementation. Encouraging teachers to attend in-service interactive programs and seminars at regular periodical intervals can provide the teachers with the knowledge and skills essential for effective inclusive education implementation. Appointment of paraprofessionals and specialists would also be a positive approach to providing teachers with the required external support, since this issue was identified as an area of concern by the mean score of 3.75 on the questionnaire item (#14), inadequate paraprofessional staff help. In addition, rewarding teachers' efforts with tokens of appreciation would be appropriate in the Indian context.

Encouragement for the newly appointed teachers to pursue further education and in-service teachers to attend seminars in the capacity of participants or facilitators, and not just as a matter of professional obligation, are positive measures administrators can adopt to help teachers develop more positive attitudes towards inclusive education. Providing teachers with the necessary instructional materials such as computers, internet facilities and updated information on the inclusive education program, will all help create and reinforce teachers' positive attitudes.

Taken together, these findings indicate the value of a tri-factor approach to renewing inclusive education in India: focus on knowledge and experience (through in-service and pre-service education) to change beliefs, develop positive attitudes and instil a sense of control and purpose, and thus create education that is genuinely inclusive.

There is, however, also a clear need for further research.

## 6.5 Urgency for Future Research

The inclusive education program is the current education system advocated by the Government of India. However, researchers (Alur, 1998; Parasuram, 2002; Singal, 2005; Sharma & Deppeler, 2005) have shown that this system is yet to be effectively

implemented nationwide. Diagnostic research on the macro and micro level needs to be conducted to identify the obvious and invisible issues that have obstructed the effective implementation of the program. Periodic research focusing on the procedural implementation of the policy will help identify effective measures that can be further reinforced. Likewise, timely and alternative measures can be introduced to address the prevailing problems that inhibit the inclusive education program's progress. The Government of India needs to support further large-scale studies by providing grants to institutions and education stakeholders (teachers, administrators, parents and students) to participate in nationwide periodical evaluations to monitor the progress of the program. At this time, there are fewer than a dozen published inclusive education program studies in India conducted by Indian researchers. These micro scale studies will help identify specific and sensitive issues. Paucity of funds and time constraints are detriments for this scholarly exercise. This situation can be altered with an increase of Government of India's financial aid and public support. But most of all, like all researchers, I sincerely hope that this study will, even to a limited extent, help promote social justice for students with disabilities in India.

In the next section, a discussion of the limitations of this study will be outlined.

### **Section 3: Limitations of the Project**

In this study, every effort was made to avoid any shortcomings that might affect the results, but nonetheless, there were limitations and these are now outlined so the readers can take these into account as they appraise this thesis, and to provide future researchers with details that may help subsequent studies. The issues and shortcomings, such as the restrictive research design scope and limited research population and study site, are explained below.

#### **6.6 Research Design**

A written questionnaire was the main research instrument in this study. This questionnaire was based upon other previously validated surveys. However, the reliability of the respondents' level of agreement on items is a problematic issue, particularly in the Indian context, as respondents might select a response in tune with the socially desired expectation (Dawes, 1980). To reduce this limitation, items were worded both negatively and positively to promote thoughtful consideration, and the questionnaire was accompanied by opportunities for verbal feedback and comments.

Another design issue was that the scope of the investigation was limited to the variables included in the previously validated questionnaire. While an instrument cannot cover everything, perhaps a notable omission was failure to include variables on personal proximity to persons with disabilities (child or sibling). This could be a factor in future research, but determining whether proximity to persons with disabilities affects the teachers' attitudes may further provide further insights for increased Bachelor of Education.

This study was conducted in the English language, which is the medium of instruction in Indian colleges. However, language fluency limitations may have hindered more detailed discussion in the focus group. Time constraints and financial limitations also restricted the possibility of translating the text into Kannada (the local language). This was an unavoidable limitation in this study.

Another possible oversight was the failure to inquire into the attitudes of teachers towards students with other disadvantages (economic and linguistic). India is a multilingual country. Each state has its own unique language. In situations of internal migration (employment transfers of Government of India and armed forces employees), students from other states will be disadvantaged in public schools where the medium of instruction is administered in the local state language. Sadly, in India (in spite of legislation), the limited education facilities for students from the low castes and rural communities restricts their upward economic mobility. Domestic financial instability that prevents access to the basic essentials of education (uniforms, books and transport) may be a counterproductive feature that negatively affects a student's performance. In an education system where academic grades are highly prioritised, teachers may be insensitive to these social issues in their anxiety to ensure and maintain the class's high or expected grade point average.

## 6.7 Sample Population

The limited population sample size considerably limited the possibilities for generalisations to be drawn from the findings. In realisation of this limitation, every effort was made to increase the sample size by contacting more schools and colleges in Bangalore; however, these efforts proved fruitless and the constraints of the Doctor Education program meant that the data collection had to be confined to the period reported on in this thesis. Further, all the participants who responded to the written questionnaire did not participate in the verbal interviews (although they were open to all). The limited time allocated by the concerned institutions for conducting this study restricted the

inclusion of all the participants. In addition, some opted not to attend since, as one respondent said, “What’s the use? All this is a waste of time. Nothing really changes”. Nonetheless, all who participated did show keen interest. The verbal interview results, therefore, cannot be taken as the universal views of all the respondents’ attitudes towards the inclusive education program.

In hindsight, the inclusion of other education stakeholders such as school administrators, specialists, general students, students with disabilities, parents and involved non-government organization authorities in the written questionnaire and their involvement in the verbal interview could have provided a wider dimension to the findings. This provides an important avenue for future research.

## 6.8 Site of Study

The site of the study was limited to the Bangalore area, in Karnataka, India. The key consideration in the selection of this site was my familiarity with Bangalore, which is the fastest growing mega-city in India, with a cosmopolitan population. While the study did not include other cities such as Delhi, Mumbai and Calcutta located in other states, the limited geographical location was an unavoidable limitation. Since state governments adopt different approaches to administering Government of India policies, the inclusion of diverse locations could have provided data for a more comprehensive analysis of commonalities and different situational influences that affect teachers’ attitudes. This collective information would have provided more practical measures for adaptation nationwide to develop more positive teachers’ attitudes towards the inclusive education program. Additionally, conducting the study in rural areas within Karnataka State could have provided data for an analysis between rural and urban teachers’ attitudes. Nevertheless, the findings are meaningful within the geographical parameters of the study.

## 6.9 Time and Financial Constraints

The financial costs of this study were met by the researcher. Therefore, expenses, including the two trips to India, related to the production of the research materials such as translation of texts from vernacular into English and local travel expenses were factors that limited the possibility of expanding the study to a larger population.

I regret to mention, because of the retirement of advisers, my paper (commenced in the first semester of 2006, fieldwork conducted in the second semester of 2007, original statistical analysis completed but primary supervisor retired in the first semester of 2008) moved through the hands of four advisers: each of these also experienced work

disruptions that affected the supervision continuity. With each transition, additional time was spent in gathering data that ultimately proved irrelevant to the final analysis (Indian educators, detailed study of Indian education history, different education systems).

In addition to this, as a woman studying overseas, I experienced many dramatic life events across the course of the research, which ultimately meant I needed to take a leave of absence and delayed my ability to finalise the analysis. These included marriage, pregnancy and relocation to France. Coupled with multiple disruptions to candidature caused by supervision issues, this resulted in a thesis that reports on data collected some years ago.

## **Part 4: Conclusion**

### **6.10 Summary**

For an education system conceived on the principles of social justice and equality within an “inclusive” mindset to be effectively implemented it must address issues that confront those with the responsibility to implement the program—the teachers. As shown in this study, although Indian pre-service and in-service teachers agree that every child has a right to education, and all support social equality principles, they are actually reluctant, apprehensive or unable to implement the inclusive education program.

Studying the influence of subjective norms and perceived behavior controls on their beliefs and, by extension, attitudes suggests that this situation can be reversed if the teachers are provided with the knowledge, skills and community support required to effectively implement the inclusive education program. With these essentials in place, the teachers may develop enhanced self-efficacy, which would foster a positive attitude towards the inclusion of the students with disabilities in the general classroom.

India is a developing country, and similarly to other developing countries, it is a young democracy struggling with economic and social cultural constraints coupled with political power struggles. In this situation, the Government of India’s attention has been concentrated on rapid economic development. Nonetheless, the Government of India’s attempt to promote social equality in India’s culturally fragmented society prompted the Government of India to become a signatory of the Salamanca Statement and to pass legislative policies advocating the inclusive education aims, principles and practices nationwide.

This study has shown that the Theory of Planned Behavior’s position that teachers’ attitudes are based on their beliefs drawn from knowledge, experience and subjective norm influence cannot be ignored as vital for the effective implementation of the inclusive



education program. However, the inclusive education program implementation is not confined in isolation to the learning experience between teachers and students. Community involvement is imperative for the success of the program. Collaborative support from the local community (school administrators, co-teachers, paraprofessionals and parents) encourages teachers' positive attitudes towards the inclusive education program. Additionally, policy makers need to shift interest from mere policy legislation to also support their policy stipulations with particular emphasis on the promotion of teacher empowerment (implementers of the policy). In effect, it is teachers who will promote and implement the inclusive education program. Effective implementation of any national program requires the provision of all mechanics (namely, policy, finance, proficiency, implementers and public support) essential for transferring the (inclusive education) program from the boardroom to the classroom.

#### 6.11 Personal Take Away

On a personal level I have learned much through conducting this research study. Aside from learning the technicalities required for conducting research, I realised that research is a valuable method for "knowing". Prior to the study I failed to recognise the significance of the teachers' attitudes and beliefs as a driving force on how teachers "teach". I further realised that the cultural factors outside the classroom have a direct influence on the teaching and learning experience within the confines of a classroom. Although I am proud of my Indian cultural heritage, I as a teacher must make a deliberate effort to set aside obstructive traditional beliefs if Tagore's aspirational poem is to become a reality in my country. I conclude with these inspiring words that remind us of the power of focusing on the ways we can change and positively develop teachers' beliefs towards students with a disability:

Where the mind is without fear ... let my country awake.

(Tagore, 1961, p. 285).

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## **Appendices**

### **Appendix 1: Salamanca Statement**

Integrated education and community based rehabilitation represent complementary and mutually supportive approaches to serving those with special needs. Both based on the principles of inclusion and integration and participation and represent well-tested and cost-effective approaches to promoting equality of access for those with special education needs as part of a nation wide strategy aimed at education for all.

(Article 15, Salamanca Statement, 1994)

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

(Article 2, Salamanca Statement, 1994)

## Appendix 2: Right to Education in India

### Campaign to demand Right To Education Bill

Education as a fundamental right cannot be denied in any democratic society. It is the duty of the Government to provide for and guarantee this fundamental right. The Indian Government's recent decision to drop the long pending Right to Education Bill and pass it on to the State Governments as a model bill, is a completely outrageous decision ignoring not only a fundamental right but also the genuine expectations of each and every citizen.

### History of Right to Education/Timeline of important events:

- **1950:** Constitution of India contained Article 45, as one of the directive principles of State policy, which states that: *"The State shall endeavor to provide within a period of ten years from the commencement of this Constitution, for free and compulsory education for all children until they complete the age of fourteen years."*
- **1968:** First National Commission for education under Dr. Kothari submits its reports. It introduced several far-reaching changes as uniform curriculum for both boys and girls, mathematics and science as compulsory subjects etc. It also proposed a Common School System.
- **1976:** Constitution amendment making education a concurrent subject (responsibility of both state and center) was passed.
- **1986:** National Policy on Education endorsing Common School System was formulated. Subsequent the National Policy on Education endorsed the Common School System but it has never been implemented.
- **1993:** The Supreme court in the case *Unnikrishnan vs State of Andhra Pradesh* ruled that the right to education is a fundamental right that flows from the Right to life in Article 21 of the Constitution.
- **1997:** Constitution Amendment making Education a fundamental right was introduced.
- **2002:** 86<sup>th</sup> Constitution Amendment added Article 21A stating that "The State shall provide free and compulsory education to all children of the age six to fourteen years in such a way as the State may, by law, determine." The 86<sup>th</sup> Amendment also modified Article 45 which reads as "The state shall endeavor to provide early childhood care and education for all children until they complete the age of 6 years".
- **2005:** Central Advisory Board of Education committee report constituted to draft the Right to Education Bill submits its report.
- **July 2006:** Media reports indicate that federal government is planning to ask all state governments to pass Right to Education bill in their respective legislatures based on a model bill drafted by federal Government. It has shelved plans to introduce a federal bill in this regard.

<http://www.ashanet.org/campaigns/rte/HistoryOfRightToEducation.html>

### Appendix 3: India's Definition of Disability

On 30, September, 2002, the National Council of Education, Research and Training, Ministry of Human Resources conducts a survey periodically to view the country's progress in the field of education. The last survey was the 7<sup>th</sup> All India School Education Survey. In this Survey is a list of definitions that is part of the survey, below is a definition of disability and the different types of disabilities.

#### Disability

Disability may be defined as any restriction or lack of abilities to perform an activity in the manner or within the range considered normal for a human being?. Persons having any of the disabilities, namely, visual, communication (hearing and/or speech) and locomotor, will be considered physically disabled.

**Visual Impairment:** A person having no light perception, or having light perception but not able to count the fingers of a hand correctly (using the glasses if ordinarily used) from a distance of 3 meters in good day light with both eyes open.

**Hearing Impairment:** A person, who can not hear at all, or could hear only loud sounds, or can hear only shouted words, or can hear only when the speaker is sitting in the front, or usually asking to repeat the words spoken or would like to see the face of the speaker.

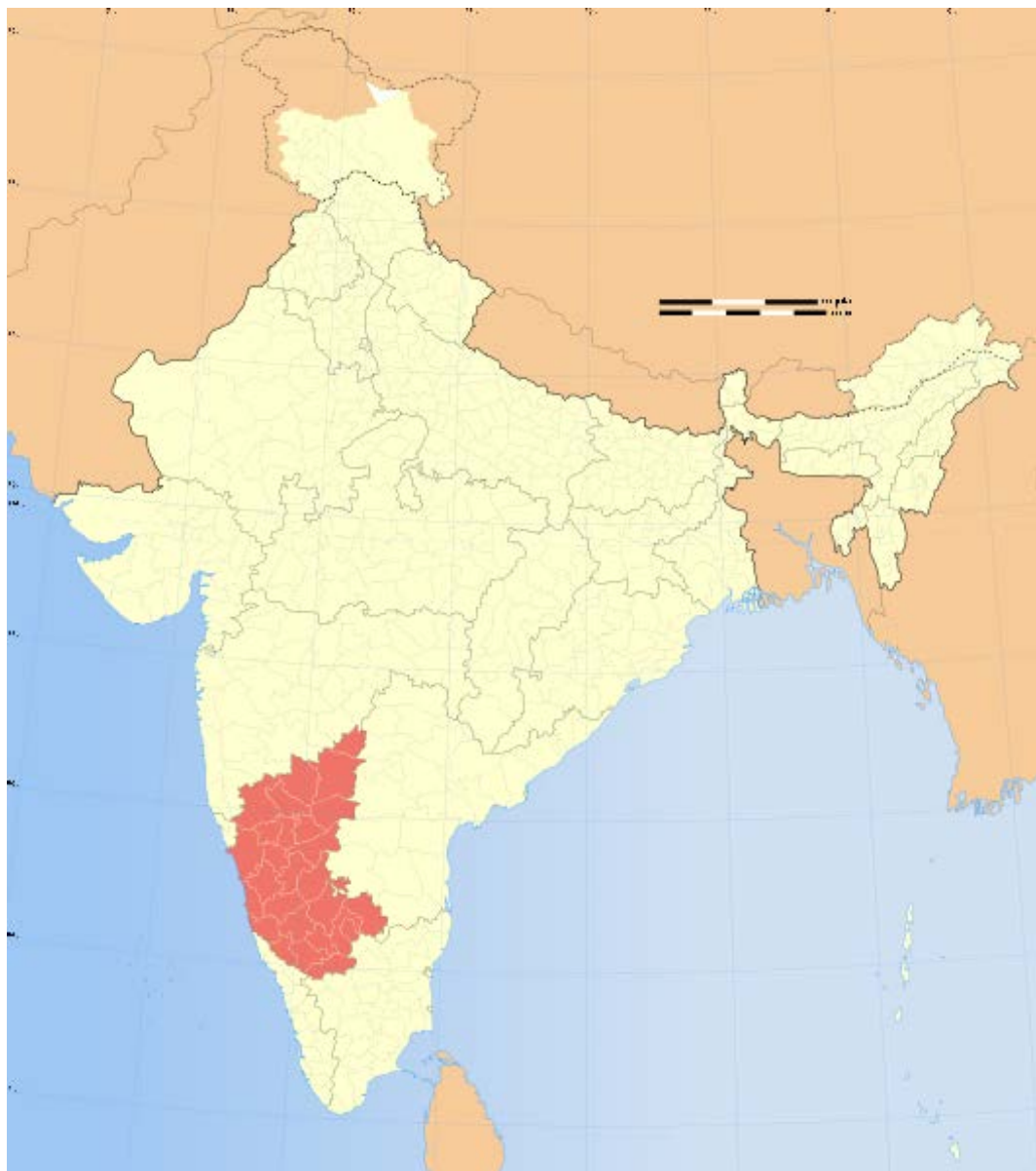
**Orthopedic (Locomotor) Disability:** Loss or lack of normal ability of an individual to move himself/herself and /or objects from one place to another.

**Intellectual Impairments (Mental Retardation):** A condition of arrested or incomplete development of mind of a person which is specially characterized by sub-normality of intelligence.

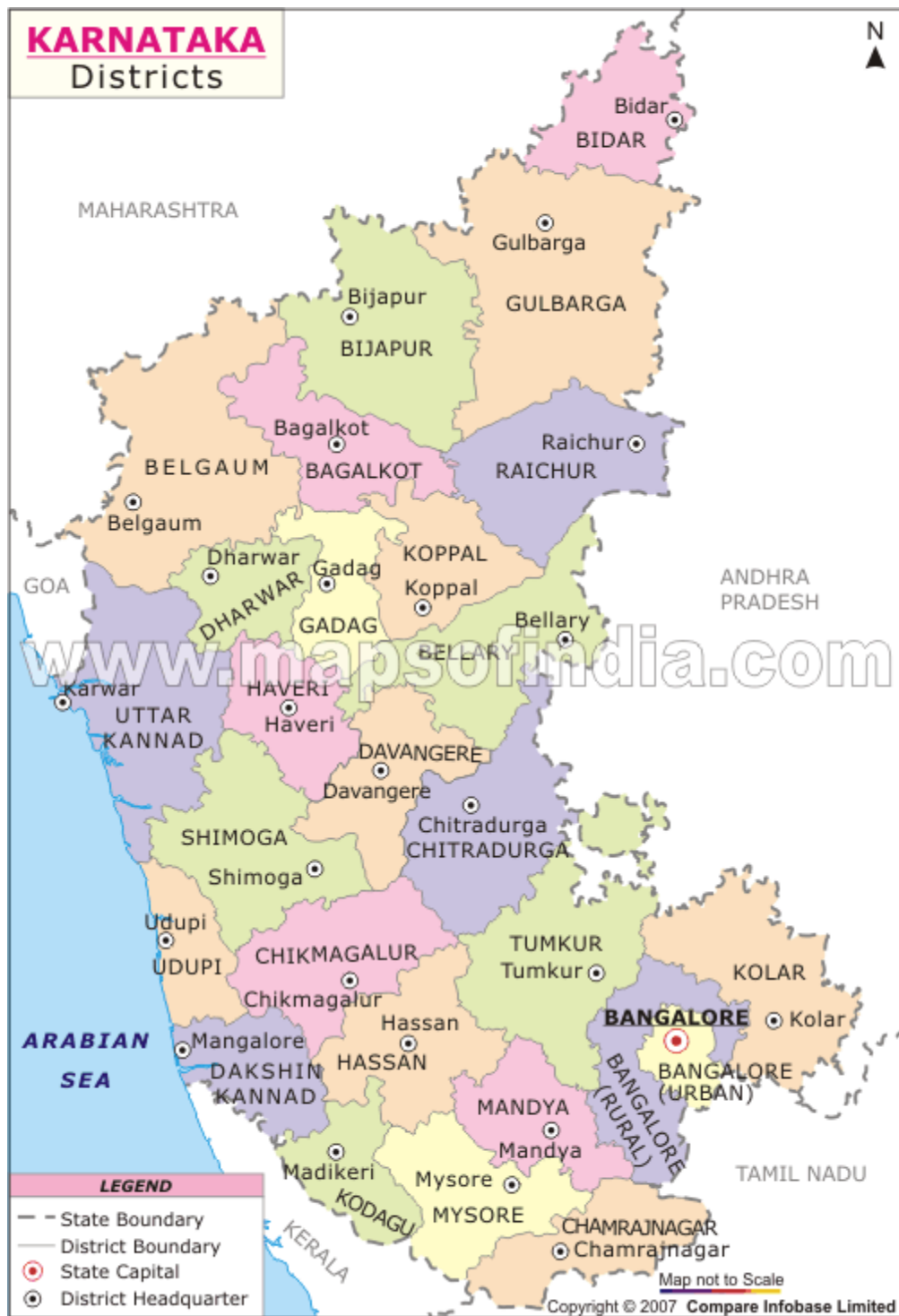
**Multiple Impairment:** Children with more than one disability will be classified under Multiple Impairment category

<http://www.7thsurvey.ncert.nic.in/glossary.htm#Disability> Retrived 30/5/06

#### Appendix 4: Map of India



## Appendix 5: Map of Karnataka





## Appendix 6: Basic Education School Day

Pathak (2012) redefines the school day of a Basic Education school as explained in Zakir Husain Committee Report as,

- “A school of, say five and half hours could roughly be divided on the following basis:

(i)	Physical activities	20 minutes
(ii)	Mother Tongue	40 minutes
(iii)	Social Studies & General Sciences	60 minutes
(iv)	Art	40 minutes
(v)	Arithmetic	20 minutes
(vi)	Craft work including study of correlated subjects	2 1/2 hours”.
  - Thus, the craft period will have two and a half hours instead of three hours and 20 minutes
  - Free and compulsory education to be given for 8 years (from 6 to 14 years) in two stages, instead of 7 to 14. The junior state will cover five years and the senior stage 3 years
  - The medium of instruction is to be the mother tongue
  - Education is to centre around some form of productive work
  - One’s social and physical environment must be used for correlation in addition to craft
  - The self-supporting aspect is not to be over-emphasized. The sale-proceeds of the finished goods should be able to help the school cover some part of its expenditure
  - External examinations are to be abolished. The day-to-day work of the student is to be the determining factor
  - Textbooks should be avoided as far as possible
  - Cleanliness and health, citizenship, play and recreation are to be given sufficient importance” (2012: 77-78)
- “We recommend the following new organizational structure for secondary education after the 4 or 5 years of primary or junior basic education.
- A middle of junior secondary or senior basic stage which should cover a period of 3 years
  - A higher secondary stage which should cover a period of four years” (Pathak, 2012: 85)

## **Appendix 7: Questionnaire Information Package**



**An Analytical Inquiry  
into the  
Educators' Attitudes  
Towards  
Inclusive Education  
in Bangalore, India  
INFORMATION PACKAGE**

### **CONTACT DETAILS:**

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## **QUESTIONNAIRE COVER SHEET**

### **Why is the research being conducted?**

The aim of this study is to identify the attitude of pre-service teachers and in-service teachers toward implementation of the inclusive program in (selected) schools in Bangalore. The findings of this study aims help determine the effectiveness of the inclusion policy in the Indian context and might provide recommendations to address problems or promote and enhance the implementation of policy into practice.

### **What you will be asked to do**

This study involves responses to a written questionnaire which covers an area to identify the demographic profile of the participant---age, gender, educational qualifications and work experience, and statements of inquiry to the participants' knowledge understanding and attitude towards the inclusive program, their perception of problems they might encounter during the implementation of the inclusion program in the regular classroom, the advantages of the inclusion program and any suggestions the research participants might offer will be covered in the questionnaire. The raw data from collective questionnaire responses will be statically treated employing the Statistical Package for the Social Sciences data analysis technique to obtain the teacher's attitude on the inclusion program.

In addition a focus group verbal interview comprising of four groups of five experienced teachers who participated in the questionnaire will be recorded. The venue and time for the focus group interview will be arranged so as to cause least inconvenience for the participants. The time span for focus group will extend over a span of forty-five minutes for each group. The researcher will conduct the focus group discussions which will be (audio) taped.

Prior to the questionnaire and the focus group activity, the researcher will inform the respondents that this study was being conducted purely for academic purposes. The respondents will be informed of their liberty to refrain from answering any question they feel uncomfortable to respond to.

All information received by you will be appropriately stored within Griffith University for 5 years. All audio (taped) data will be transcribed and destroyed immediately, transcriptions will be appropriately stored with Griffith University for 5 years.

**The basis by which participants will be selected or screened**

The questionnaire will be administered to fifty pre-service teachers (Colleges and University students) pursuing the Bachelor of Education course or a post degree course in Special Education for the academic year 2007-08. Fifty in-service, currently employed teachers will also form part of the respondents. All the respondents will be of legal age (18 years and above). Both genders will be represented. All the respondents are located in city of Bangalore. All respondents are involved in the field of formal education. Written permission from the governing officials of the concerned institutions to conduct the study within the premises of the institution engaging the pre-service teachers or in-service teachers and the date time for conducting will first be obtained. Next a random selection of respondents based on alternative numbers on the attendance register will be identified as perspective respondents. The researcher will verbally address the respondents regarding the purpose of the study followed by providing each respondent the opportunity to consent in writing to their involvement or withdraw at any time during the study.

**The expected benefits of the research**

The directional outcome of this study is to develop social awareness of the educational needs for children with special needs of today and tomorrow and the teachers of today and tomorrow in Bangalore, India.

**Risks to you**

There are no physical or psychological risk involved in this study. The data received from the participants will be locked in a bag in the custody of the researcher and deposited in a safe place until the researcher has transcribed and analyzed the data. Once the raw data has been interpreted for analysis the raw data will be handed over to Griffith University for appropriately stored for 5 years. Please note that only the audio tapes will be erased after transcription.

**Your confidentiality**

The privacy of the respondents is protected since no individuals personal identity will be published. No provision for any participant to disclose or her name has been requested in the Questionnaire. No Educational Institute has been named. All data received will be transcribed and analysis by the researcher. Then the data will be handed over to Griffith University for appropriately stored for 5 years. Please note that only the audio tapes will be erased after transcription.

**Your participation is voluntary**

As this is a non-funded research or rather a self-funded research the researcher requests the participants to participate on a voluntary basis. This is a social awareness study purely for academic purpose and to further enhance the educational process in the future. With no potential risks to any participants involved, any participant is a liberty to withdraw from the study any given time during the course of the research upon the completion of the research, an approved final copy of the research will be provided to all educational institutes involved.

**The ethical conduct of this research**

Griffith University conducts research in accordance with the National Statement on Ethical Conduct in Research Involving Humans. If potential participants have any concerns or complaints about the ethical conduct of the research project they should contact the Manager, Research Ethics on 3875 5585 or [research-ethics@griffith.edu.au](mailto:research-ethics@griffith.edu.au).

**Privacy Statement**

The conduct of this research involves the collection, access and / or use of your identified personal information. The information collected is confidential and will not be disclosed to third parties without your consent, except to meet government, legal or other regulatory authority requirements. A de-identified copy of this data may be used for other research purposes. However, your anonymity will at all times be safeguarded. For further information consult the University's Privacy Plan at [www.griffith.edu.au/ua/aa/vc/pp](http://www.griffith.edu.au/ua/aa/vc/pp) or telephone (07) 3875 5585.



**CONFIDENTIAL**

**Demographic profile of respondent**

Gender: **Female** **Male** (circle)

Age: \_\_\_\_\_

Qualification: **Diploma** **Graduate** **Post graduate** (circle)

Educational Qualification in: **Science** **Social Science** **Physical Education** **Other**  
\_\_\_\_\_ (circle)

Years of Teaching experience: **preservice student** **1 – 3** **4-6** **7-9** **10-12** **13-15**  
**more than 15** (circle)

Have you attended any workshops or in service training for effective implementation of the inclusive education program for students with a disability? (circle) **YES** **NO**

If yes then please list:

Do you think that your professional Development has equipped you to recognize and develop teaching techniques to cater to the needs of students with disabilities? (circle)  
**YES** **NO**

If yes then please list:

### Questionnaire

Please read each statement carefully. Mark an X in the column to show the extent of your agreement with each of the following statements.

	Statement	1 Not at All	2 A Small Amount	3 A Fair Amount	4 Quite a Lot	5 A Great Deal
1	The regular classroom is an ideal setting to accommodate students with disabilities					
2	Students with disabilities should attend special school /class, and <b>not</b> the regular school					
3	Students with disabilities adversely affect the required learning content of the classroom program in regular classrooms					
4	The inclusion of students with disabilities in regular classrooms can prove to be beneficial for the progress of all students.					
5	Students in regular schools can be prepared to accommodate <b>all</b> students regardless of their ability					
6	Students should be treated equally, regardless of their limitations					
7	Students with disabilities learn to socialize with regular students					
8	Regular schools are prepared to include students with disabilities					
9	Regular students generally do not accept students with disabilities					

	<b>Statement</b>	<b>1 Not at All</b>	<b>2 A Small Amount</b>	<b>3 A Fair Amount</b>	<b>4 Quite a Lot</b>	<b>5 A Great Deal</b>
10	Parents of regular students appear to be concerned regarding the seating of children with disabilities in the regular classroom					
11	Schools in general lack sufficient funds for implementation of a successful inclusive program					
12	Lack of sufficient administrative support hinders implementation of the inclusive program					
13	There are a lack of sufficient incentives (e.g. additional salary) to include students with disabilities					
14	There are inadequate paraprofessionals (e.g. speech/occupational/physio therapists) staff to support students with disabilities					
15	Teachers require additional professional development to cater to the needs of students with disabilities					
16	Inappropriate infrastructures (e.g. architectural barrier) cause difficulties in accommodating students with disabilities					



	<b>Statement</b>	<b>1 Not at All</b>	<b>2 A Small Amount</b>	<b>3 A Fair Amount</b>	<b>4 Quite a Lot</b>	<b>5 A Great Deal</b>
17	There are inadequate resources and instructional materials to cater to the needs of students with disabilities (e.g. teaching aids – Braille)					
18	Overall academic standards of the school will suffer if students with disabilities are included					
19	Teaching students with disabilities means extra work caused by the need for additional documentation					
20	I lack sufficient knowledge and skills to teach students with disabilities					
21	The Bachelor of Education curriculum should be revised to include latest developments on national policy and teaching practices to implement educational policy e.g. ( inclusive education policy)					
22	My performance as a classroom teacher will decline if I have students with disabilities in my class					
23	I will have difficulty in giving equal attention to all students in an inclusive classroom setting					
24	I will be unable to cope with students with disabilities who have inadequate self-care skills (e.g. not toilet trained)					

	<b>Statement</b>	<b>1 Not at All</b>	<b>2 A Small Amount</b>	<b>3 A Fair Amount</b>	<b>4 Quite a Lot</b>	<b>5 A Great Deal</b>
25	Inclusion of students with disabilities in my class will contribute to my anxiety and stress					
26	Parents of students with difficulties are apprehensive about admission of their child in a regular class					
27	Parental involvement in the educational process of a child with disabilities is a vital factor for the child's educational progress					
28	Teachers are reluctant to accept students with difficulties because of the increased time required for lesson modification					
29	Large class population (over 30) hinders teachers from accepting students with learning difficulties					
30	Teaching a multi graded class inclusive of students of with disabilities is impractical					

[Questions derived loosely from survey carried out by Carpenter, Cavanagh & Hyde (2004); Sharma & Desai (2002)].



## CONSENT FORM

By signing below, I confirm that I have read and understood the information package and in particular have noted that:

I understand that my involvement in this research will include (include a focus group); I have had questions answered to my satisfaction;

I understand the risks involved;

I understand that there will be no direct benefit to me from my participation in this research;

I understand that my participation in this research is voluntary;

I understand that if I have any additional questions I can contact the research team;

I understand that I am free to withdraw at any time, without comment or penalty;

I understand that I can contact the Manager, Research Ethics, at Griffith University Human Research Ethics Committee on 3875 5585 (or [research-ethics@griffith.edu.au](mailto:research-ethics@griffith.edu.au)) if I have any concerns about the ethical conduct of the project; and

I agree to participate in the project.

### CONTACT DETAILS:

#### SUPERVISORS:

Merv Hyde, Ph.D.

School of Education & Professional Studies (GC)  
Gold Coast Campus  
Griffith University  
55528619  
[m.hyde@griffith.edu.au](mailto:m.hyde@griffith.edu.au)

Dr. Lorelie Carpenter, Ph.D.

School of Education & Professional Studies (GC)  
Gold Coast Campus  
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55528619  
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#### HUMAN RESEARCH ETHICS COMMITTEE:

Manager

3875 5585

[research-ethics@griffith.edu.au](mailto:research-ethics@griffith.edu.au) .

#### RESEARCHER:

Nisha Michael

7/201 High Street,

Southport QLD 4215

0403643219

[Nisha.Michael@student.griffith.edu.au](mailto:Nisha.Michael@student.griffith.edu.au)

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Please return the signed part if you wish to continue with the Focus Group.

**Name**

**Signature**

**Date**

### Scenario

The scenario will be provided in writing to each teacher involved in the group discussion to read prior to the discussion. The scenario will act as a springboard for the respondents to reflect their attitudes and discussion toward inclusion programs. The researcher will initiate the discussion by asking an initial “attitude-opinioned” question: “What does this story suggest to you about inclusion of students with a disability?”

Once I went to see a school in a village called Thyamagondlu in Karnataka state where I was implementing the Integrated Education of Disabled Children scheme. I went 15 minutes before the school was supposed to open. I sat there watching children coming to school with their books and bags. The head master was a very young man in his early 20s and newly married. He came on his brand new bicycle. As he entered the main door he asked one of the students to bring the wooden ramp he had specially made for his bicycle.

The student promptly brought the ramp and fixed it to the stairs. There were about 5 steps. The head master pushed his cycle using the ramp and neatly parked it near the side of the classroom wall. He saw me and said, “Namasthe madam.” Then we started talking about the integration of children with disabilities in village schools. As we were talking, a physically challenged boy around 12 years came to school. His father brought him on his cycle.

The boy entered the school building with great difficulty, as there were five huge steps, which made entry very difficult. Children helped him climb the steps. The head master was also watching this scenario with me. I asked the head master, “You bring your cycle very easily using the ramp, but this boy has difficulty in entering, doesn’t he?”

The head master could not understand my point immediately and said, “Yes madam that boy has polio, he cannot climb steps.” I joked, “Your cycle could also not climb the steps?” He said, “Yes, you are right.” I tried to help him think. “But you could lift the cycle by using a ramp.” Then suddenly he realized what I was trying to convey. “Madam I am sorry I thought so much about my cycle – a lifeless object. If only I had left the ramp a little longer, he boy could have entered using the same ramp!!”

I. Rao and S. P. Rao (2006) Moving Away for Labels.

### **Focus Group Questions**

#### **Other key questions during Focus Groups:**

1. In your opinion, to what extent is Gandhi's Basic Education Philosophy still present in education today?
2. Do you think education is essential for creating a more democratic society in which all people may have an opportunity to participate?
3. In your opinion, are present educational systems directed towards holistic development of an individual, or more towards academic achievement?
4. What do you understand by the concept of inclusive education? Do you know any key principles of inclusive education?
5. Can children with disabilities be afforded the same educational opportunities as other students in a regular classroom?
6. Do you think that admission of students with disabilities can create a more realistic learning environment for all students?
7. Describe any possible positive outcomes from implementation of a regular school inclusion program for students with disabilities.
8. Describe any possible negative outcomes from implementation of a regular school inclusion program for students with disabilities
9. How could teacher's attitudes towards implementation of an inclusive education program influence the effectiveness of the inclusion program?
10. If you had a student with a disability in your class how could you cater to his/her needs?
11. What limitations might affect your ability to respond?

[Questions derived loosely from survey carried out by Minke, Bear, Deemer, & Griffin (1996) and Subban & Sharma (2005)].

## Appendix 8: Non-government Organization Pilot Study

<b>Subject</b>	Re: Request to Approve Reserach Instrument.
<b>From</b>	▶ <a href="mailto:Nisha.Michael@student.griffith.edu.au">&lt;Nisha.Michael@student.griffith.edu.au&gt;</a>
<b>Date</b>	Wednesday, February 7, 2007 4:58 pm
<b>To</b>	<a href="mailto:cbrnet@airtelbroadband.in">cbr network airtel &lt;cbrnet@airtelbroadband.in&gt;</a>
<b>Attachments</b>	<a href="#">Proposed Research Instrument.doc</a>

Dear Ms. Indumathi Rao,  
Madam,

I the undersigned, take this opportunity to thank you for extending your professional expertise in the reviewing, affording suggestions and approving of the appropriateness of policy and subject content in the construction of the research instrument to be employed for data collection in a research study. The afore mentioned research study is an academic perquisite required by the Griffith University for the completion of the Doctor in Education program in which I am currently enrolled.

The research instrument, a written Questionnaire and a Focus Group, both comprising of two segments each. The first segment of the questionnaire comprises of eight questions to ascertain a demographic profile of the respondents regarding gender, age, educational qualifications and teaching experience. The second segment of the questionnaire comprises of twenty five statements designed on a five point Likert scale to elicit the attitude of the respondents towards the Education for All Policy as advocated by United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization in the Salamanca Statement and endorsed in the Right to Education for All 2000 by the Government of India. The first segment of the focus group is a scenario and the second segment contains the discussion questions.

The targeted respondents will be, pre-service teacher trainees enrolled in the Bachelor of Education course, the post graduate special education certificate course and in-service teachers currently employed in schools (wherein English is the medium of instruction) in the city of Bangalore, Karnataka State, India.

Once again I sincerely thank you for affording me your valuable time and expertise in the development and approval of the research instrument.

Attached please find the Proposed Reserach Instrument.

Sincerely  
Nisha Michael

<b>Subject</b>	Re: Re: Request to Approve Reserach Instrument.
<b>From</b>	▶ <a href="mailto:cbrnet@airtelbroadband.in">cbr network airtel &lt;cbrnet@airtelbroadband.in&gt;</a>
<b>Date</b>	Wednesday, April 4, 2007 5:21 pm
<b>To</b>	<a href="mailto:Nisha.Michael@student.griffith.edu.au">Nisha.Michael@student.griffith.edu.au</a>

The questionnaire looks fine .please add a few more questions taking the rural areas in mind

1.Single teacher or multigrade schools and difficulties addressed by teachers

2.Moving from disability vie two curricular view needs teachers good knowledge about curriculum but most of them hardly have any concept which is a major barrier ..add some qs on this too

participating of illiterate parents in the eudcational process i sposible with innovative methods add qs on thi s too  
Indumathi rao

## Appendix 9: Private Institution Pilot Study

<b>Subject</b>	Re: Request for Approval of Research Instrument.
<b>From</b>	<a href="mailto:Nisha.Michael@student.griffith.edu.au">&lt;Nisha.Michael@student.griffith.edu.au&gt;</a>
<b>Date</b>	Wednesday, February 7, 2007 5:00 pm
<b>To</b>	<a href="mailto:dsouza.greta@gmail.com">Greta D' Souza &lt;dsouza.greta@gmail.com&gt;</a>
<b>Attachments</b>	<a href="#">Proposed Research Instrument.doc</a>

Dear Ms. Greta D'Souza,

Madam,

I the undersigned, take this opportunity to thank you for extending your professional expertise in the reviewing, affording suggestions and approving of the appropriateness of language and subject content in the construction of the research instrument to be employed for data collection in a research study. The afore mentioned research study is an academic requisite required by the Griffith University for the completion of the Doctor in Education program in which I am currently enrolled.

The research instrument, a written Questionnaire and a Focus Group, both comprising of two segments each. The first segment of the questionnaire comprises of eight questions to ascertain a demographic profile of the respondents regarding gender, age, educational qualifications and teaching experience. The second segment of the questionnaire comprises of twenty five statements designed on a five point Likert scale to elicit the attitude of the respondents towards the Education for All Policy as advocated by United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization in the Salamanca Statement and endorsed in the Right to Education for All 2000 by the Government of India. The first segment of the focus group is a scenario and the second segment contains the discussion questions.

The targeted respondents will be, pre-service teacher trainees enrolled in the Bachelor of Education course, the post graduate special education certificate course and in-service teachers currently employed in schools (wherein English is the medium of instruction) in the city of Bangalore, Karnataka State, India.

Once again I sincerely thank you for affording me your valuable time and expertise in the development and approval of the research instrument.

Attached please find the Proposed Research Instrument.

Sincerely

Nisha Michael

<b>Subject</b>	Re: Request for Approval of Research Instrument.
<b>From</b>	<a href="mailto:dsouza.greta@gmail.com">Greta D' Souza &lt;dsouza.greta@gmail.com&gt;</a>
<b>Date</b>	Monday, February 19, 2007 12:11 am
<b>To</b>	<a href="mailto:Nisha.Michael@student.griffith.edu.au">"Nisha.Michael@student.griffith.edu.au"</a> <Nisha.Michael@student.griffith.edu.au>
<b>Attachments</b>	<a href="#">Proposed Research Instrument.doc</a>

Dear Nisha,

I am happy to read your research instrument. I appreciate your earnest effort. I hope you will be able to follow the suggestions specified. However, if you are unable to understand the changes please revert.

Wishing you the very best.

Regards  
Greta

## Appendix 10: Ethical Clearance

GRIFFITH UNIVERSITY HUMAN RESEARCH ETHICS COMMITTEE

30-May-2007

Dear Miss Michael

I write further to the additional information provided in relation to the conditional approval granted to your application for ethical clearance for your project "An Analytical Inquiry into Educators' Attitudes Towards Inclusive Education in Bangalore, India" (GU Ref No: EPS/05/07/HREC).

This is to confirm receipt of the remaining required information, assurances or amendments to this protocol.

The applicants are reminded that they must ensure that the Manager Research Ethics is promptly notified if any concerns or complaints are received about this project.

Consequently, I reconfirm my earlier advice that you are authorised to immediately commence this research on this basis.

The standard conditions of approval attached to our previous correspondence about this protocol continue to apply.

Regards

Gary Allen  
Manager, Research Ethics  
Office for Research  
Bray Centre, Nathan Campus  
Griffith University  
ph: 3875 5585  
fax: 3875 7994  
email: g.allen@griffith.edu.au  
web:

Cc:

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## **Appendix 11: Research Higher Degree Induction Quiz**

RHD Induction Quiz  
**CERTIFICATE OF COMPLETION**

Congratulations Nisha Michael,

You have successfully completed your RHD Induction!

Wishing you all the best in your research studies at Griffith University.

Printed 12-Jun-2007 18:38

Receipt Number 8D0A461C

You can close this window now.

