

**INVESTIGATING KUWAITI TEACHERS' AND HEAD TEACHERS'  
ATTITUDES TOWARDS INCLUSION**

**By**

**MISHAL ALMOTAIRI**

**A Thesis submitted to  
The University Of Birmingham  
For the degree of  
DOCTOR OF PHILOSOPHY**

**School of Education  
The University Of Birmingham  
December 2013**

UNIVERSITY OF  
BIRMINGHAM

**University of Birmingham Research Archive**

**e-theses repository**

This unpublished thesis/dissertation is copyright of the author and/or third parties. The intellectual property rights of the author or third parties in respect of this work are as defined by The Copyright Designs and Patents Act 1988 or as modified by any successor legislation.

Any use made of information contained in this thesis/dissertation must be in accordance with that legislation and must be properly acknowledged. Further distribution or reproduction in any format is prohibited without the permission of the copyright holder.

**DECLARATION**

This is to certify that this thesis has not been submitted in this form, or any other, for any other degree to any institution of learning besides to the University of Birmingham

## **DEDICATION**

This work is dedicated to God the Lord of the universe, the most compassionate and the most beneficent, and to my father may his soul rest in peace and to all pupils with disabilities in Kuwait.

## **STATEMENT**

I hereby certify that this thesis is entirely the result of my own independent investigations. The various sources to which I am indebted are clearly indicated in the bibliography.

## **ACKNOWLEDGMENTS**

I am deeply indebted to all those who supported, encouraged and stood by me during the course of this research. Without their assistant and unlimited support, this thesis would not have come into existence. I really want to express my appreciation to each and every one of them, however, some deserve special mention.

First, warm and sincere appreciation and grateful thanks must go to my supervisors Dr Graeme Douglas and Christopher Robertson, for their valuable suggestions and constructive remarks during the research process, besides their encouragement and professional advice. I would like also to express my deepest thanks to Dr Eman Gaad for her generous help and support to finalise my study. Thanks for all people who helped me in the Ministry of Education for their ongoing support and encouragement for all my academic achievements and to Professor Abdel-Hamid El-Abbasi for his advice and encouragement. Special thanks must go to Sheikh Fahad Jaber Mubarak Al-Sabah for his support and encouragement. Finally, my personal thanks go to my mother Haya Al-khazam, brothers, Ali, Sultan, Hussein, sisters, Maha, Manal and my daughter Malak, for their patience and the sacrifices they have made to enable me to complete this thesis.

## **ABSTRACT**

The purpose of this study is to investigate the attitude of Kuwaiti primary teachers and head teachers toward including pupils with disabilities in mainstream schools and classrooms in the State of Kuwait. The two-part study utilises a ‘two methods approach’ to reveal the attitudes of teachers and head teachers in primary mainstream and special schools toward pupils with disabilities and including them in mainstream classrooms. The first study was a questionnaire-based survey of 560 teachers and head teachers currently working in the 209 mainstream and special primary schools in Kuwait. The questionnaire used was the Mainstream Attitude Survey (MAS) developed by Alghazo (2000). Results showed a mixed attitude towards inclusion of pupils with disabilities, and that, overall, teachers were quite negative about the concept. Teachers from mainstream schools were more supportive of inclusion than special school teachers and, male teachers were more supportive than female teachers. The second study involved interviews with 30 teachers, head teachers and 4 decision makers. These revealed nuances of opinion with respondents from both school types supporting inclusion from two main positions. The first emphasised that inclusion was an ethically sound movement; the second emphasised inclusion would be socially beneficial to society and the development of all pupils. Of those who were negative towards inclusion, criticisms were mostly based on the idea that while there were likely to be social benefits of inclusion, these benefits were not significant enough to justify placing the academic achievement of mainstream pupils at risk.

## TABLE OF CONTENT

<b>LIST OF TABLES .....</b>	<b>XIII</b>
<b>LIST OF FIGURES .....</b>	<b>XV</b>
<b>CHAPTER ONE: INTRODUCTION .....</b>	<b>1</b>
1.1 INTRODUCTION .....	1
1.2 STATEMENT OF THE PROBLEM .....	3
1.3 SIGNIFICANCE OF THE STUDY .....	4
1.4 RESEARCH QUESTIONS .....	5
1.5 STUDY LIMITATIONS .....	7
1.6 METHODOLOGY AND RESEARCH METHODS.....	9
<i>1.6.1 Methodological Considerations/Rationale.....</i>	<i>9</i>
<i>1.6.2 Study design.....</i>	<i>11</i>
<i>1.6.3 Participants .....</i>	<i>13</i>
1.7 ETHICS, CONFIDENTIALITY, AND ANONYMITY .....	14
1.8 THESIS FINDINGS .....	16
<i>1.8.1 Survey results.....</i>	<i>16</i>
<i>1.8.2 Interview Results .....</i>	<i>18</i>
1.9 CONCLUSION .....	18
<b>CHAPTER TWO: BACKGROUND OF EDUCATION IN KUWAIT .....</b>	<b>19</b>
2.1 INTRODUCTION .....	19
2.2 DEMOGRAPHY, RELIGION AND ECONOMY .....	21
<i>2.2.1 Stateless People in the State of Kuwait .....</i>	<i>22</i>
<i>2.2.2 Expatriates and Domestic Workers .....</i>	<i>24</i>
<i>2.2.3 Religion.....</i>	<i>26</i>
<i>2.2.4 The economy.....</i>	<i>26</i>
2.3 THE HISTORY OF KUWAITI EDUCATION .....	27
<i>2.3.1 Formal Education in the Period 1936 - 1957 .....</i>	<i>28</i>
2.4 CONTEMPORARY KUWAITI EDUCATION .....	30



2.4.1	<i>The Basic Educational Aims.....</i>	30
2.4.2	<i>The Structure of School building.....</i>	32
2.4.3	<i>The Structure of School Administration .....</i>	34
2.4.4	<i>Education Stages .....</i>	35
2.4.4.1	<i>Kindergartens .....</i>	35
2.4.4.2	<i>Primary stage: .....</i>	35
2.4.4.3	<i>The intermediate level: ....</i>	38
2.4.4.4	<i>The secondary level.....</i>	38
2.4.5	<i>Classroom Management and Layout.....</i>	39
2.4.6	<i>Technical and Commercial Education .....</i>	39
2.4.7	<i>Kuwait University.....</i>	40
2.4.8	<i>The Public Authority for Applied Education and Training.....</i>	40
2.4.9	<i>Modern Trends of Education in Kuwait - Scholarly Missions .....</i>	41
2.5	<b>SPECIAL SCHOOLS .....</b>	43
2.5.1	<i>Organizational Chart of the Administration of Special Schools .....</i>	44
2.5.2	<i>The Special Schools Personnel.....</i>	46
2.5.3	<i>The Goals of Special School Administrations .....</i>	50
2.6	<b>CURRENT AND PLANNED MAINSTREAMING IN KUWAIT.....</b>	59
2.7	<b>CONCLUSION .....</b>	63
 <b>CHAPTER THREE: EXPLORING THE RELATED LITERATURE ON INCLUSION.....</b>		<b>65</b>
3.1	<b>INTRODUCTION .....</b>	65
3.2	<b>INCLUSION: AN OVERVIEW .....</b>	67
3.2.1	<i>Overview of Studies of Teacher Attitudes Towards Inclusion.....</i>	71
3.2.2	<i>Factors Influencing Teacher Attitudes .....</i>	73
3.3	<b>CHILD-RELATED VARIABLES .....</b>	74
3.3.1	<i>Types of Disability.....</i>	74
3.3.2	<i>Impairments.....</i>	76
3.4	<b>TEACHER RELATED VARIABLES .....</b>	82
3.4.1	<i>Age and Teaching Experience .....</i>	84

3.4.2	<i>Experience of Contact</i> .....	86
3.4.3	<i>Training</i> .....	88
3.4.4	<i>Teachers' Cultural and Social Views</i> .....	90
3.5	ISLAMIC PERSPECTIVE TOWARDS PEOPLE WITH DISABILITIES .....	101
3.5.1	<i>Rights, Respect, and care for People with Disabilities:</i> .....	103
3.5.2	<i>The right of Doing less Religious Duties</i> .....	105
3.6	EDUCATIONAL ENVIRONMENT-RELATED VARIABLES .....	106
3.6.1	<i>Policy</i> .....	107
3.6.2	<i>Programming and Initiatives</i> .....	108
3.6.3	<i>Administration</i> .....	116
3.7	MAINSTREAMING ATTITUDE SCALE (MAS) .....	118
3.8	SOME CONCLUSIONS/HYPOTHESES EMERGING FROM THE LITERATURE REVIEW	119
<b>CHAPTER FOUR: METHODOLOGY AND METHOD (SURVEY STUDY).</b>		<b>122</b>
4.1	INTRODUCTION .....	122
4.2	TERMINOLOGY OF DISABILITIES IN KUWAITI CONTEXT .....	126
4.3	RESEARCH DESIGN .....	128
4.4	GROUNDING OF THE RESEARCH METHODOLOGY.....	128
4.5	TYPE OF DATA.....	132
4.5.1	<i>Sampling</i> .....	136
4.6	DEFINING THE POPULATION.....	138
4.7	SAMPLING TECHNIQUES .....	139
4.8	SAMPLE SIZE .....	141
4.9	METHODS OF DATA COLLECTION .....	142
4.10	INSTRUMENTS.....	143
4.11	DEMOGRAPHIC QUESTIONNAIRE.....	143
4.12	MAINSTREAMING ATTITUDE SCALE (MAS).....	144
4.13	LANGUAGE.....	144
4.14	CULTURE.....	145
4.15	TYPES OF QUESTIONS .....	146
4.16	INTERVIEW .....	146
4.17	DATA COLLECTION PROCEDURE .....	147
4.18	VALIDITY AND RELIABILITY .....	148

4.19 PILOT STUDY .....	149
4.20 DATA ANALYSIS .....	152
4.21 SUMMARY .....	152
<b>CHAPTER FIVE – RESULTS OF SURVEY .....</b>	<b>154</b>
5.1 INTRODUCTION .....	154
5.2 OVERVIEW OF THE DATA ANALYSIS .....	155
5.3 SAMPLE CHARACTERISTICS .....	156
5.3.1 Gender .....	157
5.3.2 Type of School .....	157
5.3.3 Teacher Status .....	158
5.4 ATTITUDES TO THE FOUR DISABILITY GROUPS .....	159
5.4.1 Discussion Tables 10 - 13 .....	163
5.5 ATTITUDE TOWARD TRAINING AND SUPPORT .....	164
5.5.1 Discussion Tables 14-15 Attitudes Toward Training and Support .....	167
5.6 COMPARISON OF ATTITUDE TOWARDS THE INCLUSION OF DIFFERENT DISABILITY GROUPS IN MAINSTREAM SCHOOLS .....	169
5.7 THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN THE STUDY COMPONENTS AND THE DEMOGRAPHIC VARIABLES .....	171
5.7.1 Teachers' Gender .....	172
5.7.2 School Type .....	175
5.7.3 Teacher Status .....	179
5.8 DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSION .....	181
<b>CHAPTER SIX: METHODOLOGY AND METHOD (INTERVIEWS) .....</b>	<b>190</b>
6.1 INTRODUCTION .....	190
6.2 QUALITATIVE RESEARCH BY INTERVIEWING .....	190
6.3 LIMITATIONS OF INTERVIEWING .....	193
6.4 GOALS OF THE QUALITATIVE RESEARCH .....	195
6.5 ADVANTAGES OF INTERVIEWING .....	196
6.6 TYPES OF INTERVIEW .....	197
6.7 DESIGN OF THE INTERVIEW .....	198
6.8 CONCLUSION .....	200

<b>CHAPTER SEVEN: INTERVIEWS WITH TEACHERS AND HEAD</b>	
<b>TEACHERS.....</b>	<b>202</b>
7.1 INTRODUCTION .....	202
7.2 SAMPLE .....	204
7.3 INTERVIEW QUESTIONS AND THEIR DATA ANALYSIS .....	207
7.4 PROCEDURES OF THE DATA COLLECTION BY INTERVIEW .....	208
7.5 INTERVIEW ANALYSIS PROCEDURES .....	209
7.6 DESCRIPTION OF THE PARTICIPANTS.....	211
7.7 THE FIRST QUESTION .....	212
7.7.1 <i>The mainstream school head teachers</i> .....	212
7.7.2 <i>The mainstream school teachers</i> .....	213
7.7.3 <i>The special school head teachers</i> .....	215
7.7.4 <i>The special school teachers</i> .....	215
7.7.5 <i>Summary</i> .....	218
7.8 THE SECOND QUESTION .....	219
7.8.1 <i>The mainstream school head teachers</i> .....	219
7.8.2 <i>The mainstream school teachers</i> .....	220
7.8.3 <i>The special school head teachers</i> .....	223
7.8.4 <i>The special school teachers</i> .....	225
7.8.5 <i>Summary</i> .....	227
7.9 THE THIRD QUESTION .....	229
7.9.1 <i>The mainstream school head teachers</i> .....	229
7.9.2 <i>The mainstream school teachers</i> .....	232
7.9.3 <i>The special school head teachers</i> .....	237
7.9.4 <i>The special school teachers</i> .....	238
7.9.5 <i>Summary</i> .....	245
7.10 THE FOURTH QUESTION .....	247
7.10.1 <i>The mainstream school head teachers</i> .....	247
7.10.2 <i>The mainstream school teachers</i> .....	250
7.10.3 <i>The special school head teachers</i> .....	254
7.10.4 <i>The special school teachers</i> .....	255
7.10.5 <i>Summary</i> .....	259
7.11 THE INTERVIEWS WITH DECISION MAKERS .....	260

7.12 CONCLUSION .....	266
<b>CHAPTER EIGHT: DISCUSSION, CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS.....</b>	<b>269</b>
8.1 INTRODUCTION .....	269
8.2 TEACHER EXPERIENCE AND ATTITUDE.....	269
8.3 TEACHER RELATED VARIABLES .....	273
8.4 CHILD-RELATED VARIABLES .....	278
8.5 EDUCATIONAL-ENVIRONMENT RELATED VARIABLES .....	280
8.6 SUMMARY OF THE FINDINGS AND DISCUSSION .....	286
8.7 GENERAL CONCLUSION OF THE STUDY .....	287
8.8 RECOMMENDATIONS .....	290
8.9 RECOMMENDATIONS FOR FURTHER STUDIES.....	293
<b>REFERENCES.....</b>	<b>295</b>
<b>APPENDIX (A) – DEMOGRAPHIC QUESTIONNAIRE .....</b>	<b>313</b>
<b>APPENDIX (B) – MAS QUESTIONNAIRE.....</b>	<b>325</b>
<b>APPENDIX (C) – SALAMANCA CONFERENCE .....</b>	<b>345</b>
<b>APPENDIX (D) – COUNTRIES SUPPORTS.....</b>	<b>346</b>
<b>APPENDIX (E) – SPECIAL SCHOOLS EQUIPMENTS .....</b>	<b>349</b>
<b>APPENDIX (F) – SPECIAL SCHOOLS TRAINING.....</b>	<b>353</b>
<b>APPENDIX (G) – SPECIAL SCHOOLS AFTER THE INVASION .....</b>	<b>355</b>
<b>APPENDIX (H) - POST-1991/2 RECONSTRUCTION.....</b>	<b>357</b>
<b>APPENDIX (I) – PRIZE FOR RESEARCH AND TRAINING IN SPECIAL NEEDS EDUCATION.....</b>	<b>359</b>
<b>APPENDIX (J) - FURTHER ANALYSIS .....</b>	<b>364</b>
<b>APPENDIX (K) -INTERVIEWS RELIABILITY .....</b>	<b>366</b>

## LIST OF TABLES

<b>Table 1:</b> Number of schools, pupils, and teachers from the 1936-1957	29
<b>Table 2:</b> Weekly Classes and Subjects for each Grade Level	37
<b>Table 3:</b> Personnel in the Management of Schools offering Special Education	46
<b>Table 4:</b> Teachers and Administrators in Special Schools	46
<b>Table 5:</b> Size of the Educational Process Constituents by Gender and Nationality In Special Schools	48
<b>Table 6:</b> Number of Psychologists and Social Specialists in Special schools	49
<b>Table 7:</b> The Physiotherapy Section Personnel	49
<b>Table 8:</b> The Number of Doctors in Special Schools Clinics	50
<b>Table 9:</b> Count and Percentage Distribution of Characteristics in the Sample	156
<b>Table 10:</b> Summary Statistics of Attitudes to Physical Disability	160
<b>Table 11:</b> Summary Statistics of Attitudes to EBD	161
<b>Table 12:</b> Summary Statistics of Attitudes to Mental Disability	162
<b>Table 13:</b> Summary Statistics of Attitudes to Learning Difficulty	163
<b>Table 14:</b> Summary Statistics of General Attitudes - Training	166
<b>Table 15:</b> Summary Statistics of General Attitudes - Support	167
<b>Table 16:</b> Attitudes in Kuwait to Educational Inclusion	170

<b>Table 17:</b> Attitude towards Inclusion among Teachers by Gender	172
<b>Table 18:</b> Attitudes towards Inclusion by Type of School	177
<b>Table 19:</b> Attitude in Kuwait to Educational Inclusion by Teachers' Status	179
<b>Table 20:</b> Attitudes Toward Inclusion by Experience/Contact	188
<b>Table 21:</b> Attitudes Toward Inclusion by School Districts	189
<b>Table 22:</b> Stratified Interview Sample	206
<b>Table 23:</b> Sample of Decision Makers in the Ministry of Education	206
<b>Table 24:</b> Strengths	245
<b>Table 25:</b> Weaknesses	246
<b>Table 26:</b> Distribution of participants' views on weaknesses and strengths	246
<b>Table 27:</b> What can be done to improve inclusion?	259

## LIST OF FIGURES

<b>Figure 1:</b> Kuwait – Map and Borders	21
<b>Figure 2:</b> The Structure of School Administration	34
<b>Figure 3:</b> School District Area	42
<b>Figure 4:</b> Organizational Chart of the Administration of Special schools.	45
<b>Figure 5:</b> Special school Campus	52
<b>Figure 6:</b> Opening the special school institutes	54
<b>Figure 7:</b> Special schools in Kuwait	58
<b>Figure 8:</b> Interplay between feelings and beliefs, which translate into attitude.	126
<b>Figure 9:</b> Steps characterize the path of inquiry	130
<b>Figure 10:</b> Showing the differences between the two main approaches to reasoning: <i>inductive</i> and <i>deductive</i>	132
<b>Figure 11:</b> Summarizes the sample	137
<b>Figure 12:</b> Gender Distribution	157
<b>Figure 13:</b> Schools Type Distribution	158
<b>Figure 14:</b> Teacher Status Distribution	159



<b>Figure 15:</b> Attitude in Kuwait to Educational Inclusion by Gender	174
<b>Figure 16:</b> Attitude in Kuwait to Educational Inclusion by Type of School	177
<b>Figure 17:</b> Attitude in Kuwait to Educational Inclusion by Teachers' Status	180
<b>Figure 18:</b> Mainstream school teachers and head teachers	218
<b>Figure 19:</b> Special school teachers and head teachers	218
<b>Figure 20:</b> Mainstream school teachers and head teachers	227
<b>Figure 21:</b> Special school teachers and head teachers	228

# CHAPTER ONE: INTRODUCTION

## 1.1 Introduction

The inclusion of pupils with disabilities in the mainstream of general education remains one of the most contested topics in public education today (Fitch, 2003). The idea that all pupils, including those with disabilities, can and should learn together in one classroom is called inclusion. Inclusion is based on a belief in the importance of education and equal opportunities for all pupils. As Malek (1999) states:

*Education means continuing improvement which starts from birth and accumulated experiences play a major role in shaping and influencing the human being's assumptions and behaviours (p. 34).*

Thus, many feel that inclusive education allows pupils with disabilities to enhance their social skills, facilitating their adaptation into various social settings and allowing them to gain acceptance in peer groups (Forlin and Cole, 1993) and that, as a result, social norms become modified to no longer stigmatize those with certain disabilities (Allan, 2003).

The opposition of inclusion would seem to lead to a position which advocates the exclusion of these pupils. Yet some observers maintain that full inclusion is not always the best way to meet pupils' needs. Critics of full inclusion ask whether pupils with the most 'severe disabilities' (in the Kuwaiti education system severe disabilities are diagnosed when pupils are unable to satisfy the level of learning ability, see chapter 2) benefits from placement in mainstream classrooms (Cromwell, 2004).

Furthermore, inclusive classes, to improve the performance of pupils with disabilities, may require more than one teacher and specific technology, which can be very costly (Norwich, 2002).

While few educators oppose inclusion completely, some have reservations about the way in which full inclusion works in the classroom. 'Full inclusionists' may fail to recognize that pupils with disabilities are individuals with diverse needs; some benefit from inclusion, but others do not. For example, medically fragile pupils and pupils with severe behavioural disorders are more likely to be harmed than helped when they are placed in mainstream classrooms where teachers do not have the highly specialized training to supply their needs (Shanker, 1996).

In Kuwait, the trend in recent policies adopted by the Ministry of Education favour the inclusion of pupils with disabilities in mainstream classrooms. Initially, in 1994, pupils with hearing impairments were allowed to attend mainstream schools. Since then, pupils with Down's syndrome and visual impairments have also been accepted into mainstream classrooms. Al-Muhareb (2007) highlights some of the advantages of implementing inclusion in public schools that have been achieved through including special needs pupils in the primary schools. For instance, pupils with Down's syndrome gain suitable social behaviour, learn how to utter alphabet letters correctly, and gain basic counting skills.

Moreover, in order to maintain the progress of inclusion, Al-Muhareb (2007) points out that the Ministry of Education has established a division called the General Secretariat of Special Education (GSSE) office. It is responsible for the following:

1. Evaluating the status of inclusion through investigating case studies.
2. Delivering recommendations for the pupils.
3. Allocating pupils to the appropriate special needs schools and schools with inclusion programs.
4. Following up on the requirements of pupils with special needs.

Furthermore, the Ministry of Education's plans to include pupils with emotional and behavioural disorders, mental disability, physical disabilities and learning difficulties in mainstream schools are currently under way (Al-Albaan K., Al Mosalam R., 2001). This is discussed in Chapter 2.

## **1.2 Statement of the problem**

There are pupils with disabilities in the State of Kuwait, as there are in every other country and, this being the case, the goal of the government and society must be to effectively include these pupils in the educational system and society as a whole. The State of Kuwait has a history of educational provision for pupils with disabilities through special schools. However, the Ministry of Education in the State of Kuwait is trying to include pupils with disabilities in mainstream education classrooms, but very little research has been done on this as yet. The research undertaken in this study aims to investigate the attitudes of male and female Kuwaiti primary school teachers and head teachers. The research investigates these educators' attitudes in both types of schools, mainstream as well as special schools, towards pupils with disabilities and the prospect of having such pupils in mainstream classrooms. This study is undertaken also to help the Kuwaiti Ministry of Education by supplying more information about the efforts to be made and the needs to be met in preparing for inclusion.

### **1.3 Significance of the Study**

Kuwait is planning to sign the UN/UNESCO framework for action on special needs education which (amongst other things) promotes disabled children's placement in mainstream schools. Nevertheless, the inclusion of pupils with disabilities in mainstream schools is a relatively new phenomenon in the Kuwaiti educational system. The present investigation is directed at examining the attitudes of mainstream and special school teachers and head teachers, as their attitudes in other research studies have proven critical to the successful inclusion of pupils with disabilities learning in mainstream classrooms (as discussed in the literature review, chapter 3). It is anticipated that the attitude of teachers and head teachers will be a significant variable in successful efforts at inclusion. Moreover, participation in this study may provide teachers and head teachers with some ideas about special education programmes in more educationally advanced countries, which may in turn serve as a guide to changing the philosophy of educating pupils with disabilities in the State of Kuwait.

The main purpose of the current study is to investigate attitude of teachers and head teachers in primary school towards inclusion. This is done by using questionnaires and interviews. The thesis seeks to consider the perceived challenges which arise when trying to implement inclusion in mainstream classrooms and to consider the steps required for improving this implementation. The results obtained from this research will assist the Ministry of Education in gathering up-to-date information regarding the attitudes of Kuwaiti teachers and head teachers, whether positive or negative, towards inclusion.

At present, pupils with the four disabilities have yet to be included in mainstream schools. Therefore, investigating the attitudes towards the inclusion of pupils with these particular disabilities is critical for the future of the mainstreaming agenda in Kuwait.

I have chosen to concentrate on the primary schools because they build the basis for the learners' education, and therefore appear to mark a significant phase in the learners' lives by preparing them for the first steps in their educational career. Moreover, primary level teachers closely observe the behaviour of their young pupils, giving greater weight to discovering the learners' personal inclinations, interests and capabilities than is possible at more advanced levels and thus work to shape and guide them.

#### **1.4 Research Questions**

Since the aim of my research will be to discover teachers' and head teachers' attitudes towards inclusion, my research questions are formulated to this end. According to Light et al. (1990), when the research questions are clearly specified, the planning decisions will no doubt be sensible. Therefore, I have attempted to formulate questions which will reveal attitudes toward inclusion itself, as well as towards persons with disabilities. The responses will also reveal the relation, if any, between attitudes towards persons with disabilities in general and the presence of particular pupils with disabilities in mainstream schools and classrooms.

The questions may be summarized as follows:

1. Based on the nature of pupils' disabilities (emotional and behavioural disorders, mental disability, physical disabilities and learning difficulties), do teachers and head teachers working in different *school types* (mainstream versus special) have significant differences of the attitudes towards including them, as measured by Mainstreaming Attitude Scale (MAS<sup>1</sup>)?
2. Based on the nature of the pupils' disabilities (emotional and behavioural disorders, mental disability, physical disabilities and learning difficulties), and on *teacher status* (teacher vs. head teachers), are there significant differences of the attitudes in teachers and head teachers towards including them, as measured by Mainstreaming Attitude Scale (MAS )?
3. Based on the nature of the pupils' disabilities (emotional and behavioural disorders, mental disability, physical disabilities and learning difficulties), on *gender* (male vs. female), with respect to their contact and experiences with pupils with disabilities, are there significant differences of the attitudes in teachers and head teachers towards including them, as measured by Mainstreaming Attitude Scale (MAS )?

For the interview,

4. How has the mainstreaming of pupils with Down's syndrome and hearing impairments<sup>2</sup> (see chapter 2) affected the teaching experience at various schools and how has it influenced the attitudes of teachers towards future initiatives to include more pupils with disabilities for both teachers and head teachers (mainstream and special)?

---

<sup>1</sup>The Mainstreaming Attitude Scale (MAS) is an instrument developed by Alghazo (2000). This survey consists of 32 5-point Likert type questions and has been used in several Middle Eastern countries.

<sup>2</sup>The first move toward inclusion made by the Ministry of Education was in 1994 when pupils with hearing impairments were integrated into mainstream classrooms. Since that time, pupils with Down's syndrome and hearing impairments have also been included (Al-Albaan and Al-Mosalam, 2003)

## **1.5 Study Limitations**

The study is limited to teachers and head teachers in primary special and mainstream schools who work in The State of Kuwait and therefore may not be an appropriate tool to generalize the inclusion movement as a whole or to support or refute findings made elsewhere. Nevertheless, teachers and head teachers are the most appropriate individuals to investigate this type of study due to the role they play in students' lives on a daily basis. Because teachers and head teachers are first in line in the educational system, their feedback is important for the Ministry of Education in Kuwait.

A challenge when carrying out any piece of research is the quality and depth of the data collection methods used. As summarised below, this study involved a mixed method approach involving a large-scale questionnaire-based survey followed by more in-depth interviews. The strengths of the questionnaire-based survey include its standard format and the large and representative sample. However, this must be traded with the relative narrowness of the questionnaire content. In contrast, the interview study was able to explore participants' views and experiences in greater breadth and depth, but the data collected were limited in relation to the size of the sample.

In spite of the inevitable limitations described here, this study is expected to appeal to a certain audience, in that the Kuwaiti government is interested in learning more about inclusion and thus should be receptive to all the information collected on the subject. Moreover, this study is important to Kuwaiti society as a whole, as it explains the attitudes of primary teachers and head teachers toward inclusion, which ultimately is important for every parent with a child in the Kuwaiti public school system. As there



has been so little research done on this topic in Kuwait, therefore this study will add to the literature in this field and set the stage for future research studies.

Additionally, I am a native of Kuwait and thus in a position to know something about its problem with the exclusion of pupils with disabilities, having by chance been exposed to the problem at first hand through teaching in a Kuwait primary public school. I have seen and experienced how the pupils with disabilities are handled in the Kuwait primary schools and in the society. This teaching experience has helped me in gaining insight to problems that were faced by the pupils with disabilities and the special facilities and help they received from teachers. I have seen what problems pupils with disabilities face in the society as I also had a neighbour in Kuwait whose daughter was disabled and was spending an isolated life and was rarely seen by the other members of our close community due to her isolated special school.

Finally, this study is expected to generate more services for this population and to encourage Kuwaiti society to reconsider some of its laws, such as the one on free education for all Kuwaitis. The law is highly influenced by the international policies, which stress the importance of primary education. The Kuwaiti government took some steps to make primary education a basic right of children and made primary education free and compulsory in 1962. The Constituent Assembly, in 1962, adopted Article 14:

*Compulsory school attendance was required in 1962 for all pupils from four to sixteen years old. The Constituent Assembly, in 1962, adopted Article 14: Education is a right for Kuwaitis, guaranteed by the State in accordance with law and within the limits of public policy and morals. Education in its preliminary stages shall be compulsory and free in*

*accordance with the law. The law shall lay down the necessary plan to eliminate illiteracy. The state shall supervise the mental development of youth* (Ministry of Education, 1962, p.16).

I hope my research can help the Kuwaiti government develop its laws so that pupils with disabilities can also benefit from this.

## **1.6 Methodology and Research Methods**

### ***1.6.1 Methodological Considerations/Rationale***

The nature of this study is mainly exploratory and the research process is defined by the study aims – i.e. the methodology is captured within the research questions. The coherence among the aims, the data collection tools, the theoretical framework and the actual surveying and interviewing of the teachers and head teachers was understood throughout with the importance of this coherence in mind. As Babbie (1995) says:

*It is always best to use a variety of techniques in the study of any topic; because each of the methods has its weakness, the use of several methods can help fill in any gaps* (p.231).

The researcher's selection of methods, design and the procedures are also important aspects in the development of the research. In this study, I seek to use quantitative and qualitative data collection to reveal the attitudes of primary teachers and head teachers in special and mainstream schools toward pupils with disabilities and to the prospect of including them in mainstream schools and classrooms. Patton (1990) says:

*Because qualitative and quantitative methods involve differing strengths and weaknesses, they constitute alternative, but not mutually exclusive,*

*strategies for research. Both qualitative and quantitative data can be collected in the same study (p.14).*

Wellington (2000, p.200) provides the following definitions for the terms *quantitative* and *qualitative*:

- *Quantitative*: of quantity or number; methods or approaches which deal with numeric data, amounts or measurable quantities, i.e. numbers.
- *Qualitative*: of or relating to quality or kind ('qualis' [Latin]); adjective describing methods or approaches which deal with non-numeric data, i.e. words rather than numbers.

Quantitative research generally includes surveys and is commonly designed to produce precise and reliable statistical analysis. Borg and Gall (1983) claim that conclusions based on large amounts of cautiously selected quantitative data are likely to be more representative of the population investigated than are conclusions drawn from a small number of case studies. Edward and Talbot (1999) state that:

*The quantitative approach as a method of data analysis is most frequently associated with deductive research design and the testing of hypotheses (p.159).*

Moreover, Reichardt and Rallis (1994) state that the intention of quantitative research is normally to provide an understanding between relationships, often of a causal nature, without emphasis on the perspective of the participant.

In contrast, qualitative researchers question the objectivity of the quantitative view. As Pring (2000) states, qualitative researchers *very often reject the whole quantitative enterprise as 'epistemologically' flawed* (p.43). Denzin (1978), who expresses

concern about identifying educators as specimens, nevertheless acknowledges the importance of using a range of research techniques for the examination of beliefs as long as they are not used to *play each method off against the other but rather to maximize the validity of the field effort* (p.304). Qualitative research stresses the importance of the subjective experience of individuals (Cohen and Manion, 1989). Cohen and Manion (1989) say that the main point is to understand the way in which subjects interpret and create their world. The emphasis is then on what is unique to the individual rather than on what is general.

### **1.6.2 Study design**

This study draws upon two key approaches: questionnaire survey (chapter 5) and interviews (chapter 7). A more detailed methodological rationale and method is presented in chapters 4 and 6.

The use of both interview and questionnaire data alongside one another in the present research is very important for data collecting, as both have their own advantages. Cohen and Manion (1994) state:

*A two-person conversation [is] initiated by the interviewer for the specific purpose of obtaining research-relevant information and focused by the research objectives of systematic description, predication, or explanation* (p.271).

However, this study was not only specifically interested in a small sample of educators' attitudes to inclusion, but rather in revealing the general attitude of all the

teachers and head teachers working in primary schools in the State of Kuwait. It was more useful for the present purposes to learn about these general attitudes, because if they are negative, the Ministry of Education will need to implement widespread policy change. For the purpose of answering my research questions, which inquire about widespread and general findings, the use of questionnaire survey technique which draws a national representative sample is also important. Additionally, Bell (1993) indicates,

*Methods are selected because they will provide the data you require to produce a complete piece of research. Decisions have to be made about which methods are best for particular purposes and then a data collecting instrument must be designed to do the job (p.63).*

In other words, quantitative and qualitative kinds of research are both beneficial in exploring a large number of people's reactions to a limited set of questions and in helping the researcher to obtain in-depth data and explanations about the participants' attitudes.

With quantitative methods (questionnaires), for example, a participant who has a negative attitude towards pupils with disabilities may anonymously express views which s/he might not have the courage to express in an interview. Moreover, in Kuwait religious and cultural norms make it difficult for a male researcher to interview a female participant, who may not agree to be interviewed by a male stranger. The quantitative approach eliminates these difficulties.

At the same time, the qualitative method (interviews) helps the researcher to gather a broader picture of attitudes towards inclusion. Interviews allow respondents to

develop an answer in their own words and researchers can elicit information which is articulated freely and without pressure or influence from them; this may also draw out unexpected answers leading to new hypotheses (De Vaus, 1986 and Patton, 1990).

Guba and Lincoln (1981) make the point that:

*Interviewing itself should be thought of as an almost necessary tool in the tactics of the naturalistic inquirer. Of all the means of exchanging information or gathering data known to man, perhaps the oldest and most respected is the conversation (p. 153).*

### **1.6.3 Participants**

This study was carried out within Kuwait's six educational school districts in a selection of boys' and girls' schools in each district and with randomly selected teachers and head teachers (male and female) from each school. Teachers' and head teachers' participation helped in forming this study sample because they play a major role in the educational process at the level of actual practice in particular. Because they are at the practise level, in the State of Kuwait and any successful change in the educational process depends heavily on their understanding and support. For a detailed demographic disaggregation refer to chapter 5. The specific samples were: a sample 560 teachers and head teachers from primary mainstream and special schools in Kuwait who participated in the questionnaire survey (chapters 4 and 5); and a sample of 30 teachers and head teachers from primary mainstream and special schools in Kuwait who participated in more in-depth interviews. For deeper understanding of the teachers and head teachers responses, I decided to interview four decision makers in the Ministry of Education (chapters 6 and 7).

## **1.7 Ethics, Confidentiality, and Anonymity**

A significant factor that must be addressed in conducting this research is its consideration of ethical issues. I had a responsibility to do everything in my power to ensure that the teachers and head teachers who participated in this study were protected from physical, psychological harm or discomfort. Whatever design option researchers choose, it is important for them to appreciate the rights and interests of their participants. In dealing with participants, researchers should consider their confidentiality and avoid doing any type of fraud. According to Borg et al (1983), scientists, private citizens and schools must all be concerned with the ethical aspects of their research.

Cohen et al (2003) claims that a questionnaire may be interpreted as interference in the life of the participants because of the time required to complete the questionnaire, the level of threat or sensitivity of the questions, or a possible invasion of privacy. Attitudes towards pupils with disabilities may be a particularly sensitive matter for educators and therefore, the confidentiality of the respondents has to be respected.

Another ethical (or legal) issue to consider is the fact that, in Kuwait, only parents or Educational Authorities may visit schools for girls. I, therefore, needed to provide a supporting letter from the Educational District to let me visit the girls-only schools. All female staff manages these schools; as a result, a visit from a male researcher might be upsetting. Female participants who objected to being interviewed by a male were offered the option of being interviewed by a volunteer female interviewer who

had been coached on how to conduct the interview (see Chapter 6). For the endorsed photos used in this study, I took permission from Dr. Saad Al-Otabi the supervisor of curriculum and instruction at the Ministry of Education in order to publish the photos and information for the public and in particular for this study. These photos were used to support the reader understanding of the setting described and to offer a visual illustration to a system that may be not familiar to many of the international readers.

There are a number of key phrases to describe the system of ethical protection, which contemporary research establishments have created to protect the rights of their research participants. Whatever design option the researcher chooses, it is important for him or her to appreciate the rights and interests of the participants (BERA, 2004). All the ethical aspects below were carefully considered when the methodology was planned.

*Informed Consent* ensures that prospective research participants have been fully informed about the risks and procedures involved in research and that their consent to participate has been obtained. This issue was addressed by providing a consent form for participants to read and sign beforehand. It explained the request for the individual to take part in the study, how the results of their involvement would be used and finally how and to whom it would be reported. I also explained details of the study when I administered the questionnaire (BERA, 2004).

*Confidentiality* is the assurance that identifying information will not be made available to anyone not directly involved in the study. In dealing with the participants, I considered their confidentiality and avoided fraud. According to Borg et al. (1983),



scientists, private citizens and schools must be concerned with the ethical aspects of their research.

Ethical standards also require that researchers should not put participants in a situation where they might be at *risk of harm* as a result of their participation (BERA, 2004). This was addressed by obtaining the permission of the employer from the Ministry of Education before the participation of any teacher and head teacher. This was to make certain that no risks to the participants' employment status were incurred. Participants were assured that their answers would remain anonymous and that confidentiality would be maintained. This was done to make sure that participants felt free to express their opinions freely.

## **1.8 Thesis Findings**

The results and analyses of the two related studies are presented in chapters 5 (survey) and 7 (interviews). Thesis discussion, conclusions and recommendations are presented in chapter 8.

### ***1.8.1 Survey results***

The following were key results of the quantitative survey data:

- Teacher and head teacher attitudes towards including the pupils with disabilities in mainstream classrooms varied from most accepting to least

accepting in the following order: Physical Disabilities, Mental Disabilities, Emotional and Behavioural Disordered, and Learning Difficulties

- Males' attitudes towards including pupils with physical disabilities in mainstream classrooms are statistically significantly more positive than the attitudes of females towards including pupils with physical disabilities.
- Male teacher and head teacher attitudes towards including pupils with learning difficulties in mainstream classrooms are significantly more positive than the attitudes of female teachers and head teachers towards including pupils with learning difficulties.
- Male teacher and head teacher attitudes toward obtaining more training and support in order to effectively implement and expand inclusion programs into mainstream classrooms are statistically significantly more positive than the attitudes of female teachers and head teachers toward obtaining more training and support for inclusion programs.
- Teachers and head teachers at mainstream schools have statistically significantly more positive attitudes than teachers and head teachers at special schools regarding including all categories of disability: physical disabilities, mental disabilities, emotional and behavioural disordered, and those with learning difficulties.
- Teachers and head teachers at mainstream schools have significantly more positive attitudes than teachers and head teachers at special schools regarding the need for additional support in order to implement and expand inclusion programs.
- Teacher status (head teacher vrs classroom teachers) does not appear to be linked to attitude measured using the MAS (see chapter 5).

### ***1.8.2 Interview Results***

Analysis of the interviews yielded the following findings. Teachers and head teachers who supported inclusion did so from two main positions: the first approach deemed that it was an ethically sound movement; and the second that it would be socially beneficially to society and all of the pupils' development. Of those who were against it, criticisms of inclusion were mostly based on the idea that while there were likely to be social and affective benefits of inclusion, these benefits were not significant enough to justify placing the academic achievement of mainstream pupils at risk.

Interestingly, the interviews provided insight into some higher level issues. Mainstream teachers and head teachers appeared to be more concerned with factors that would directly affect them, and their daily work. Whereas special schools teachers and head teachers generally provided positive ethical and social results for the pupils with special needs, rather than elements that could potentially be positive for themselves and their work (see chapter 7).

## **1.9 Conclusion**

This chapter overviews the key structure of the thesis and some of the personal and policy context which brought this work about. The following chapters provide a more detailed account of that research journey.

# CHAPTER TWO: BACKGROUND OF EDUCATION IN KUWAIT

## 2.1 Introduction

In Chapter one an overview of the research question, methods, analytical devices and conclusions were presented. This chapter aims to describe the context and historical development of education in Kuwait. The roots of inclusion and attitudes toward pupils with disabilities lie not only in within the development of the general, or mainstream educational system, but in broader demographic, social, religious and political evolutions in Kuwait as well.

The State of Kuwait is located in Southwest Asia, to the Northwest of the Persian Gulf. It borders Iraq on the North and Northwest, the Persian Gulf to the East. Iran is to the East of Kuwait, across the Persian Gulf and Saudi Arabia to the South. Kuwait City is the capital of the State. The rise of this town came around 1765 and there are various explanations for the origin of its name. The name Kuwait is the diminutive of the Arabic words *Al-Kout* which means a house built in the form of a fortress adjacent to water. Previously the area was known by the name *Grane* or *Qurain* which is a diminutive of the Arabic word *Qarn* meaning *Horn* (Ministry of Education 1998).

The progress of the country was gradual. In June 1961, Kuwait became independent from Britain and in July joined the Arab League. Then Kuwait became a participating country in the United Nations.

The State of Kuwait has a total area of 17,818 sq km, which equals 6960 sq miles, including the Islands of Bubiyan, Wurbah and Failakah). The Kuwaiti mainland is a flat, sandy desert with its highest point not exceeding 300 metres. The climate is dry and hot in summer with temperatures exceeding 45° C (113° F) and cold and wet in winter. The State of Kuwait is a young country with a tiny population, yet in 35 years this small country has been rapidly transformed from a lifestyle based on fishing, pearl diving and the traditional desert ways of the Bedouins, into a sophisticated, modern state, at home with all aspects of technology, urbanization, industry, architecture, commerce, financial services, and an education system that seeks to support the development and well-being of its citizens as well the success of the nation.

The first impression on a visitor to Kuwait must be the effect of the oil boom, which made its mark on the country and its people. This has brought material progress in all sectors affecting the day-to-day life of the population. Nevertheless, the Kuwaitis are fully conscious of their heritage and their traditions, values, individuality and identity (Ministry of Education 1998).

**Figure 1: Kuwait – Map and Borders**



## **2.2 Demography, Religion, and Economy**

The native people in the State of Kuwait are Arabs. By 2011, Kuwait's population reached 3,582,054 with only 1,148,363 Kuwaitis. More than 57 per cent of the Kuwaiti population are under the age of 21 (Ministry of Social Affairs, 2011). Having a look at the Kuwaiti population brings a clearer sketch of the surrounding circumstances of inclusion in Kuwait, although this study does not try to address some of these following issues since it focuses on the attitudes of teachers and head teachers

towards mainstreaming in Kuwaiti primary public schools (See 1.5 Study Limitations).

Kuwait is a cosmopolitan state with a large proportion of non-Kuwaitis, who are mainly either stateless or expatriates which constitute approximately three quarters of the total population.

Expatriates and stateless are 2,433,691 people according to the 2011 official census statistics. Historically, these two types of residents arrived in small groups to Kuwait to earn their living and to have a better chance in life. In early 1938, Kuwait had a new era and became an oil producing country. As a result, many Arabs began to reside in Kuwait illegally, which then required the government to make an official legal move to protect the rights of aboriginal Kuwaitis and legal residents (Ministry of Social Affairs, 2011). Kuwait took an important step by issuing the Nationality Law in 1959 that declared and distinguished Kuwaitis and non-Kuwaitis (Freitag and et al, 2011). It has 24 articles to regulate and preserve the social rights, national rights and responsibilities of Kuwait's people (Ministry of Social Affairs, 2011).

### ***2.2.1 Stateless People in the State of Kuwait***

Although there is a debate regarding the number of stateless people in Kuwait, the estimated figure of *Biduns* (stateless in Arabic) in the country is 106,000 people (Ministry of Social Affairs, 2011). Kuwait has been dealing with the stateless issue in

conjunction with the United Nations to reach a fair solution. In 1954, the United Nation Convention officially announced the definition of the term stateless as:

*The term “stateless person” means a person who is not considered as a national by any State under the operation of its law. (UNHCR, 2012, p. 2)*

These people cannot be considered as refugees in Kuwait. Refugees are people who are away from their countries for security or safety reasons and are not able to return to their own countries (Smith, 2007). Stateless people in Kuwait claim no nationality to any other country, and they consider Kuwait their homeland with no legal or constitutional rights.

Stateless people lived in Kuwait with no official Kuwaiti documents when the Nationality Law was issued in 1956. At that time, the stateless faced no difficulties or discrimination while the country had a shortage of manpower thus requiring them to be here. They lived and served in many public and sensitive sectors such as the army. Presently, the stateless situation is a major problem for the country of Kuwait.

Kuwait has been sparing efforts to solve this problem, which has actually become severe. The government of Kuwait has categorized stateless to take actions which end up either with citizenship or stateless.

Stateless people include:

1. Those who were born in the desert with historical and cultural ties with Kuwaitis.
2. Families of Kuwaiti women.



3. Military personnel who have served the country.
4. Those who evidently threw away or hid their passports or any official documents to allege their Kuwaiti citizenship. (Abu-Hamad, 1995).

The first three groups are most likely to gain citizenship while the last group are highly unlikely to have a chance to gain Kuwaiti citizenship. Kuwait has been especially firm when dealing with the last group of stateless people. There is a lot of pressure on those who have no roots in Kuwait to go back to their own countries to establish their homelands. As a result, since the issuance of citizenship, Kuwait's government has been imposing major restrictions on stateless people. These restrictions vary from one case to another (Abu-Hamad, 1995).

### ***2.2.2 Expatriates and Domestic Workers***

Expatriates and domestic workers in Kuwait must have a residence visa under the sponsorship system known as *Kafeel* in Arabic. A sponsor, which must be Kuwaiti, grants the employee work permission through legal steps based on a contract. This requires the sponsor to carry the legal and financial responsibilities of his/her employee. The United Nations denounced the practice of this act, which has been introduced in the Kuwaiti Nationality Law 1959 (Ministry of Labour, 2011).

In 2010, the Human Rights Watch reported and investigated the domestic workers' condition and situation in Kuwait. *Walls at Every Turn Abuse of Migrant Domestic Workers*. After Saudi Arabia, Kuwait is the second largest country in number of domestic workers in the Middle East. Domestic workers are mostly from India,

Indonesia, and the Philippines (Human Rights Watch, 2010). The report has shown negative practices against the domestic workers. Since then, the government has been discussing more concessions to protect the rights of domestic workers and to give them the equal rights of non-domestic workers in the country (Ministry of Social Affairs, 2011).

Labour Sector regulations were first issued in 1964, allowing domestic workers to enter Kuwait with a single visa. As a responsive act to preserve the rights of domestic workers and employees, a new labour law was established in 2010 to meet the regional and international standards (Ministry of Labour, 2011).

Not only are adults suffering, but children are also, when it comes to the disputes about whether they are stateless or citizens. Stateless and expatriate pupils are not allowed to attend public schools. In the case of expatriates, those parents who have public professions or employment such as teachers, doctors and engineers are able to enrol his or her first child with special needs in public schools (Ministry of Education, 2010).

Furthermore, stateless and expatriates pupils with special needs have been the ones who suffered the most. There are private schools and centres in Kuwait that specialized in special needs education that allow the enrolment of stateless and expatriates pupils. Some of them have been looked after by public charities and Islamic communities (Ministry of Social Affairs, 2011).

### **2.2.3 Religion**

The official religion of the state of Kuwait is Islam. Not only does Islam represent the foundation of the country's legal system but it also provides the framework for Kuwait's culture and society. Although over 95 per cent of the Kuwaiti population is Muslim, the majority being Sunni and the minority Shi'a, there also exists a small Christian community which includes a small proportion of Kuwaitis. The official language in the State of Kuwait is Arabic. All members of government are required to have a working knowledge of Arabic in order to qualify for their post. English is also widely spoken and is the country's official second language. It is the language commonly used in the business, banking, investment and academic communities. English is also widely used within the educational system. Today English is taught alongside Arabic in both public and private schools, from elementary school through university (though levels and degrees of proficiency may vary between public and private schools). In addition, many other languages may be heard from the high number of foreign expatriates who live there (Ministry of Planning, 2009).

### **2.2.4 The Economy**

Kuwait's economy is primarily based on oil, having approximately 10 % of the world's oil resources and making most of the government's revenues from oil exports. The official plan in the next ten years is to increase the production of oil to

be 4 million barrels per day. The country currently has 96.5 billion barrels of oil reserved, which of which is expected to last more than 100 years.

The lack of water and the severe climate curbed agricultural projects. As many other sectors, the huge conflicts between the parliament and the government, also has had a negative impact on the economy. In 2008, the gross domestic product was 158.150 billion. At the end of the financial year of 2010, the government expected that 0.28660 KD would be equal to a US Dollar.

The government has been trying to diversify the economy. There are procedures that have been applied:

1. To decrease the tax on foreign and private investments.
2. To support local businesses and encourage national industry. (Ministry of Planning, 2008).

### **2.3 The History of Kuwaiti Education**

Education in the state of Kuwait began at the turn of the eighteenth century. There is no doubt that traditional education in Kuwait was related to the people's Islamic duties, praying most of all, since Muslims have to learn the Qur'an. Thus they had to know how to read and write. After young men had been educated in countries closely related to Kuwait, they did their best to teach the next generation about the Qur'an and its language Arabic (Ministry of Education, 2000).

Preaching circles in mosques were the most important educational institutes. Not only in Kuwait, but in all Islamic countries, this may be the reason why mosques are

considered the cultural centres in which people can pray and learn about God, His prophet Mohammed, heaven, hell and other spiritual matters (Ministry of Education 1998).

To some extent, *Al-Diwaniate* had an effect on development of Education in Kuwait. An important part of Kuwait's lifestyle is social life. Men gather in places called *Al-Diwaniate*, usually attached to the houses. There they discuss everything to do with their lives, official policies and social and trading issues. The householders sought to supply *Al-Diwaniate* with scientific, religious and literary books published in Arabic countries, to read and discuss. *Al-Diwaniate* can be said to have been not schools, but almost public libraries (Ministry of Information, 1996).

Girls in Kuwait were not allowed, as in other Arabic countries, to go to the mosque, so they did not get the chance to be educated in the same way as boys. They were taught a little about the Qur'an and about some of the moral teachings in Islamic law by their fathers and brothers. However, in 1916, a Kuwaiti woman, *Al-Mutwaa* ('teacher') Amina Al-omar, started to teach the Qur'an orally to private pupils by repeating chapters in her *Kotab* ('school'). This method would not of course have helped the girls to read or write, but it was the first step in girls' education.

### ***2.3.1 Formal Education in the Period 1936 – 1957***

In the academic year 1937/1937, four schools, two for boys and two for girls, were constructed. The education council made use of Arab teachers to supplement the

teachers from Kuwait. In the academic year 1939/1940, commercial studies were started in classrooms attached to *Al-Mubarakia* school and secondary education started in the following year (for boys only). In 1946, girls' secondary education started, in classrooms attached to some of the primary schools.

In the academic year 1948/1949, the religious institute was launched and a great number of pupils enrolled in it. In 1952/1953, the education directorate established courses of teacher training for male pupils and the same for women in 1953. In the same year, the first secondary school for boys was launched. Table 1 shows the increase in numbers of schools, pupils and teachers during the period 1936-1957.

**Table 1: Number of Schools, pupils, and Teachers from the 1936-1957**

<b>Academic Year</b>	<b>Number of Schools</b>	<b>Number of pupils</b>	<b>Number of Teachers</b>
1936-37	4	600	26
1940-41	13	2012	84
1944-45	15	3090	119
1948-49	21	4665	198
1952-53	39	10738	564
1956-57	87	23666	1406

(Ministry of Education, 1998)

The following year saw the first secondary school for girls. The educational ladder was augmented to consist of four years for primary education, four years for intermediate education and four years for secondary education. This was preceded by the kindergarten stage. In 1954/1955, the industrial sector sent out clear signs of interest in technical education. The year 1955 witnessed the first formal education for children with disabilities in the form of Al-Noor ('light') schools for the vision impairment.

On 19th June 1961, Kuwait became an independent nation. This was one of the most important changes for Kuwaiti society. When Kuwait joined the Arab league and the United Nations, Kuwaiti education made great use of these links by participating in conferences held by international, regional and Arab organizations, and also from the educational experts sent by UNESCO (Ministry of Education, 1998).

Kuwait's constitution defines the framework and principles underlying the structure of society and the state and its different schools. These include principles of education and its position in the society, together with those covering the philosophical elements which characterise the state; together they form the main sources defining the educational objectives in Kuwait.

## **2.4 Contemporary Kuwaiti Education**

### ***2.4.1 The Basic Educational Aims***

The public education system in Kuwait is guided by the following constitutional principles; (a) youth care is the responsibility of the state; (b) education is an essential factor for the progress of society, secured and subsidised by the state; and (c) education is a right for Kuwaiti citizens and in its elementary stage is compulsory. Education aims at providing opportunities for the pupils which will help them to integrally and comprehensively develop, spiritually, intellectually and physically to the limits of their aptitude and potential within the context of Islamic principles, the

Arabic legacy, modern culture and the nature and traditions of Kuwaiti society. Such education should implant in the pupils the spirit of nationalism, with loyalty to the homeland and the Emir. It should ensure them a balanced self-realization and qualify them to contribute to the advancement of Kuwaiti society in particular and the Arab nation in general.

Education in Kuwait stems from the nature of Islam and the society of the Arabian Gulf and Kuwait in terms of values, culture, conditions, potential, needs, problems and attitudes. Thus it aims at: (a) implanting faith in the principles of Islam in the pupils; (b) introducing pupils to their Islamic/Arabic legacy and national history, following the development of their society and traditions; (c) establishing a feeling of belonging to Kuwait, the Arabian legacy and the Islamic world; (d) strengthening the nation's solidarity and family spirit; (e) preparing individuals for a democratic society; (f) acquainting individuals with their rights and duties; (g) promoting the ability to think according to scientific methods; (h) guiding pupils toward innovation and modernization; (i) raising the level of their ambitions; (j) attending to both gifted pupils and pupils with disabilities; and (k) educating a strong generation characterized by seriousness, fortitude, sacrifice and the possession of such abilities and attitudes as qualify them to hold responsible roles in the future. Therefore, as the constitutional principles have been in place since early 1960's, that should make movement towards inclusion simpler as it should not come as foreign concept (Ministry of Education, 1962, p.8).



### ***2.4.2 The Structure of School building***

To aid understanding of the school system, a brief description of a typical school layout is presented. As it is described in the Ministry of Education's official documents, the history of public education in Kuwait started in the 1930s with seventeen public schools. Basically, the design of Kuwaiti schools has gone through two eras (Ministry of Education 1998). The first era was in the beginning that set off early in the twentieth century with physical buildings that had no functional objectives. They were designed by ordinary contractors and engineers, and built with concrete and lime brick. These were large buildings with minimum or no attention given to adequate lighting and air conditioning systems (Srahle, 1981). In comparison with old schools, professional architects with the highest standards have built modern buildings of schools. Growing concern for the need of an education system in Kuwait paved the way for the second era, which was financially supported by the government. This era started in the 1990s, especially after the liberation of Kuwait in 1991. Schools are properly distributed throughout Kuwait, and modern schools are being built to meet the demographic growth. The functions of the school as well as the quality are considered in the modern built schools. Schools in Kuwait have been divided into five main categories:

1. Public schools
2. Private schools
3. Special education schools
4. Religious schools
5. Adults and Illiteracy Education

Schools in Kuwait have been equipped with the following facilities (Ministry of Education, 2011):

1. An administration department (commonly on the first floor)

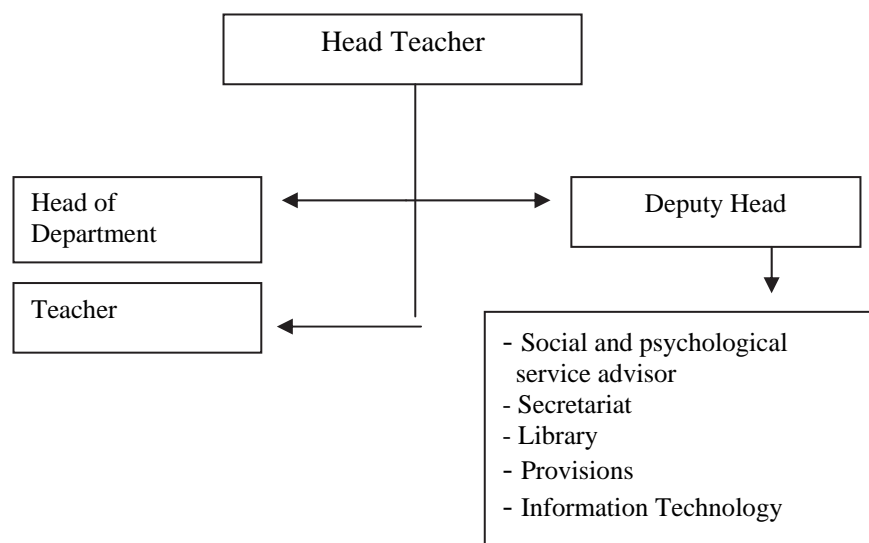
2. A praying centre
3. Scientific laboratories
4. Computer laboratories
5. Music room
6. Painting room
7. An assembly hall
8. A library
9. A cafeteria
10. A garden surrounding the building (size depends on the free space)
11. Each school has to have adequate parking areas with special parking spaces for people with special needs.
12. Football and basketball play grounds
13. A clinic
14. Fire exits and stairs with handrails
15. Spacious corridors that lead to and out the classrooms
16. School buses

As mentioned above, the designs of the public schools in Kuwait lack any pre planning to include pupils with disabilities. The Ministry of Education has never seriously considered the needs of pupils with disabilities in the schools' buildings' design, for instance, the absence of elevators, the high placement of whiteboards, and the unequipped bathrooms without rails that support pupils with physical disabilities.

### 2.4.3 The Structure of School Administration

A head teacher is in charge of the school's administrative and technical performance and an assistant head assists in supervision and administrative monitoring. The head teacher has direct contact with the heads of department and teachers (see figure 2). There is also direct contact between the teachers and the heads of department whose responsibilities include following up and assessing the teacher technically (Ministry of Education, 1962, p. 20).

**Figure 2: The Structure of School Administration**



## **2.4.4 Education Stages**

### **2.4.4.1 Kindergarten**

Kindergarten in Kuwait has been designed to meet the international standards of equipment and to employ competitive staff to achieve two main objectives in this sensitive stage. The first objective is to expose the children to both Islamic and Arab identities. The second objective is to acquire new experiences and to discover more about themselves.

*“It is most likely that the two forces will continue to operate, and they will be always a shift in interest and emphasis of certain objectives as long as Kuwait depends on outside professional help” (Nashif, 1985, p. 79).*

In Kindergarten, pupils are admitted at the age of four or five years and take about two academic years to move on to the primary level. To maintain the progress of academic achievement, the school, at this stage, focuses on physical, mental and social preparation of the pupils for primary school. Teachers enrich pupils' communication skills and important tasks related to simple facts and concepts such as different colours, the four directions, spelling and the principles of mathematics and science (Ministry of Education, 1994).

All the above-mentioned skills are improved through simple activities and equipped playing areas that cannot be found at home.

### **2.4.4.2 Primary level:**

The inclusion of pupils in the primary stage of education is the target of this study. There were 209 primary schools in Kuwait, at the time of this study, in 2006. Each

school held an average of 500 pupils, who were split into five grade levels according to age: Grade 1 age 6. A given grade usually had five separate classes, each with approximately 23 pupils. Teachers in Kuwait were estimated to be numbered at 7,561 teachers in 2006, of which 4,165 were females, while 3,396 were males (Ministry of Education, 2011). This shows a female majority in primary school teachers in Kuwait, which is in part because only female teachers can work in primary schools for girls, while female and male teachers can work in primary schools for boys. For more information see section (Defining the population, page, 113).

Primary education lasts five years (ages 6 to 11) and is stipulated in the law that was enacted in 2004 and 2005. The primary and the intermediate stages are obligatory, unlike the secondary or kindergarten stages (Ministry of Education, 2011).

The primary stage focused more on personal skills and setting the sense of rights and responsibilities. Islamic teachings are instilled with noticeable focus on developing Arabic language skills. The acquisition of Arab language curriculums have been adapted and designed in accordance with Ministry of Education plan, which has been in effect since 1994 (UNESCO, 2010/11).

At each grade level, the curriculum is divided across approximately eight subjects such as mathematics and English (see table 2 below) and teachers are assigned to teach a single grade level only for a given academic year, e.g. first grade or third grade, but not both. In addition to this, teachers are subject specialists, and only teach one subject such as only mathematics or only English.

The following table illustrates the weekly set number of classes and subjects for each grade level.

**Table 2: Weekly Classes and Subjects for each Grade Level**

Name of Subject	Grade 1	Grade 2	Grade 3	Grade 4	Grade 5
Islamic Teachings	4	4	4	4	4
Arabic Language	10	10	9	9	6
English Language	4	4	4	4	5
Science	2	2	3	3	3
Mathematics	5	5	4	4	4
Social Studies	-	-	-	2	2
Practical Studies	-	-	-	-	1
Computer Studies	-	-	-	-	2
Physical Edu	3	3	3	2	2
Fine arts	3	3	3	2	1
Music	1	1	2	2	1
Total Periods	32	32	32	32	31

Modified Table (UNESCO, 2010/11)

#### ***2.4.4.3 The intermediate level***

The intermediate level lasts four years (ages 12 to 15) and is considered to be an extension of the preceding primary level. In addition, it is preparation for the secondary level. This educational stage focuses on the national identity in a specific subject called social studies. Additionally, computer studies like Microsoft Applications are taught during this stage (Ministry of Education, 2011).

#### ***2.4.4.4 The secondary level***

Secondary level is an initiative step to prepare students for university life. Scientific and academic searching and critical thinking are highly employed in this level. Science has been divided into four main subjects: geology, biology, physics, and chemistry.

At both secondary and intermediate levels, a student who fails in three subjects has the right to have a second attempt to gain passing marks, but if he or she doesn't pass he or she remains in the same class for one more academic year.

There are two semesters in every academic year with a period of a break for approximately two weeks. Pupils are evaluated through their interaction in the classroom, quizzes, and two major exams (Ministry of Education, 2011).

#### ***2.4.5 Classroom Management and Layout***

The modern approach of education has been centred into learner-based classes (Ministry of Education 2002).

Classroom layouts are designed and created in order to meet the objectives of the subject that has been taught, but most classrooms in Kuwait have the same U-shape layout that includes five to six desks. This is done in order to offer the teacher a more dynamic interaction with the students (Ministry of Education 2011). The teacher's table is usually located in the front of the class and close to the whiteboard to offer the teacher better sight of the pupils. Basically, the shape of the classroom is rectangular. Approximately, twenty-three pupils are put in each classroom with one teacher without an assistant. The classroom has coloured posters and inspirational quotes all around the classroom (Ministry of Education, 2011).

Young pupils are exposed to a fairly structured format which includes anywhere from eight up to eleven subjects distributed according to the above table, a subject specialist teacher, no teaching assistants, and must attend different classes every forty five minutes (Ministry of Education, 2011).

#### ***2.4.6 Technical and Commercial Education***

The Education Directorate in the same period acknowledged the importance of technical education. On 13th November 1954, the Industrial College was launched with fourteen pupils and eight teachers; it had only one division, that of furniture manufacturing.



Later, new divisions were developed; the number of pupils had grown to 898 by the academic year 1970/1971 (Ministry of Education, 1998).

In 1940, the first commercial course offered bookkeeping, accounting and printing. In the academic year 1955/1956, the commercial studies programme was re-evaluated and new subjects were added, such as secretarial and business skills (Alataar, 2005).

#### ***2.4.7 Kuwait University***

On 15th October 1966, Kuwait University opened its first two faculties: the faculty of Science and Education and Art and the Girls' College, with a total of 418 pupils (male and female) and a faculty of 31. By 1994/1995 the number of pupils had risen to 15,000; this was a 36-fold increase over a period of 22 years, while the increase in the number of staff was 28-fold. The expansion in pupil enrolment and in the number of faculties and specializations increased annually until the university held nine faculties, not counting the Girls' College and the faculty of Postgraduate Studies (Ministry of Education, 1998).

#### ***2.4.8 The Public Authority for Applied Education and Training***

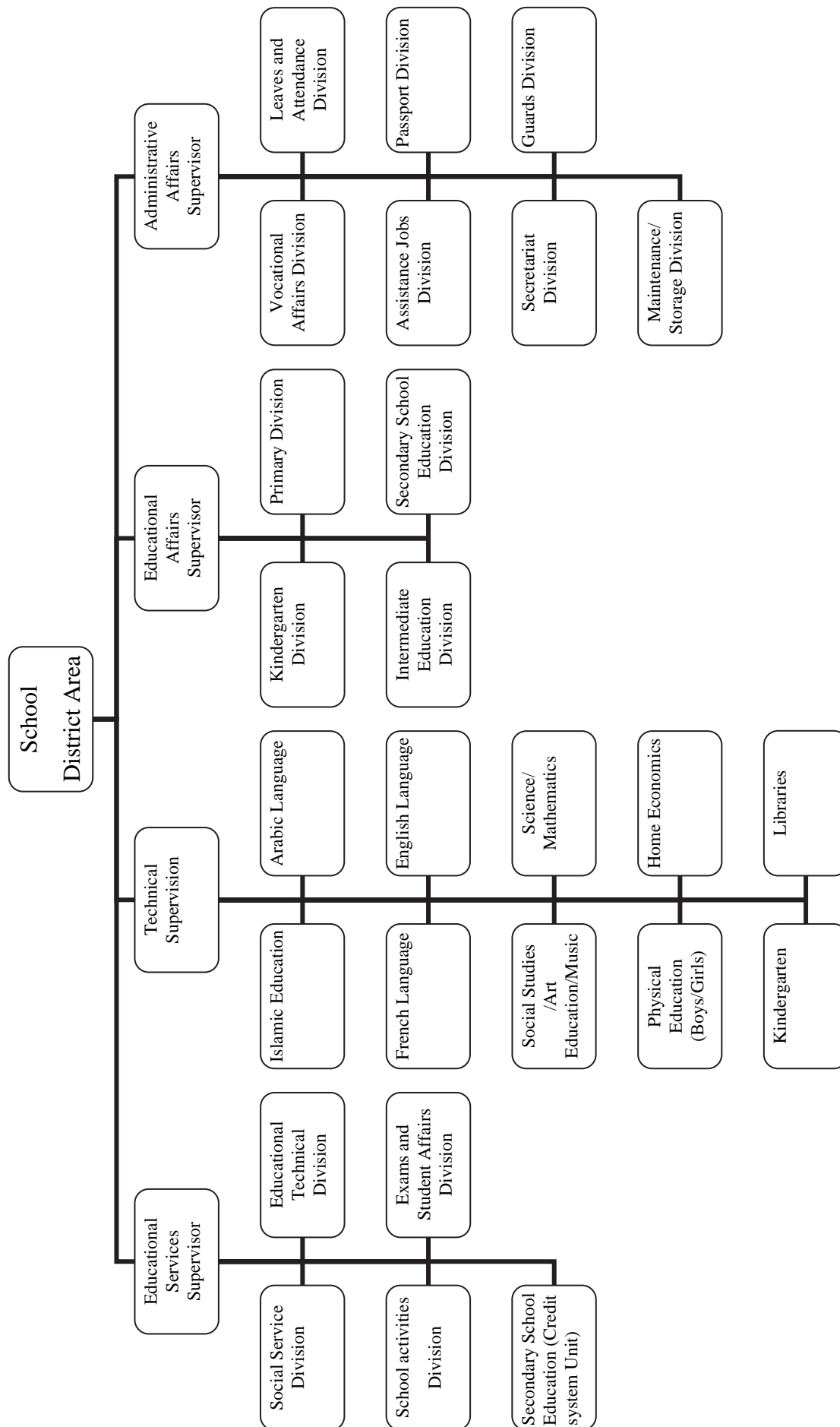
In order to provide and develop the nation's manpower, the Amiri decree of 28th December 1982 was issued. It established a Public Authority for Applied Education and Training. The authority included a Faculty of Basic Education, which was opened

in 1962/1963 and a faculty of commercial studies, which opened in 1975/1976 (Ministry of Education, 1998).

#### ***2.4.9 Modern Trends of Education in Kuwait - Scholarly Missions***

The Ministry of Higher Education focuses currently on sending pupils, on planned scholarly missions. The Ministry's planning depends largely on the requirements and needs of other ministries and governmental authorities (Ministry of Education, 1998).

In the State of Kuwait there are six Educational Districts, namely, Al- Farwania Al-Jahra, Al-Asemah, Hawalli, Mobarak Alkabeer and Al-Ahamadi. According to the Ministry of Planning, the number of primary mainstream schools for both boys and girls (who are separated for cultural and religious reasons) in all Educational Districts is 195. For more information about how the Educational Districts' sectors are divided, see figure below 3.



**Figure 3: School District Area**

## 2.5 Special Schools

The lifestyle of the Kuwaiti people has for centuries been built around Islamic teachings; they had a great effect on the way in which people considered the special needs of the physically disabled. This concern of the Kuwaiti people was demonstrated when the country established the Al-Noor (*light*) school for pupils with visual impairments in the reign of the former Sheikh Abdullah Al-Salim Al-Sabah. The school was established during the academic year 1955-1956, six years before Kuwait gained its independence (Al-Albaan and Al-Mmosalam, 2001).

It can be said that the clearest concern in the field of special school education appeared after the opening of this institute in 1955. During this year a law was passed that all pupils with physical disabilities (see page 89 for definitions) must be educated. The fourth section in this law notes: *pupils who are physically disabled, whether in hearing, visual impairments or mentally disabled, are obliged to attend special schools if they can follow the curriculum* (Special Education, 1990).

The result of ratifying this latter law had a positive effect on the relevant institutes and supplied them with the necessary technology. This law helped people to gain more expertise in the field of SEN and to gain awareness of the widespread advances being made in educating the pupils with physical disabilities (Ahmeed, 2003).

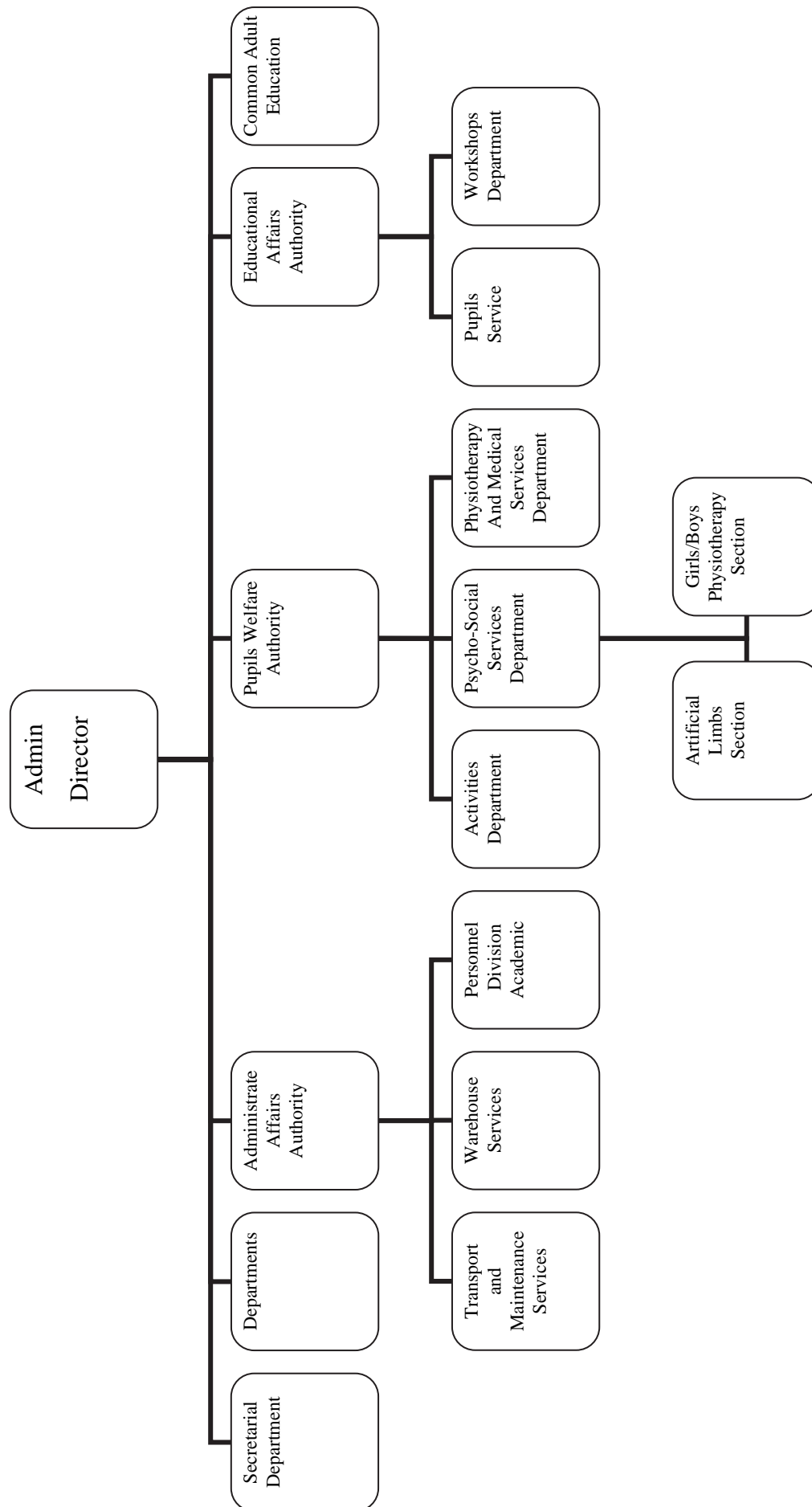
In Kuwait, special schools are offered to those with hearing impairments, visual impairments, the mentally and the physically disabled and individuals with speech impediments, emotional and behavioural disorder, as well as pupils with learning difficulties. The generic name for these pupils is *pupils with disabilities* (Al-Albaan and Al-Mmosalam, 2001). In a world which is gradually coming to terms with the

developmental needs of mentally and physically disabled individuals, the terminology current in Kuwait is slowly going out of use, for the simple reason that ‘disabilities’ may refer to defects which cannot be rectified, due to the lack of knowledge of different types of disabilities they are often put into few extensively large categories, such as physical and mental disabilities, which bars teachers abilities to help these pupils (see page 126 for definitions) if teachers were to gain further knowledge on impairments, SEN and positive outcomes on inclusion, it could bring down barriers teachers are facing when it comes to helping pupils with disabilities.

### **2.5.1 Organizational Chart of the Administration of Special Schools**

As education in the State of Kuwait was extended, the work of the Ministry of Education, which controlled all aspects of education, increased. Hence, to achieve a balance between mainstream schools and special schools in administering education the Ministry in early 1965 adopted a new organizational structure (see Figure 4).

The duties of the administration are to observe, evaluate, supervise and follow up. They deal with all the technical and administrative elements of educational development and their closeness to schools allows them quickly to implement decisions and carry out projects (Al-Albaan and Al-Mmosalam, 2001).



**Figure 4: Organizational Chart of the Administration of Special Schools**

### 2.5.2 The Special Schools Personnel

Table 3 below provides information about the number of individuals by gender and category employed to serve special school needs. The purpose of these statistics is to identify the categories of education provision. As can be seen, the technical and specialized education category accounts for the greatest number of individuals.

**Table 3: Personnel in the Management of Schools offering Special Education**

<b>Female</b>	<b>Male</b>	<b>Job</b>
9	6	General Supervisory Professions/posts
38	20	Technical and Specialized Professions/posts
37	3	Administrative and Executive Professions/posts
5	27	Adjunct Specialized Professions/posts
145		<b>Total</b>

(Ministry of Education, 2006)

As can be seen from Table 4 below, there are 748 special school teachers in Kuwait, a figure which can be used to calculate the student-teacher ratio and compare it with the same ratio in general education.

**Table 4: Teachers and Administrators in Special Schools**

<b>Number</b>	<b>Jobs</b>
14	School Head teachers

17	School Deputy Head teachers
88	School Supervisors
40	Senior Teachers
748	Teachers
9	Inspectors

(Ministry of Education, 2006)

Table 5, which provide a snapshot of the pupils and teachers in the special schools. The rise in the number of pupils has been greater than the rise in the number of teachers, which implies either that: (a) parents are becoming more open than they used to be about sending their pupils to special schools, or (b) There is a relative scarcity of individuals wanting to become special school teachers.



**Table 5: Size of the Educational Process Constituents by Gender and Nationality in Special Schools**

Teachers				Pupils				Class	N/S	Gender	Schools name
Total	K%	N/K	K	Total	K%	N/K	K				
59	49%	30	29	208	84%	34	174	18	1	Boys	Al-Rajaa
84	85%	10	71	180	89%	19	161	19	1	Girls	
143	70%	40	100	388	86%	53	335	37	2	Total	
33	84%	6	27	37	68%	12	25	9	1	Boys	Al-Noor
41	83%	7	34	46	91%	4	42	10	1	Girls	
74	82%	13	61	83	81%	16	67	19	2	Total	
64	49%	33	31	91	51%	45	46	24	1	Boys	Al-Amal
46	83%	8	38	58	74%	51	43	9	1	Girls	
100	69%	41	69	149	60%	60	89	33	2	Total	
58	43%	33	25	95	56%	42	53	12	1	Boys	Job Preparatory
73	84%	12	61	76	75%	19	57	10	1	Girls	
131	63%	45	86	171	64%	61	110	22	2	Total	
35	29%	25	10	260	86%	37	223	19	1	Boys	Intellectual
54	85%	8	46	202	86%	29	173	19	1	Girls	
89	63%	33	56	462	86%	66	396	38	2	Total	
41	59%	13	24	80	84%	13	67	12	1	Boys	Al-Wafaa
53	81%	7	43	107	86%	15	92	17	1	Girls	
94	71%	20	67	187	85%	28	159	29	2	Total	
41	%83	7	34	46	%91	4	42	10	1	Boys	Autism
41	%59	13	24	95	%56	42	53	12	1	Girls	
82	%71	20	58	141	%67	46	95	22	2	Total	

(Ministry of Education, 2006) **K**: Kuwait. **N/K**: No Kuwaitis. **N/S**: Number of Schools

In addition to special school categories of teaching, there also needs to be a big enough body of specialists, such as psychologists and social science specialists, to work with developmental issues of pupils requiring special education. The tables above show the number and percentage of teachers and pupils in special schools in Kuwait. Given the number of pupils in special schools in Kuwait, there is seemingly a shortage of such specialists in the country. The same holds true for individuals associated with the medical profession who might work in special schools. Tables 6, 7 and 8 show and summarise the totals of Number of psychologists, physiotherapists and doctors within special school institutions.

**Table 6: Number of Psychologists and Social Specialists in Special schools**

<b>Psychologists</b>	<b>Specialist Social</b>	<b>School</b>
7	9	Al-Rajaa Schools
9	7	Al-Noor Schools
8	8	Al-Amal Schools
6	5	Job Preparatory Schools
8	13	Intellectual Schools
6	5	Al-Wafaa Schools
6	6	Autism School
50	53	Total

(Ministry of Education, 2006)

**Table 7: The Physiotherapy Section Personnel**

<b>Physiotherapists – Girls’ section</b>		<b>Physiotherapists – Boys’ section</b>	
Female	Male	Female	Male
17	-	15	9

(Ministry of Education, 2006)

**Table 8: The Number of Doctors in Special Schools Clinics**

<b>Doctor Numbers</b>	<b>Clinic Name</b>
4	General Clinic
8	Specialized Clinic
4	Dental Surgery

(Ministry of Education, 2006)

### **2.5.3 The Goals of Special School Administrations**

According to Al-Albaan and Al-Mmosalam (2001), the administration of these schools adopts a special curriculum:

- Finding and analyzing the difficulties faced by pupils with disabilities according to their type of disability.
- Aiding the pupils with disabilities to acquire all the skills needed to live an independent life, whether this is in terms of movement, social relations, building a family or general activities.
- Attempting to provide every possible means for the pupils to learn and acquire experience, despite their disabilities; in other words, building up the pupils' self- esteem to prove to them that even with their disabilities they can do what they want.
- Assisting the pupils with disabilities in an orderly and academic manner to gain social skills which fulfil their social needs and makes them more confident; and helps pupils to be confident and comfortable when interacting with others in society.
- Strengthening the mental, physical and social abilities of the pupils with disabilities in order to promote healthy growth.

- Providing the pupils who experience disabilities with work skills which allow them to effectively perform those tasks which are suited to their abilities; administering the preparation of the pupils to use the new technologies, which will introduce them into the workforce.
- Aiming to improve the situation of pupils with disabilities by every means possible and not to compare one pupil's situation to another's.

Special school provision in Kuwait has made considerable progress since its establishment in 1955. The Al-Noor (*light*) Boys' school for the vision impairment was the first to reveal the ethical basis for special school in Kuwait. When the country first showed its concern over the plight of the pupils with disabilities and their education, more people began to look into the educational needs of pupils with disabilities and to take action.

By the year 1970, Kuwait had 11 special schools spread throughout the country. These schools offered education to all pupils with disabilities who met the requirements for admission, according to a universal scale (Al-Albaan and Al-Mmosalam, 2001).

The special schools were able to improve their curriculum and adjust it to the needs and skills of the pupils with various disabilities and to the ages and stages of all pupils, whatever their educational level. Moreover, in 1965 when it was noted that the numbers of these schools had increased it was decided to combine them all in one area (measuring 15,000 square meters), at a cost of 4 million K.D. For more clarification figure 5 shows the special schools campus in Hawali distract.

**Figure 5: Special School Campus.**



(Ministry of Education, 1971)

Before 1966, pupils with disabilities lived in school buildings or complexes rented by the Ministry of Education. The first academic year for its new schools complex began in 1967. In constructing the buildings, the architects paid special attention to locating the classrooms on the ground floor, in response to the needs of the handicapped. One of the conditions of these institutes was that the pupils should live on campus in dormitories provided for them (Ministry of Education, 1971)

After the on-campus dormitories were built, the existing accommodation was transformed into classrooms and laboratories where pupils could practise the skills required by their courses. The structure of these institutes caught the eye of many architects, at that time it was one of the best special schools complexes in the regions and got a lot of attention.

The improvements made by Kuwait in this field reflected the improvements being made in the rest of the world. It was asked that the needs of pupils with disabilities should be not only the concern of the Ministry of Education, but also of the social services and the Ministry of Health. In addition, religious organizations played their part in this area.

On 25 February 1970, the Amier of Kuwait at that time, Sheikh Sabah Alsalem Alsabah opened the special school institutes, which allowed the State of Kuwait to claim a modern outlook amongst Middle Eastern countries. (See figure 6).

**Figure 6: Opening the Special School Institutes.**



(Ministry of Education, 1971)

Kuwait proceeded to address the needs of special schools by advancing a curriculum for them. In addition, the government continued to provide experienced staff to educate and train pupils with disabilities, with assistance from neighbouring Arab countries such as the Egyptian Republic (see Appendix F for picture). Kuwait also received assistance from Britain, other European countries and the USA and encouraged its citizens who were interested in the field of special education to visit these countries and acquire the knowledge and skills to work in this area (see Appendix D for pictures) In addition, Kuwait encouraged its people to attend Arab conventions where they could learn more about the latest methods in special education. (Alnsrawy, 2006).

The concern of the State of Kuwait in the field of special school education was not limited to extending the curriculum and introducing new technologies, but was rather

broader. After the opening of the educational complex in 1970, it sought to provide the best possible service for meeting special schools needs and improve the services to meet international education standards. The services to which they paid special attention were medical services, finding treatments, psychological and social services, nutritional services, transportation and accommodation services (see Appendix E for pictures). The authorities made sure that all the needs of the pupils with disabilities, in terms of their disabilities, were met. (Arafa, 2005).

It is noteworthy that one of the most important goals in administering special schools was first attained during the academic year 1971-72. Staff worked on examinations for fourth grade pupils at the preparatory institute and granted employment to the deaf pupils in the previously inactive press and upholstery sections, while pupils with different disabilities were employed at special sites in various ministries throughout the country (Ministry of Education, 1972).

A site was chosen beside the special school institutes where graduates of these special school institutes could be employed. Here the pupils were trained and then employed in workplaces on site. Once in post, they could create products according to their abilities and depending on what materials were locally available (see Appendix F for pictures). The idea behind these workplaces on site was to allow the employees to become financially independent, since earning money would increase their confidence. They were encouraged to see themselves as productive and competent people in society (Al-Muslat, 1987).



On 6 September 1975, a production organization was opened for female graduates of the preparatory school, which had the following aims:

Immediately employing pupils after they graduated so as to give them an income to help them launch themselves into the wider workforce, whether in the public or private sector. Keeping them occupied and freeing space for more pupils to prepare for work in the wider job market. This shows the governments commitment to encourage participation and inclusion into the economic sphere of life, after their education has been completed.

Special schools in Kuwait passed through a new phase between the years 1981 and 1990. The aims for special schools were set forth in 1985-6 in a 5-year plan showing what should be in place by 19 April 1990. The implementation of the plan was, however, prevented by the Iraqi invasion, the effects of which took some time to recover from. The actions carried out by the Iraqi troops were extremely inhumane; they destroyed everything in Kuwait from the air: its water, people, land, animals, buildings, etc.

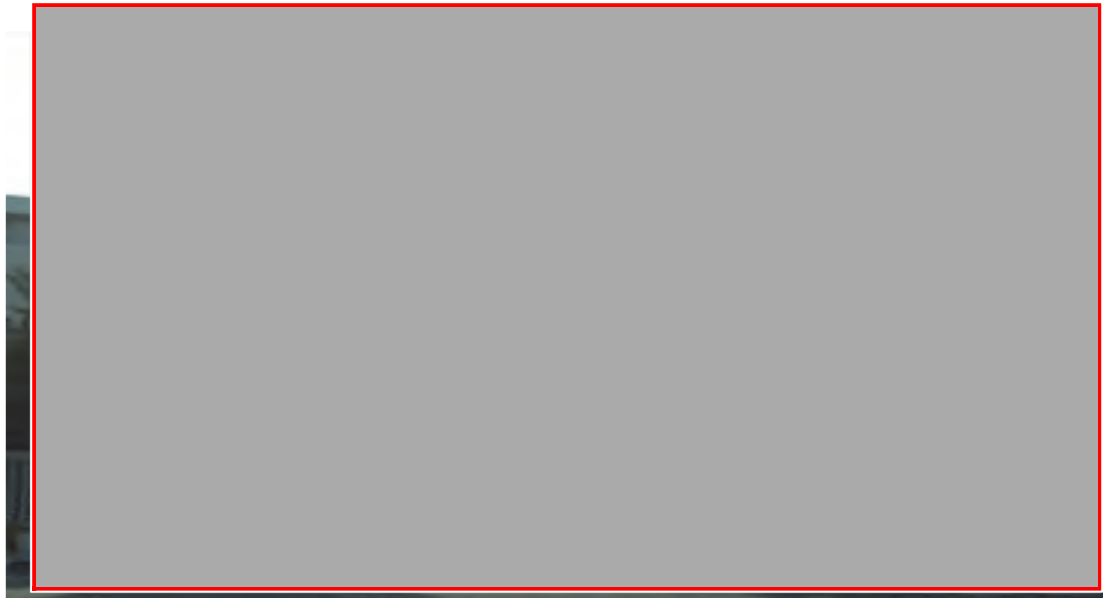
The mechanisms, technologies and facilities of the special schools were heavily looted, destroying all the modern aids to be used in the 5-year plan. The laboratories and rehabilitation equipment were vandalized. Speech impediment tools and hearing aids were destroyed, along with the clinics for the disabled. Worse still, the troops turned the special schools classrooms and halls into torture chambers. Furniture was burned, everything was looted and mass destruction accompanied the invasion (see Appendix G for pictures). However, on 26 February 1991 the country was liberated.

One of the first issues that the country took in hand was rebuilding the education system in order for schools to begin the academic year 1991-92. Special school provision was a major part of this plan. Despite facing the war and its associative affects, the people of Kuwait showed a great courage towards recovery.

The campaign for rebuilding the facilities for special schools began shortly after the liberation of Kuwait. The restructuring in the second phase completed the eleven schools where special education was available, catering for the following areas: physical disabilities, deafness, blindness and mental disabilities (see Appendix H for picture). Finishing these schools cost a great deal of money, because they had needed to take every disability and its needs into consideration. Then the third stage of restructuring involved providing books for all the pupils, in readiness for the coming academic year.

The effort to rebuild, refurnish and re-supply the schools was successful by the start of the 1991-92 school year. Thus, after a difficult beginning and subsequent obstacles to special school, it finally became possible (Ministry of Education, 2002).

**Figure 7: Special Schools in Kuwait**



(Al-Albaan and Al-Mmosalam, 2001)

One of the most important actions in the history of special school in Kuwait came during the academic year 2001-02, when His Eminence Dr. Musaaïd Rashid al-Haroun, the Education Minister, informed the Director-General of UNESCO that the Emir of the State of Kuwait, Sheikh Jabber Al-Ahmad Al-Sabah intended to create a prize, to be known as ‘The Emir Jabber Al-Ahmad Al-Jabber Al-Sabah Prize for Research and Training in Special Needs Education for people with Disabilities’ (see Appendix I) (Ministry of Education, 2005).

Given the context of special schools in Kuwait, this is an important point to mention, because addressing special school in a Middle Eastern country such as Kuwait carries a cultural message. In the past, parents were usually hesitant to send pupils requiring special attention to special schools because of the cultural connotation of bringing up such pupils. Convention dictated that parents should keep pupils at home if they needed special education at home and they preferred home-teaching to public/private

schools. The moves of the government have dispelled the notion that this is something of a taboo issue by bringing it out in the open through focusing on the developmental needs of pupils with disabilities. This was done at the times when there was globally push towards addressing the needs of the pupil with disabilities.

## **2.6 Current and planned mainstreaming in Kuwait**

Looking briefly back to the status of pupils with special education needs, the status can be noticed as:

*It can, to a certain extent, be frustrating due to lack of literature and rapid change in decision –making in relation to education in general and special education in particular (Gaad, 2010, p. 3).*

The two main factors that have delayed the serious concern of including the pupils with special needs in Kuwait are twofold. Firstly, one reason is due to the fact that the government of Kuwait has been changed seven times since 2006 (Katzman, 2012). As a result, the agendas of the Ministry of Education have been changed to meet the demands of national interests, which in turn have affected the approach of inclusion. Secondly, the scarcity of proper research and application has ended up with the misunderstanding of what inclusion is. Schools' administrators, teachers, and mainstream pupils believe that including pupils with special needs will not help them to be effective members in the school's life (Alseed, 2003).

The private school sector started the mainstreaming of pupils with special needs much earlier than the public schools. Within the last decade, *specialized* school programmes

have started up: Fawzia Sultan School, Dasman Model School, Hope School, Creative Children International School, and Ideal Education School which are designed for young people with learning difficulties, hearing and sight impairment, physical disabilities, as well as other multiple disabilities. The Government of Kuwait has been, at last, influenced by the progress made by private schools and programmes designed for pupils with disabilities and they have committed themselves to change to benefit this section of society. As Kuwait moves towards inclusion, the Ministry of Education needs competence and knowledge about various disabilities and strategies for instruction that will permit true inclusion. Gaad also commented on the positive governmental move as she stated:

*Government legislation, policy, provision, and schemes illustrate that nations have good intentions and are committed to the rights of the person with disabilities (Gaad, 2011, p. 94-95).*

Relying too much on foreign educators, like many privately run mainstream and *special education* facilities in Kuwait, can bring its own set of problems. Bazna and Reid (2009), in their study, highlight the dangers of relying primarily on Western teachers and administrators to teach the local, Arab pupils. These pupils are often presented with a predominantly Western curriculum, from a Western-teacher's perspective, at the expense of their own culture and religion.

In addition, speech and physio therapists, as well as school psychologists, are often Western influenced by an *English-language system of diagnosis and instruction*, not sufficiently modified to suit local, cultural differences and needs of pupils with disabilities (p. 3). The authors also cited Ferri and Connor (2006), who describe the mistake Kuwaiti professionals and school investors make, as well as the Western

educators employed in their institutions, of assuming that learning disabilities are generalised on a scientific basis and therefore are unaffected by the cultural environment (p. 5).

In the recent past, parents who sought, and could afford, to have their child assessed formally for learning and other disabilities used private evaluation centres, relying on well-known diagnostic techniques, developed in the West but basically unfamiliar to many locals (p. 7). By equipping local teachers with more skills and understanding of potential pupils' disabilities and needs, the pupils themselves can thus benefit from an educator who has a more deep-rooted understanding of Islam and Islamic laws, as well as collective cultural and social practices that prevail.

Gaad (2011) also wrote about a hindering range of other missing factors, essential for successful inclusion in the Gulf region, particularly: teacher and classroom assistant training, peer awareness, as well as a lack of societal and professional knowledge and awareness about issues related to disability (p. 86). These missing factors have worked against inclusion in the Gulf region, over many years. Some parents continue to have numerous concerns about their children, who can function within a normal, mainstream classroom setting, being impeded by having special pupils in the classroom. Teachers may also feel undue stress and unprepared to deal with pupils of significantly varying abilities and challenges than they are used to. This, in turn could cause them to focus their attention on meeting the challenges for pupils with disabilities, at the expense of time with other pupils.

The placement of pupils with disabilities follows three steps, according to the Ministry of Education. Doctors from the Ministry of Health perform a series of

medical tests to determine a diagnosis of the child's disability (Ministry of Education, 2004). The purpose of the entire assessment is to determine not only disabilities, but to also delineate strengths so ultimately a development plan may be established for every child with special needs. Psychologists carry out psychosocial tests next to determine the psychological status of the child and to analyse the effect his or her social circumstances have on educational progress. The psychologists, medical doctors and special education teachers then meet and discuss the results in order to make decisions regarding the most appropriate placement for the pupil. The process is extensive and thorough and takes longer for more serious disabilities (Ministry of Education, 2002).

Finally, the special education teachers who may have had contact with the child conduct an evaluation based on diagnostic batteries which assess the pupil's educational progress, physical abilities, emotional status, and ability to interact with peers. Teacher input at this point is essential since they spend a great deal of time with pupils in an educational setting. Teacher observations of the pupils' interactions with peers enables them to judge responses, behaviours and achievements and abilities to help the team decide whether and to what extent, the child has a disability.

Thus, special placement decisions are made by medical, psychological and educational specialists. If the child is found to be medically, physically, biologically disabled, he or she is automatically placed in a special education programme. The results of the psychosocial and educational evaluations determine the extent to which the child will receive special education services (Ministry of Education, 2004). Since a great deal of action has not been taken in mainstream schools towards inclusion, it

should be noted at the decision makers are focusing on further strengthening special schools provision instead of developing inclusion of these pupils into mainstream schools.

## **2.7 Conclusion**

During the last few decades, life in Kuwait, particularly in its economic and social aspects, has undergone great changes. One of the greatest changes has been in the field of education. Kuwait showed great interest in education because it saw the foundation of the country's political, economic and social progress. In this chapter, the history of formal education in Kuwait and the role of the government have been briefly outlined. This chapter describes the current organizational pattern and the educational development of schools in the State of Kuwait to meet the needs of Kuwaiti society through educational planning.

At the same time, special schools have been widely used by politicians for their own benefits. This, coupled with the other difficulties associated with special school, has led the government to pay attention towards special school. These difficulties guided more attention towards the needs and services for the special schools. However, they also initiated the question of inclusion in education which needs to be introduced through the proper teaching skills and technology specific to meeting special education needs.

Advanced first world countries kept progressing and improving the quality of inclusion and the associated services and encouraged projects and studies which may introduce new notions to mainstreaming pupils with disabilities. During the 21st



century, inclusion has grown in sophistication. Inclusion helps to find better means of education for both pupils with disabilities and to their families. Moreover, it is to the advantage of the society.

The next chapter provides an overview of the issues that were found in the literature more specifically related to the thesis research questions. The following chapter will also present an overview of the types of disabilities and the attitudes of teachers and head teachers towards inclusion. This study examines importance of teacher/head teachers and educational variables that can impact the efficacy of mainstreaming.

## **CHAPTER THREE: EXPLORING THE RELATED LITERATURE ON INCLUSION**

### **3.1 Introduction**

The need to introduce pupils with the disabilities into mainstream schools has been a goal in Kuwait and has been studied by the government (Al-Albaan and Al-Mmosalam, 2001). Although a great deal of research, thought and effort have been dedicated in the past to address this issue in other countries, and though at every step some progress was made, there remains a great deal more work to be done in order to solve this equity/excellence dilemma. Lupart (2008) reviews the state of the excellence/ equity debate, by saying, it has been considered in separate academic compartments mirroring the segregation of special needs pupils in the mainstream schools. Often the teachers of mainstream schools have the primary goal of excellence in education, as this is the reason for their support of reform, whereas the proponents of inclusion working in the area of special educational needs have equity as the primary goal. Many overlook the idea that both can be achieved at the same time. Inclusion actually needs excellence as inclusion without excellence in educational practice is bound to fail. The debate of equity and excellence is evidence of the importance of inclusion. In the Kuwaiti context, the fact is that inclusion is a new concept. The two main debatable concepts (equity and excellence) are not highly discussed by the decision makers since the inclusion is still at the early stages.

In the previous chapter an historical overview of the myriad political, social, cultural and religious influences on Kuwait's mainstream and special school systems was

presented in order to establish a context for the timeliness of effectively implementing educational inclusion programs in Kuwait now (Ministry of Education, 2002).

This chapter will now provide a review of literature, the purpose of this which is to examine and analyze related research so that this study may contribute to the existing knowledge about effective implementation of inclusion

Several notable patterns emerged regarding the types of studies undertaken on inclusion in general and educators' attitudes in particular. These included: (1) general views on the issue of inclusion; (2) the educators' emphasis on the institutional improvement, the education of educators as regards their role in the successful implementation of inclusion and the role of family in this process; (3) programmes and initiatives aimed at linking pupils with disabilities and mainstream pupils and facilitating mainstream education for the them; (4) the nature of the disability (emotional and behavioural disorder, mental disability, physical disabilities and learning difficulties) and the degree to which its severity plays a role in successful inclusion; and (5) other key factors contributing to the difficulty of implementing inclusion, for example, the impact of cultural perceptions. For the purposes of this literature review, I will look at the associative factors influencing my research questions and will try to find links and clarifications to these research questions.

The objective of this literature review was to explore the subject of inclusion and teachers' and head teachers' attitudes. An attempt was made to collect as much information as possible from international sources. As Kuwait is still in the early stages of studying and implementing the inclusion process, it was important to look at

the broader international progress of the movement. It was assumed that the work done on inclusion of the pupil with disabilities in countries such as the United States, Great Britain and Canada would provide inspiration to work on inclusion in countries still developing concepts and policies in this area of education, such as Kuwait. Looking at countries in the midst of development or for whom inclusion is a new issue was of interest, in the sense that they are able to benefit from the experience of the aforementioned nations.

It was deemed necessary to travel to Bahrain to obtain local research material (specific to the Gulf region), which was not available anywhere else. Travel to Bahrain was necessary because inclusion is a new concept in Kuwait, and little research has been done in Kuwait in this area. Bahrain has an extensive library, so I travelled there hoping to find studies on inclusion in the Gulf region.

### **3.2 Inclusion: An Overview**

Before addressing teachers' attitudes towards inclusion specifically, a general overview of the situation and the main arguments in the literature regarding inclusion will be given here. The first step in the discussion of any polemic must be the defining of key terms and principles. In this case, as Wilson (2000) argues, the *identification of inclusion* is the first task to address (p. 298). Wilson (2000) wants the reader to consider what underlies this term and concept, which have become part of mainstream thought. He posits that the idea is linked with principles inherent to the human sense of justice, such as fraternity and equality and that in order to put these ideals into practice in the most useful way, we must know exactly what we mean by inclusion

and not, as Thomas and Glenny (2002) suggest, confuse this with sentimentality. Wilson (2000) claims as well that many of these well-intentioned, politically correct definitions are vacuous and mistaken. He takes issue with Thomas, Walker and Thomas et al's (1998) definition of inclusion as *community-based* and *barrier-free*, and promoting *collaboration* and *equality* (p. 299). As it is fundamental to have a definition from which to work, Wilson (2000) is correct, in the sense that one of the first goals should be to create a common but dynamic definition of inclusion which is based in reality rather than on utopian ideals. The latter, in terms of influencing the attitudes of educators, could serve only to discourage and belittle the truth of the experience, however positive or negative. Attitudes must not emerge from ideal or abstract definitions but rather from practice and use.

*The Salamanca Statement* of 1994, recalling the commitment to *the education of every individual, as enshrined in the 1948 Universal Declaration of Human Rights* laid out in detail the 1993 United Nations Standard Rules on the Equalization of Opportunities for Persons with Disabilities, applauds the greater involvement thus far and calls for increased action by all governments to take the actions necessary for better services for disabled people. According to the statement:

*[i]nclusion refers to the opportunity for persons with disabilities to participate fully in all of the educational, employment, consumer, recreational, community and domestic activities that typify everyday society* (The Salamanca Statement of 1994).

For the purpose of this study, inclusion refers to educating pupils with disabilities in mainstream schools. The definition provided by the Salamanca Statement as the umbrella for all the efforts and good intentions being made, leaves inclusion still a widely debated topic. The concerns over its feasibility and, eventually, its fairness cover the range of all who are touched by it – the educators, the parents, the mainstream pupils and their disabled counterparts. Nonetheless, inclusion is a global trend based on an idea which is now, after nearly two decades, causing all those involved to question its progress and rethink its future.

Gow (1988) discusses the findings of research undertaken in Australia to serve as part of a three-country study (France and Sweden being the other two). The paper initially gives an overview of Australia's history of inclusion (or as Gow calls it, *integration*) and a description of its setting up, dating back thirty years, the author details the country's recent developmental policies and barriers to the process. This is followed by a discussion of the constraints of the process of synthesizing school reviews, the interviewing of personnel, as well as lobby and union groups and the interpreting of official government documentation (p. 2). Although Gow noted a lack of statistical evidence as far back as 1988, a general appreciation of the need for inclusion is put forward. As Gow's (1988) research analysis reveals, *In Australia, the integration debate is no longer centred on 'why' or 'whether'...but on 'how much' and 'how best* (p. 3). It could be said that this shift in focus should or could apply to the majority of developed countries, but this does not yet include Kuwait, despite its wealth. Indeed, one of the essential steps in its development will have to be a widespread change in attitudes to the inclusion of SEN pupils in mainstream education. The author's conclusions reveal that barriers to inclusion are among other things, the interpretation

of a pupil's *right* to enter a mainstream school depending on the availability of resources in place, a lack of collaboration among the most important players in the inclusion effort (school personnel, parents and pupils as well as administrators and policy makers) and the burden of proof being laid on the schools themselves rather than the entire educational structure. The author concludes that, if SEN pupils are to be educated without segregation, there needs to be collaboration and cooperation at all levels, investment in teacher training and corporate sponsorship to provide the funding required to ensure that these barriers are overcome.

Farrell (2000) argues, for example, that

*the placement of pupils with SEN in mainstream schools should be informed by a consideration of the effectiveness of the venue in raising academic and personal and social standards (p. 36)*

Rather than inclusion as an automatic right, He goes on to argue that the trend toward inclusion, though a human right of those with disabilities, is not necessarily appropriate for all pupils. For this reason, it is crucial to assess the success of the venue itself and to implement creative change where necessary. This process of self-assessment and eventual change must equally be a commitment made at all levels, from the head teacher of the administration to the parents and their willingness to invest in their pupils' futures by allowing for and encouraging experimentation. Farrell's (2000) view is that the inappropriateness of the term 'mainstream inclusion' is synonymous with the fact that rather than the schools adapting to the SEN pupils' needs effectively, the pupils must adapt in order to become part of the mainstream or *norm*, which is both unlikely and unfair. He proposes a change in terminology by adopting the term *educational inclusion* (p. 38).

Lindsay (2003) makes a distinction between what he calls the *conceptual and practical issues* in his argument for inclusive education, based on the evidence which he educes to support its benefits (p. 5). Again, the question of rights versus efficacy is presented, echoing the concerns presented by Farrell (2000). However, unlike Farrell, Lindsay (2003) looks at both sides of the question; that is, should efficacy be considered to outweigh pupils' rights of inclusion or vice versa?

These are all key points in the discussion of inclusion and are in no way limited to the English or other developed country contexts. In considering these works in the case of Kuwait, though a caution in relation to comparison, a number of lessons can be taken away and integrated into its efforts to improve inclusion.

### ***3.2.1 Overview of Studies of Teacher Attitudes Towards Inclusion***

The research undertaken in this literature review examines the attitudes of teachers and educators toward the inclusive education of pupils with disabilities alongside mainstream pupils. The literature reviewed for this section supports the observation that educators and researchers alike have overwhelmingly agreed that the most significant factor in ensuring the success of special education is the relationship forged between the teacher and pupil. This relationship is primarily based on the teacher's perception of the goals of inclusion; whether or not he or she agrees with these goals, receives the support and means necessary to handle such instances and the method or approach used in the classroom (Avramidis et al., 2000). Innumerable factors and possibilities exist in the realm of inclusion and determine its effectiveness.



The focus of this literature review examines the importance of several key factors. These factors include the nature and severity of the disability, the familial situation and support system, the experience of the educator (both professionally and in training) and the cultural context all play a role in the way that the teacher will perceive his or her ability to effectively educate and integrate the pupil without loss to the other pupils in the class.

In the research, several trends come to the forefront. For example, general education teachers with more experience tend to feel more comfortable at having pupils with disabilities in their classrooms than less experienced ones (although this does not necessarily hold true for all cultural contexts), female teachers tend to be more open to inclusion than male counterparts, certain subjects are more easily adapted to inclusion than others and the acceptance of inclusion by educators is in large part based on the nature and severity of the disability. (Alghazo and Gaad, 2004)

The collection of these factors, as well as the individuality of each case and context, creates a varied and broad tableau of attitudes toward inclusion. One thing that is clear is that many teachers do not fully appreciate how their approach to the question of inclusion ultimately affects its outcome. There is an overwhelming call from all sides for increased training and support systems. These points and teachers' attitudes will be explored through an examination of the literature on the subject in this review.

### ***3.2.2 Factors Influencing Teacher Attitudes***

The interrelation between the many factors that influence teachers' attitudes have been uncovered through research. Responses may vary according to the disabling condition, the nature of the disability and/or the educational problems presented (Avramidis et al., 2002). According to Salvia and Munson (1986, in Avramidis and Norwich, 2002), the factors affecting teacher attitudes can be divided into so called child-related variables (for example, type of disability) and teacher-related variables (for example, experience of contact). Moreover, educational environment-related variables refer to factors associated with the educational context.

For example, in Gaad's (2001) study of the attitudes of teachers in two large Dubai schools which implemented inclusion, it was found that additional training and administrative support were essential components.

The teachers' rejection of inclusion in many cases stemmed from their perceived lack of support and resources. Firstly, the mainstream teachers indicated they lack appropriate instructional material needed for students with SEN. Secondly, the teachers did not have sufficient time to produce instructional material and consult with experienced teachers. Teachers indicated that the large teaching load in the mainstream classroom makes it hard for them to meet the needs of their students with SEN effectively.

Some teacher's perceptions about the type of training needed included effective strategies that could be applied to common problems that arise in the classrooms.

Some other teachers asked for training on understanding characteristics of students with SEN (Gaad, 2001).

Arif, Gaad and Scott (2006), further contend it is important to train teachers in not only the content of the curriculum, but they must have an understanding of the pupils for whom it is intended. In order for curricula to be delivered effectively teachers must have a supporting administrative structure and must be trained to implement the processes involved in teaching and learning. Teacher attitudes about working with disabled pupils depend on their comfort and success implementing the learning process with them. Teachers will be comfortable and successful if they are properly trained.

### **3.3 Child-related Variables**

Many studies have found that the most fundamental factors influencing teachers' attitudes towards inclusion are child-related rather than teacher-related (Avramidis and Norwich, 2002). In many cases, a positive attitude towards inclusion depends on the severity and type of disability that the child has.

#### ***3.3.1 Types of Disability***

In their (2000) study, Croll and Moses examine one of the prevailing issues in the ongoing discussion about inclusion in mainstream schools – that of the nature and severity of the child's disability. This British study demonstrates the widespread

support for inclusion as an ideal which is echoed by educational systems across the world, with acceptance by teachers and head teachers of the fact that the ideal is far from being the norm; before this can happen, educational policy must better reflect the means to achieve the desired ends. Equally, the acceptance of views pertaining to the limitations of inclusion based on the pupil's disability and its severity cannot be ignored; the teachers interviewed for this study agreed that *ideological commitment to inclusionist ideals* should not override the needs of the population whom they are supposed to serve (p. 2). The study, which surveys head teachers in mainstream primary schools and special schools, as well as education officers responsible for special education, exemplifies just a few of the myriad differences in the thinking about inclusion; in some cases, mainstream teachers had first-hand experience or proof of effective inclusion of pupils with even the most serious disabilities. In other cases, teachers felt that the limitations of inclusion, which were largely based on institutional policy, were too great to overcome. In all cases, teachers, head teachers and officers agreed that the primary consideration should be the welfare and well-being of the pupils as a whole.

More specifically, Gaad (2001) also found, through questionnaires and interviews with mainstream teachers in Dubai who include special needs students in their classes, that there were marked differences in their attitudes toward varying exceptionalities.

All the mainstream teachers surveyed held the opinion that pupils with SEN were disruptive to other pupils in the class. Teachers had a positive attitude towards educating pupils with Learning Difficulties, Some of them were of an opinion that students with Behavioural Disorders, Physical Disability and Health Impairments

could be included in the mainstream classrooms. However, the teachers had negative attitudes towards the inclusion of pupils with Hearing Impairment, Communication Disorder, Intellectual Challenges and Profound and Multiple Learning Disabilities (PMLD ) (Gaad, 2001).

### **3.3.2 Impairments**

Wall (2002) cites Home's 1983 study on the preferential hierarchy of disabilities for general education teachers. Almost overwhelmingly, teachers favoured the idea of working with visually impaired pupils compared with other pupils with disabilities on the basis of their previous experience and their belief in being able to effectively educate these pupils (p.111). Wall's (2002) study looks specifically at the phenomenon of teachers' attitudes toward visually impaired pupils in the mainstream classroom, exploring the question of how significantly exposure to the visually impaired prior to classroom experience affected teachers. The study was aimed at revealing several points regarding teachers' self-perception of their own attitudes, teachers' concerns about such pupils, optimal placement of such pupils and classroom modifications for such pupils. Wall (2002) identifies three *broad clusters of beliefs* held by teachers of visually impaired pupils, relating to the personal, public and professional areas. Some of these points included *not expecting too little from the pupils, using a team approach and functional materials* as well as creating *the least restrictive environment* (p. 112). Teachers seemed to consider visually impaired pupils less challenging to teach, despite their physical impairment, than emotionally or behaviourally challenged pupils (Wall, 2002). The results of the study showed that those teachers who had had the least exposure to visually impaired pupils tended to

feel the least comfortable with inclusion, tended to have expectations of the pupils that were either too high or too low and were less capable of adapting the classroom environment and course materials to the needs of these pupils (Wall, 2002). In conclusion, it is the matter of exposure to pupils with disabilities and teacher training which will make the difference in improving these attitudes, in Wall's view (2002). School administrations must see to it that teachers have a hands-on opportunity to work with pupils with disabilities by setting up programmes whereby general education teachers can occasionally work side by side with special needs teachers.

Without being included in the mainstream hearing impaired pupils are more likely to identify social barriers to their use of computer technologies. Douglas, et al., 2007, found in an extensive survey of 1007 visually impaired adults, that their access to computers, and therefore their access to information, communication and employment were often inhibited by social barriers such as cost, availability and accessibility of equipment, and availability of training. (Douglas et al, 2007). Thus training teachers to include visually impaired pupils is of prime importance.

However, Lampropoulou and Padelliadu's (1997) research on teachers of deaf pupils shows that attitudes varied according to the placement. Through an examination of three different schools in Greece, the researchers discovered that generally negative attitudes toward deaf people and other obstacles make their inclusion difficult. The inclusion of deaf pupils is a rather new initiative in Greece and research has shown that the placement of pupils with hearing impairment into the mainstream classroom has had a high success rate, especially in terms of their social integration. As very few studies on teachers' attitudes toward the deaf have been conducted, it is difficult to

say which factors (teacher experience, classroom support, etc.) lead to greater acceptance on the part of the teachers. However, it would seem that attitudes toward inclusion of the deaf in the mainstream classroom are not determined by teacher experience, sex or age. In fact, as in the findings of Cook et al. (1999), of those surveyed, special education teachers themselves had more negative attitudes than had either general education teachers with no experience of teaching the disabled or those with experience in the inclusive classroom (Lampropoulou and Padelliadu, p. 51). Finally it is perhaps these teachers who know their pupils' needs best, having worked intimately with these pupils and being familiar with their social needs and who are most apt at determining the validity of inclusion for pupils with hearing impairment.

Hedeen and Ayres (2002) examine the results of an individualized language arts program created for Luke, a pupil with disability and followed for a course of two years from second to fourth grade. Also presented in the article is the educational matrix *that guided the team [of teachers and counsellors] in making individualized adaptations to promote active participation in classroom activities* (p. 180). This approach is an illustration of the type of creativity and flexibility required of educators to meet the call of Jones et al. (2002) for *equifinality* and putting inclusion successfully into practice. The educators whose work is examined in this study were able to realize the need for the *accommodations and adaptations required for successful inclusion of a pupil with disabilities*. The impetus in the case of Luke, who has cerebral palsy as well as visual impairment and paralysis, was the frustration of his first grade reading teacher who struggled with having to divide her attention between Luke and the other pupils in the class. Unlike most cases involving inclusion, *Luke's goals and objectives are thoughtfully embedded in the ongoing activities of the*

*classroom*, which in turn affects the teacher's attitude toward inclusion by making her feel confident in her ability to help Luke achieve his personalized goals without concern that he is not *keeping up* with the class (p. 184). It is also important to note that the strategies used by the educative team *will ensure access not just to the general education curriculum but also to classroom lessons and routines*, so as to promote the inclusion process at every level (p. 185). As a result, all of the teachers involved with Luke's education during these years ended with a very positive attitude toward inclusion and no longer felt hesitant about welcoming a pupil with special needs to their classroom. As the authors suggest, there is no one matrix that can effectively be applied to every pupil. Heeden and Ayres' (2002) study conveys the view that each case is individual and, to be successful, must be treated on an individual basis.

The research of Ward et al. (1994) shows that attitudes towards inclusion of those pupils with mild physical, visual and hearing difficulties are more positive than towards pupils with serious visual, hearing, intellectual and sensory disabilities. The authors argue that the teachers preferred the inclusion of pupils who do not cause interruptions and problems to the current teaching organisation and did not require additional teacher skills. The study of Forlin (1995) has similar findings. This study explores the attitudes of educators in Western Australia and finds that most teachers thought that only those pupils with mild intellectual and physical disabilities should be integrated into mainstream schools. Even then, they considered that this type of inclusion should be part-time. The research shows that educators favoured pupils with physical rather than intellectual disabilities and the more severe the disability – cognitive or physical – the less positive were the teachers' attitudes.



Dockrell and Lindsay (2001) deal with specific language and speech disabilities pointing to a much overlooked problem faced by educators working with such pupils in the mainstream setting. This British study, which took a sample of sixty-nine pupils from both mainstream and specialised schools, used various tools to measure the pupils' progress, the feelings about their progress and the teachers' perspectives on their pupils. Three main issues are identified by the authors as affecting teachers' attitudes: first, the need to understand the particular disability; second, the possibility of collaboration with other professionals for support and intervention; and third, proper resources to support such interventions (Dockrell and Lindsay, 2001). The interviews with teachers revealed that teachers feel frustrated by the fact of the pressure on them to implement successful inclusion programmes in their classrooms without the proper support, thus creating a sense of abandonment and often of failure. As the authors state, *the picture presented is not encouraging* (p. 388). Dockrell and Lindsay (2001) reveal a phenomenon which has been largely ignored: when teachers feel that their efforts to educate pupils with learning difficulties in the mainstream setting is *under-resourced* and *under-skilled*, their feelings tend towards negativity, failure and demoralisation (p. 390).

The sense of failure with the inclusion process revealed in this study may have deeper causes. As discussed above, Croll and Moses (2000) show in their British study that among education officers and head teachers inclusion is often supported as an ideal, but one with practical limitations. They discuss the *tension between different aspects of thinking with regard to special educational needs among educational practitioners and local-level policy makers* (p. 2). They find that, while most educators support the aims of inclusion, many argue that, in practice, this depends on the severity of the

disability. The authors use the concept of utopia to claim that it can be applied to the notion of inclusion because it is *idealistic, in that it represents what many people desire but regard as a far distant aspiration* (p. 9). Their study finds that:

*an utopian view of inclusion, the desire for 'a better way of being', is widely shared; many contemplating the best sort of education system in the best sort of society would choose inclusive education in an inclusive society. However, they may desire this utopian ideal without hoping for it* (p. 10).

While nearly all those surveyed felt that inclusion was theoretically an important initiative, ideologically speaking, there was an inherent mistrust of the seemingly utopian way of approaching it. This is an important aspect to be explored, since examining teachers' attitudes towards the *implementation* of inclusion would eliminate any ideological bias. In part, this dilemma presents itself in many other moral issues, for instance, *pollution*. Most people agree that pollution is unacceptable, yet they fail to take action which would help eliminate pollution.

In sum, it seems that teacher attitudes depend to a large degree on factors related to the pupils with disabilities. Teachers are more negative towards the inclusion of pupils with severe disabilities. Similarly, the inclusion of pupils with physical, hearing or visual difficulties is favoured but not the inclusion of pupils with emotional-behaviour or cognitive impairments. It could be hypothesised that the reason why teachers in general oppose the inclusion of pupils with more serious disabilities is related to the confidence of teachers and their beliefs about being able to deal with such pupils in the mainstream school. Thus, child-related variables are inherently linked to teacher-related variables.

### 3.4 Teacher Related Variables

A large body of research exists investigating the factors associated with teachers, such as their age and experience of contact with the pupils in question. Shade and Stewart (2001) claim that although teacher' attitudes are absolutely *critical* to inclusion (p. 69), considerations such as the level of education, training, the teacher's experience of contact with pupils with disabilities and the severity of the disability are factors contributing to the success or failure of inclusion in mainstream education. Thus, making a blanket statement about teachers' attitudes toward inclusion is impossible; the myriad of factors (experience, culture, type of disability) involved in determining this attitude also render this task all but impossible. Lewis and Lewis (1988) mention Although no US federal law obliges schools to implement full inclusion, the authors discuss the current tendency toward the adoption of inclusion models by an increasing number of schools (Shade and Stewart, 2001). Like Croll and Moses (2000), who argue that inclusion is a utopian ideal, they contend that, to some extent, the true purpose of the model has been lost and that it has become a fixture in education rhetoric rather than a developing entity. This purpose requires constant revisiting and improvement. Many teachers, they reveal, felt incapable of giving even a mildly disabled pupil all the attention that s/he would need to succeed in the regular classroom setting. Thus, *inclusionary practices may be defeated if general education teachers do not have positive attitudes to these practices* (p. 40). Again, the authors point to the importance of professional development in achieving the goal of balancing mainstream and pupils with disabilities in the classroom. Only through intensive training, in which teachers learn about the different types of exceptionality, learn to identify the pupil's disability and learn to teach these pupils within the

mainstream classroom setting, can these goals be achieved. Their study tested the attitudes of pre-service teachers before and after they had participated in a training course on special education. Their results support the larger hypothesis that training makes for more positive attitudes toward inclusion.

Stanovich and Jordan's study (1998) of Canadian teachers and head teachers seeks to *predict the performance of teacher behaviours associated with effective teaching in the heterogeneous classroom* based on variables identified as critical to effective classroom practice (p. 222). These variables include teacher beliefs, teacher attitudes, head teacher beliefs and school policy. Not surprisingly, individual teacher attitudes were greatly affected by the individual school policies and norms, which were directly associated with the head teacher's beliefs in the benefits of inclusion and the way in which these beliefs were enacted. However, the authors also identify a second prevailing belief, which in turn greatly affects teachers' classroom behaviour and, subsequently, their performance. This is the teachers' belief that the pupil's *learning or behavioural problem exists within the pupil* (p. 225). This proved to be particularly true in the case of behavioural problems, more than for learning difficulties, leading back to the point made at the beginning of Stanovich and Jordan's study (1998) study that the nature of the disability plays a role in determining teacher attitudes. This study also shows how child-related variables are associated with teacher-related variables.

### ***3.4.1 Age and Teaching Experience***

Snyder (1999) gives an overview of the history of special schools and inclusion but primarily deals with his own study examining the attitudes of the graduate student teachers, all of whom studied under his sponsorship, toward the inclusion of pupils with disabilities at their schools, the general attitude in these schools and the training for work with pupils with disabilities which was received by the in-service study group. The results of the study reveal that, although some resources had been put in place for pupils with disabilities (including resource libraries and teaching aids) in none of the sites had total inclusion been achieved. This was particularly true in the case of pupils with severely disabilities. One of the most fundamental problems for teachers as far as inclusion was concerned was the lack of support and training in implementing inclusion. Thus, speaking broadly, an undercurrent of resentment or negativity was evident in this study regarding inclusion. Another problem lies in the lack of communication between mainstream teachers and special school teachers and the lack of dialogue facilitated by the administration. The response *I feel that I wasn't prepared for what I am experiencing in my classroom* was often expressed by the study subjects (p. 178). Snyder (1966) concludes by restating the point that for inclusion to work and that for educators to feel good about it, proper special education training should first be put in place in teachers' undergraduate and graduate preparation and then developed on a regular basis throughout their professional careers.

In a similar study, Burke and Sutherland (2004) examine pre-service and in-service teachers' experience with pupils with disabilities and their attitudes toward inclusion.

The authors' research reveals, unsurprisingly, that teachers who had prior experience with pupils with disabilities and knowledge of their needs were more likely to have a positive attitude toward inclusion than teachers with less experience in this area. As most confirm, these authors maintain that the success of inclusion depends on the attitudes of those who work most closely with the pupils with disabilities. The study's subjects were pre-service and in-service 4<sup>th</sup> grade public school teachers in Brooklyn, New York. In the authors' view, inclusive teachers ideally do not ask, *How does this pupil have to change in order to be a fourth grader?* but wonder *How do we have to change in order to offer full membership to our pupils with disabilities?* (p. 165). However, this is unfortunately not always the case. The authors cite Shade and Stewart (2001), who posit that *even with the best of intentions, if teachers are not given the proper tools and support with which to make inclusion work in their classrooms, they will become frustrated and desperate* (p. 37). These feelings in turn will lead to feelings of inadequacy and incompetence on the part of the teachers, rendering them functionally unable to act out their mission and leaving them, as Snyder (1999) would concur, with negative sentiments regarding inclusion. These negative feelings can in turn have a detrimental effect on the pupil, who feels s/he is a burden. Burke and Sutherland's (2004) study finds a disparity between attitudes towards pupils with learning difficulties and behaviourally and emotionally disorderd pupils, regardless of the teacher's prior experience, which in other cases would probably be a factor. Nevertheless, Burke and Sutherland (2004) conclude, like Snyder, that the greatest barrier to positive teacher attitudes toward inclusion is lack of preparation among educators.

### 3.4.2 *Experience of Contact*

It is generally assumed that teachers' experience of contact with pupils with disabilities will have an effect on their attitudes towards inclusion. Avramidis and Norwich (2002) maintain that:

*the 'contact hypothesis' suggests that as teachers implement inclusive programmes and therefore get closer to pupils with significant disabilities, their attitudes might become more positive (p. 138).*

A study of English primary and secondary school teachers' attitudes towards inclusion showed similar patterns to those of American teachers; teachers with more exposure to pupils with disabilities and with more training felt more efficient in implementing inclusion practices in the classroom (Avramidis et al., 2000). However, the opinion of Dockrell and Lindsay (2001) should be recalled that exposure and training are not enough and that knowledge about types of disability, support from other professionals and proper resources are also important factors shaping the attitudes of teachers. Nevertheless, Avramidis et al. (2000) contend that legislation, such as the Green Paper, Excellence for All Children, published in the UK in October 1997 *which vigorously supports the principle that pupils with special educational needs should, wherever possible, be educated in mainstream schools*, in itself is not likely to solve the problem (p. 192). The differentiation of attitudes was for the most part based on the nature of the disability; whereas physical disabilities were considered manageable, emotional and behavioural disabilities were not. Attitudes about the philosophy of inclusion itself tended to vary, as they did in an Australian study which the authors cite, undertaken between 1985 and 1989. The authors also cite a survey by Bowman (1986) of several Middle Eastern, African, South American and European countries,

in which attitudes toward inclusion depended in large part on the nature of the disability. The least favoured were the severely and multiply impaired but teachers had more positive attitudes toward working with those who had sensory impairments. The English study cites a number of other comparative studies of countries as well, making it an useful resource on this subject.

Avramidis and Norwich (2002) cite numerous studies in the USA, Australia and the UK which found that the more experience teachers had with pupils with disabilities, the more positive were their attitudes towards inclusion;

*These studies seem to suggest that contact with pupils with significant disabilities, if carefully planned (and supported), results in positive changes in educators' attitudes (p. 138).*

Moreover, teacher experience seems to be crucial, not only in more *developed* countries, but also in other parts of the world. Parasuram (2006) carried out a study in India to investigate teachers' attitudes towards both inclusion and people with disabilities. She finds that numerous factors influence teachers' attitudes towards people with disabilities, such as age, income level, education level and experience of contact. However, the results show that the only variable to have an effect on inclusion was experience of contact. Nevertheless, the author points to the fact that teachers in the study had no pupils with disabilities in their classrooms, because inclusion is new to India. This study is interesting since the context is similar to Kuwait, where teachers have not had much experience of pupils with disabilities in their classrooms. Following from the results, the author suggests implementing *in-*



*service awareness programmes and attitude-change workshops for teachers in India* and, because research on teacher attitudes is absent,

*attitude-change workshops with pre-and post-tests would be very helpful indicators to guide educators and advocates who are working towards inclusion (p. 240).*

She also proposes that in order to implement a successful inclusion programme, it would benefit teachers before the inclusion of pupils in their classrooms, to have planned contact with people who have disabilities.

However, some studies have found that teachers with less experience with pupils with disabilities had more positive attitudes towards inclusion. Croll and Moses (2000) find that those with less first-hand contact with the pupils tended to have a more positive and idealistic view of inclusion. Similarly, Forlin (1995) shows that those teachers who had been teaching in schools which implemented inclusion, as opposed to those with no such experience, were more negative in their attitudes, because they felt that the pressure of managing both disabled and mainstream pupils could be demanding.

### **3.4.3 Training**

Slee's survey (2001) of some of the salient issues in the debate over inclusion includes the establishment of training programmes for teachers to work with pupils with disabilities. As many of the issues are so closely interwoven (for instance, as Slee himself states, institutional policies and practice and the role of parents) in the debate on inclusion, teacher training is basic in the effort to achieve the successful implementation of inclusion (p. 114). The author equally takes time to define some of

the key terms in this debate, most notably the need to be aware of the many interpretations and meanings attached to the word *inclusion*. Another issue discussed in this paper is the question of *inclusion into what?* (p. 116). The author cites the fact that defining what is *mainstream* is in and of itself part of the problem (p. 116). He gives an example of the trend towards racialisation in state schools, adding yet another layer to an already complex problem. The author's third point concerns the methods of collecting data and the type of research which has so far been undertaken. Finally, Slee (2001) looks at the issue of teacher training. Unlike many critics and somewhat akin to Thomas and Glenny's (2002) position, the author feels that the special education training imposed on teachers in some districts in Australia is counter-productive and instils a sense of counter-intuition in educators, causing them to function more on the basis of ideals and beliefs than on their basis of their ability and intrinsic know-how. Furthermore, it can have the effect of further widening the gap between mainstream pupils and pupils with disabilities who share the same classroom.

Teacher stress, whether in mainstream schools or special schools, is a constant topic of discussion with little done to ameliorate its effects. Williams and Gersch (2004) discover in their study that, of the educators surveyed in this study (slightly more than half of whom came from special schools), the experience of stress was relatively similar in the two cases. Stress, it was noted, was generally due to two major factors: (1) *pupils' poor attitudes to work*, and (2) *heavy workload* (p. 158). Previous studies cited by the authors examined different *coping techniques* used by teachers. These techniques, which are categorized as either *direct action* or *indirect action*, involve either adoption strategies that will alleviate the stress in the long term (i.e. the

changing of personal habits – direct) or the avoidance or temporary relief of stress (i.e. physical engagement in sports or relaxation activities, drinking alcohol – indirect) (p. 160). What differed greatly between the two groups of educators were the causes of stress. On the one hand, mainstream teachers found lack of time and pupil-related causes to be the greatest stress factor whereas special school teachers were more troubled by the general lack of resources. The authors recommend that assistance from head teachers might be useful in helping teachers find a better balance and better time management. Additional funding would also be helpful in terms of offering more options for buying classroom materials, especially in the case of special schools where such resources could play an important role.

Although stress is something that many teachers may experience when teaching mainstream and pupils with disabilities in the same classroom, it could be reduced to a large degree and teachers' attitudes towards inclusion could become more favourable, if they are provided with proper training. Dickens-Smith (1995) surveyed mainstream and special teachers' attitudes towards inclusion, both before and after the completion of training. The results of this study indicate that teachers' attitudes improve after training. This study, as many others already mentioned above, suggests that training is crucial in the development of attitudes towards inclusion and in the inclusion process itself.

#### ***3.4.4 Teachers' Cultural and Social Views***

Cultural and social factors are crucial and should not be overlooked in studying teachers' attitudes towards inclusion. Attitudes are inherently social and cultural and

they *should not be viewed as solely personal, but as arising out of interactions with others in the system (e.g. school)* (Avramidis and Norwich, 2002, p. 144). In the discussion about inclusion, which in many ways has become a universal initiative, it is necessary to keep in mind the important role which culture plays in defining both attitudes of teachers and head teachers toward pupils with disabilities.

Attitude studies show that some citizens of the Gulf region and the greater Middle East who have been tolerant towards those with disabilities sometimes, however, hold on to condescending ideologies that see assisting people with disabilities as acts of mere charity (Cate & Profanter, 2009). Teachers, being members of the community, have sometimes shown sympathy toward pupils with disabilities but have never thought of dealing with them as educators. Cate & Profanter (2009), say that at a 2005 Rehabilitation International Conference in Bahrain, one of the main themes highlighted was a pronounced need for the dismantling of *stigma-related discrimination* against those with disabilities and special needs (p. 2). Change leaders have been working towards altering *pre-existing prejudice and social stigma* and integrating Islamic principles that also support international standards for persons with disabilities (p. 8). Mentalities are finally evolving towards the more progressive and inclusive. A positive example can be found within Oman, where there has been a call for universities to reorganise to meet the need for more social workers and to finalise relevant curricula and social work programmes, so nationals can be more involved and the advocates for their compatriots (Cate and Profanter, 2009).

Recently, teachers have shown much improvement towards the rights of pupils with disabilities. Gaad (2011) explained that cultural mentalities in the Gulf region are

shifting. Even those who have supported inclusive education over an extended time are also evolving their approach from being *charity-based* to *rights-based* (p. 88).

In her writings on Inclusivity in the Middle East, Gaad (2011) discusses the fact that even though Gulf States are trying to *do the right thing* and implement more inclusive practices, the national educators and officials do not seem to be collaborating at a regional level (p. 89). Clearly, regional support and alliances need to be sought for the improvement of inclusive schooling practices, as well as cultural awareness and acceptance.

The broader implications on the positive side are easy to imagine. There are already numerous organisations such as The Down's Syndrome Society, The Autism Society and The Kuwait Disabled Sports Club ready to work alongside schools that promote personal and academic success for those with disabilities. A society meeting the needs of its *special needs* nationals would then find that these individuals are able to establish their place within and contribute to the community, participating meaningfully in leisure, employment and volunteer programs, which ultimately enrich society as a whole.

A majority of locally trained teaching staff do not have a background in special needs training. Bazna and Reid (2009) claim that local teachers are sometimes inexperienced about how to adequately comprehend and communicate issues relating to pupils with disabilities, lacking formal training, terminology, and often, in consequence, displaying confusion with a system that seems too much concerned with *labelling* and classifying pupils (p.14).

Nagata's (2008) empirical study of Lebanese and Jordanian attitudes towards individuals with disabilities yielded surprising results; indicating, regardless of socio-demographic characteristics, average nationals from these countries did exhibit negative attitudes towards people with disabilities (p. 60). Such attitudes towards disabilities seem old-fashioned but can sometimes be linked with inaccurate religious beliefs, which go against what is written in the Holy Qur'an about acceptance and equal opportunity. (See section Islamic Perspective toward People with Disabilities below)

Furthermore, Cate and Profanter (2009) state that some parents simply find it overwhelming to have a child with a disability because they do not know how to cope and to provide their child with sufficient learning opportunities. Those with disabilities may have spent the majority of their life *sequestered* within family surroundings and contacts minimized because of misguided or uneducated decisions made by family leaders about what is best. Unfortunately such seclusion has often meant these individuals receiving little education and insufficient socialisation (p. 6).

Moreover, a family close to me has a child who suffers from a mild physical disability and the family attempts to hide her from the wider Kuwaiti society. The presence of this child's disability is seen as harming the marriage prospects for others in the family and a general damage to family's reputation.

Conversely, Bazna and Reid (2009) point out that some Middle Eastern families would prefer to educate their children, with and without disabilities, together, preferring the lessons and social learning derived from interactions between both groups (p. 15). The authors also say that wealthy parents and well-intentioned

professionals established a psycho-educational diagnostic facility in 1984 called The Centre for Child Teaching and Evaluation (CCET), to measure the levels of learning disabilities and teach the Kuwaiti children (p.7).

In order to encourage Kuwaiti families to reconsider their decisions about sending their children with special needs to mainstream schools, inclusion within them need to be improved.

Kuwait University now requires teachers to take a course on the provision of education for those with disabilities. This has been an opportunity for Salih and Kandari (2007) to make an in-depth study of the attitudes of those taking this course, and the effect that the course has on attitudes. In particular, it focuses on attitudes to so-called *mental retardation* and the degree to which the course challenges handicapist language, stereotypes, and prejudices. The author's findings reveal that educators' attitude did not influence participants' attitudes toward individuals with mental disabilities. Salih and Al Kandari (2007) discuss the outcomes of the study that requires changes in the course material to support inclusion for pupils with mental disabilities.

A similar study was conducted by Al-Shammari (2006) examining attitudes of educators towards pupils with autism with a view to developing the teacher-training curriculum. It is important that the results of studies feedback not just into the form but also the content of teacher training courses and have a long-term influence on teacher attitudes during their professional life.

A study has also been conducted by Alrashidi (2010) on university students' attitudes towards their colleagues with disabilities. The study is important for the understanding that inclusion in education is an important principle beyond school age and that a student with a disability should not be excluded from continuing education in his or her adult life. At this stage, attitudes towards a student with a disability mirror the attitudes of society as a whole. In addition, educational institutions generally should see themselves as providing exemplary practice for society to follow. Al-Rashidi (2010) found out that university students' attitudes require more improvement as it is only a mere feeling of compassion. He recommends that there be more courses available to develop awareness among students towards students with special needs.

In their study of conditions in the United Arab Emirates, Bradshaw et al. (2004) look at the country itself, a country undergoing rapid developmental changes towards progress in changing attitudes towards inclusion. The authors remind the reader that the UAE is a tribal nation and that it has only been within the past 40 years that the country has emerged into the a more Westernized and modern country in terms of lifestyle and within its educational system. The country, under its ruling families, is not democratic, which is to say that those in power base the values that are most important to the country on a foundation formed by Islamic law and its interpretation. Human rights ideals are, however, built into the Islamic faith, proclaiming the right to equality, social welfare, dignity and education for all people (Bradshaw et al., 2004). As the public education system in the country is fairly recent, primarily based on models from the U.S, the UK, Canada and India and dating only from the 1960s, policies are also in some senses less rooted and more readily adapted to the changes



which society is undergoing. However, at the present time, inclusion efforts and awareness of disabilities are still in a fledgling state and the nation lacks expertise and special training in this area. The preliminary data from the survey on teacher attitudes in the UAE conducted by Bradshaw in 2003 revealed that teachers had concerns regarding the time they would need to dedicate to a special needs pupil in their classroom, as well as their lack of training and resources (Bradshaw et al., 2004).

Classrooms are becoming more heterogeneous due to a global effort to include pupils with special educational needs with ordinary educational settings. Although inclusion classrooms exist in both developed and developing nations, the degree of implementation varies not only among, but also within nations. Since the inclusion process and special education itself is relatively new to Kuwait there is little research from which to draw on teachers' attitudes.

In many African countries the attitude tends to be mixed. For example, Chireshe and Ndluvo (2002) discuss the differences in attitudes of female versus male teachers and experienced teachers versus their less experienced counterparts in Zimbabwe. As the authors point out, *attitude is a key variable in determining the success of special needs education* (p. 13). The survey questioned a varied group of 54 educators. Of the group, four were specialists who felt confident and positive about the philosophies and goals of inclusion. The results for the mainstream teachers showed a lack of confidence in their personal ability but confirmed the need for special classes and advanced training for teachers. However, the overwhelming majority (88%) felt that *slow learners* should be taught separately (p. 18). The survey was broken down into categories that showed that the more experienced teachers showed greater confidence

in their ability in this area than newer teachers, male teachers showed more confidence and openness to the idea of inclusion than their female counterparts and younger teachers felt less confident and less certain about the benefits of inclusion than their older colleagues.

Shumba (2003) discusses this need for teacher education particularly in reference to the sciences, a subject from which SEN pupils have been very largely excluded. An analysis of this problem and its consequences, generally leading to an even greater degree of exclusion, is followed by suggestions for a paradigm shift in four major directions. This shift encompasses an adapted vision of special needs education, which would not exclude a pupil from any subject and with a pedagogy adapted to allow all pupils to participate. The author recognizes that the problem is worse in developing countries including his own, Zimbabwe, that *disability carries with it a social stigma* and that the disabled are judged to the extent to which they are able to help themselves or their families (p. 115). Shumba seeks to explore, through the specific example of *technical and technological subjects*, whether or not educational reform is really inclusive (p. 116). In Africa, one of the greatest barriers to overcome in this instance is the view of disability as a punishment; this cultural perception must be changed if progress is to be made and the change must begin with educators, but as Shumba observes, *teacher education can be said to be exclusionary to the extent it fails to tackle problems associated with the stigmatisation of those with disability*; improvements must first be made in teacher training (p. 117).

In another research study, this time in the United Arab Emirates, Alghazo and Gaad (2004) set out to discover to what extent teachers accept pupils with disabilities. A

similar approach to that of Chireshe and Ndлуvo's (2002) study on attitudes of teachers in Zimbabwe was used by these authors. Multi-tiered data collection methods (a questionnaire with an interview based on a quantitative and qualitative analysis of the survey questions) also took into account a number of variables. These variables included gender, age, years of experience and type of disability. Again, as was seen in the case of Uganda and Zimbabwe, teachers' attitudes need to be improved for inclusion to be successful. The language used in the educational system in the UAE to talk about learning difficulties, terms such as *mentally disabled* or *mental handicaps* to refer to pupils who are learning-disabled, reflects the prevailing attitude (Alghazo and Gaad, 2004, p. 94). Their results show that there is a neutral attitude towards inclusion on the whole. However, females tended to be more open to the idea of inclusion than males. Years of experience were a factor in attitudes and the severest disabilities overwhelmingly provoked the strongest reactions. Mental and behavioural disabilities were received the least degree of tolerance. Other findings reveal that:

*Where educators hold a positive attitude toward pupils with disabilities this allows and encourages the establishment of policies that guarantee the pupils' right to be educated in regular classrooms (p. 97).*

The authors' opinion is that change needs to come from within and, for this to happen, there needs to be planning and awareness raised among teachers about the importance of their attitude.

Armstrong (2005) raises an interesting and critical issue with regard to the *internationalization* of inclusion. He argues that inclusive education is a concept and idea that has its roots in the so-called *first world* countries and it is embedded in the

wider agendas of social justice and human rights. He points out that even in the developed countries where it was born, inclusion as an idea is debated and interlinked with relations of power and as a practice it is not always successful. In many ways, its original humanitarian aims:

*have largely been lost within the technical approaches to inclusive education that frame policy applications in the narrower terms of 'school improvement', diversity of provision for different needs and academic achievement (p. 3).*

Being far from being perfectly implemented in the developed countries, inclusion, Armstrong (2005) claims, is in 'third world' countries bound to be complicated and not straightforward. One major factor that has been widely neglected is the fact that different countries have different cultures and thus assign different meanings to the concept of inclusion. In many countries the aim is not social justice, but a strategy, which, if implemented, is assumed to require fewer resources. Moreover, he claims that differences in meaning need to be acknowledged and clarified if educational inclusion is to be successful in non-Western cultures. He states that there:

*is an assumption that participation in education should be premised on the voices of young people being heard. This assumption, which has come to be accepted as wisdom, is one that has arisen in a largely first-world literature. Little attention has been given in this literature to the ways in which participation is culturally specified through rites of passage and transition and to the role and meaning of 'voice' in this process (p. 8).*

Thus, Armstrong (2005) asserts that the exportation of inclusion in countries outside the West needs to be understood in the developing countries' situational context and history. As he states:

*To appreciate this, a discussion of ‘inclusion’ must be made concrete and understood in terms of both the cultural differences and their intersection with the colonial history and post-colonial contexts of countries in the developing world, which include the technological advances of the 21st century, the globalisation of economic markets and the penetration of ‘first world’ knowledge and policy solutions into the developing world*  
(p. 4).

He further maintains that if context and history are not recognized, educational inclusion is hardly likely to be successful. There is also a risk that local experiences and knowledge about those educational inclusions, which are based on different notions of collaboration, will be neglected with the results that *the opportunity to voice a different experience, a different reality is lost* (p. 9) .

His arguments point to the complexity of exporting ideas of educational inclusion to non-Western countries; they have in mind underdeveloped countries, with major economic difficulties. Kuwait is, however, one of the richest countries in the world and the economic difficulties that Armstrong is thinking of are irrelevant to the Kuwaiti context. However, he does make valid points in regards to culture and the different meanings of the concept ‘inclusion’ in non-Western countries, including Kuwait. This issue is important to consider bearing in mind when conducting any research with concepts and terms originally derived from a different context. For example, as discussed above, in the research by Alghazo and Gaad (2004) on attitudes towards inclusion in the UAE, a country very similar to Kuwait in terms of economy and culture, the terms that the teachers were using to refer to and describe people with disabilities and inclusion were very different from Western ways of referring to them.

Despite the researchers' expectations of finding cognitive dissonance between the medical model of diagnosing learning disabilities and Islamic culture among teaching assistants in a special education school in Kuwait, the results of their interviews indicated *that the teaching assistants believed that putting pupils into special schools gave them opportunities they would otherwise not have. They considered this English speaking, culture-free situation, removed from the tenets of Islam or local traditions, and the segregation and public labelling of pupils helpful rather than problematic* (Banza and Reid, 2009, p. 13). Nonetheless, these researchers recommended Kuwaitis to rethink learning disabilities education and highlight their own language, culture and heritage.

Moreover, another important point by Armstrong is the fact that we take it for granted that Western practices and values of inclusion should unproblematically be exported to non-Western countries without questioning them or taking into account the experiences and knowledge of the local context. As regards the former, this literature review has discussed many of the problems and concerns of inclusion in Western countries. Furthermore, since Kuwait has already implemented the inclusion of pupils with hearing and visual impairments and Down's syndrome, it is expected that teachers already have developed some skills in dealing with pupils who have such disabilities. It is hoped that, through investigating the attitudes of teachers, these skills will be uncovered.

### **3.5 Islamic Perspective towards People with Disabilities**

The religious approach to people with disabilities can imply that inclusion becomes a natural part of society without recourse to legislation. All religious groups who have the

idea of God-given laws protective of human rights and dignity are likely to be moving towards a policy of inclusion.

Islam is one of the dominant religions in the world that calls people to worship one God and no other deity. The principles of Islam have three main resources:

1. The Holy Quran, which is a book that reveals the word of God. This is used as a guide for a person to know his or her rights, responsibilities and to how regulate one's life, family and the world.
2. Sunnah: These are narrations of Prophet Mohammed's deeds, commands, and sayings. These narrations support and give context to the interpretations of the Holy Quran. For instance, the Holy Quran prescribes humans to pray, but through Sunnah narrations, the prophet tells Muslims how to perform the prayers and how many times a day.
3. Consensus and Measurements:

Consensus is the agreement among the Muslim community on an issue in Islam that the prophet had not made a decision on. The condition is that the agreement must be based on the Holy Quran. Measurement is the process of applying the decision that has been taken in consensus. For instance, drugs are neither mentioned in Quran nor the Sunnah but Muslims scholars have made the decision that drugs are prohibited in Islam. This decision is the consensus, but the procedures of imprisoning dealers and the obligation of treating drug users are the measurements taken (Yusef, 2006).

These three resources have been employed to sustain the standards of laws that organize the life of an individual, individuals' roles in society and society's obligations towards that individual. This research describes the status of people with disability in Islam.

### ***3.5.1 Rights, Respect and Care For People with Disabilities***

In Islam, people with special needs are seen to be an effective part of the community and The Holy Quran, the main source of the Islamic faith, insists that people are equal regardless of their race, gender, and physical appearance. The Holy Quran stipulates how and what determines what leads people to go to heaven or not. Quranic teachings guide life and laws in Kuwait and insist that God's people deserve equal opportunities and acceptance because God created them from the same process in constructing the earth (Guvercin, 2008). To further illustrate this point, Bazna and Reid (2009) cite a Quranic example whereby a blind man asked The Prophet for permission to stay at home during prayer times and in response The Prophet said that since the man could hear the call to prayer, he should pray socially as part of the mosque community (p.14).

Almusa and Ferrell (2004) say that The Holy Quran actually distinguishes between physical sight impairment and having a *blind heart*, with the latter being the true deficiency (p. 3). Moreover, within the Holy Quran, blindness has even been linked with creativity and heightened senses bestowed upon those affected by God (p. 7). The Holy Quran contains passages which describes Abdullah Ibn Umm Maktoom, a blind man, who went on to be an important and respected leader and who educated the people of Medinah about Islam. He valiantly defended his religious beliefs and fellow Muslims in the Battle of Al-Qadisiyyah before he was killed clutching the Muslim flag (p. 8). The author argues that the stories about this blind hero, Abdullah, illustrate the *important role of advocacy and the support that the wider community is expected to provide to a blind individual* (p. 9).



Islamic scholars have provided numerous examples of Islam's inclusivity towards those with disabilities, even in its early days as a religion within the sixteenth and seventeenth centuries. Omar Ibn Abdualaziz, mentioned within the Holy Qur'an, provided special services for the blind and other individuals with disabilities, to help their families, as well as to facilitate their involvement in the same social activities as their *families and relatives without feeling different* from them (p. 6). In addition, Guvercin (2008) relates that the story of Julaybib, who was physically disabled and not satisfied with his appearance, exhibited Islam's desire for acceptance when The Prophet helped him to find a spouse from a noble family. When Julaybib died in battle, The Prophet touched him warmly and announced, *He is of me and I am of him* (p. 2).

Moreover, Guvercin (2008) cites that Bilal Ibn Ribah had a speech impediment and could not pronounce all the Arabic letters and sounds correctly. This disability did not stop Prophet Mohammed from seeing him as a valuable man and appointing him as the first muezzin, *man who calls the public to prayer* (p. 1). The stories and messages in Islam highlight the importance of giving everyone love, care and respect, also reiterating *equality and equal opportunity* and that *no one is superior to any other human* (Guvercin, 2008, p.1).

In addition, Almusa and Ferrell (2004) cite Islam's view of having a disability as being *morally neutral, neither a blessing nor a curse and accepted as an inevitable part of the human condition* (p. 2). God, through His voice in Islam, intended for all His people to be treated with the same respect and afforded the same opportunities.

Since schooling and the pursuit of knowledge are regarded as having high value in Islam, allowing individuals with special learning needs the chance to participate in meaningful education is not only a modern day human right but also an enduring Islamic teaching.

### **3.5.2 The Right of Doing Less Religious Duties**

Because Islam supports and comprehends physical or mental impairments, people with disabilities are given the opportunity to be relieved or excused of some religious duties. For instance, fasting in Ramadan in which Muslims stop eating from dawn until dusk has been relieved to a certain level but that depends on the kind of impairment and the Islamic view regarding it.

People with special needs have been given a considerable value. In the Holy Quran, the first holy verses in *Surat Abasa* have been shedding light on the importance of dealing with people with special needs as any other people. In these verses, God Almighty blames the prophet for turning his back on a blind man who came asking about Islam (Zahrani, 1998).

*The Prophet frowned and turned away (1) Because there came to him the blind man, [interrupting] (2) But what would make you perceive, [O Muhammad], that perhaps he might be purified (3) Or be reminded and the remembrance would benefit him? (4)*

Holy Quran (80 Surat Abasa)

The responsibility of people towards people with special needs has been also insisted in the reports of the Prophet Mohammed, peace and blessings be upon him. As he stated: *Whoever meets the needs of his brother, Allah will meet his needs.* (Al-Bukhari and Muslim, p. 11)

Today, the Ministry of Islamic Affairs has special programs for people with special needs to employ them in simple businesses in which they are able to earn income to support themselves, help them to find a spouse, have children and to be an effective member in society (Ministry of Islamic Affairs, 2010).

Most Islamic scholars would agree that the practice of *inclusion* of those with disabilities into educational programs and the greater society as a whole is really not a practice needing praise as something extraordinary within Islamic nations like Kuwait.

### **3.6 Educational Environment-Related Variables**

There is a body of research which argues that environmental variables, such as policy, programming and administration, influence teacher attitudes towards inclusion. Avramidis and Norwich (2002) suggest that resources and support are crucial in the development of positive attitudes. They recommend that:

*a significant restructuring in the mainstream school environment should take place before pupils with significant disabilities are included* (p. 142).

Each of the variables mentioned above will be discussed in turn.

### 3.6.1 Policy

Legislation and policy at both local and national levels play a great part in determining how inclusion efforts are both perceived and managed. For example, Dougherty (1996) examines teachers' and administrators' expectations regarding inclusion in the article *Opportunity-to-Learn Standards: A sociological critique*. This article examines the notion and meaning behind the US *opportunity-to-learn* (OTL) movement, the goal of which is to force schools to look at their role in either adding to or detracting from their pupils' achievements (p. 41). The set of goals outlined by the Bush administration in 1990 calling for improvement in all subject areas, especially mathematics and science, improved literacy skills and better high school graduation rates on a national scale, was codified into law by the Clinton administration in 1994 (Dougherty, 1996). The author discusses the advantages and disadvantages of this, the former being the establishment of a regulated set of standards which take into account the various inequalities among pupils. The focus thus becomes the responsibility of the school in determining how to meet these standards. The disadvantage of this model is that it does not take into consideration factors such as pupils' home environment and *the climate of educational expectations* within a particular school (p. 42). Dougherty points out that teachers' and administrators' goals are entirely omitted from this initiative and that this in itself is a danger. The author claims that the level of teachers' expectations from school to school can vary so dramatically that it renders the establishing of the OTL goals rather difficult. This is to say that, when surveyed, teachers' notions of *collective responsibility for learning* were found to vary greatly (p. 44). Teachers tended to have a greater sense of this responsibility, for example, in higher income areas, where

parental expectation levels might be higher, than in economically challenged urban settings. Thus teacher attitudes, it can be concluded, are commensurate with the context. This held true in the case of the inclusion of learning-pupils with disabilities as well. Hence, regardless of the good intentions of the OTL legislation, the reality is such that external environmental and social factors still play a very important part in teachers' attitudes toward inclusion.

### ***3.6.2 Programming and Initiatives***

Coordination, support and collaboration are basic needs when it comes to creating an environment conducive to inclusive education. Some feel that the only way to implement inclusion effectively is through collaboration with Special Needs Coordinators (SENCOs). In their study, Crowther et al. (2001) examine this claim calling for SENCOs to assist in curriculum development for included pupils in the mainstream classroom. However, as special needs education teachers are increasingly asked to take on this new role, it is becoming clear that the guidance of the experts is more easily given than followed. Crowther et al. (2001) question the validity of this view, in large part due to the new policies which have so greatly changed the role of the coordinators. Since 1994 every school in England is responsible for having an individual on its staff to coordinate the school's response to special needs education (SEN); this shows that they can effectively respond to the issues thus raised (Crowther et al., 2001). Although the reasoning behind this policy change was to the attempt to create a stronger, more cohesive environment for pupils with disabilities, the result of the creation of SENCOs is that the burden of responsibility has been transferred to a

single individual. The authors describe a number of specific problems which arose with the creation of the SENCO policy, including lack of training regarding code regulations, bureaucratic road blocks and a lack of dialogue between the SENCOs and the educational authorities (Crowther et al., 2001). Of the 141 SENCOs surveyed for this study, many complained of not having enough time to effectively perform their SENCO duties. This highlights the importance of implementing feasible and conscientious policies and making sure that educators and coordinators have a role in their creation.

An Australian review by Carrington and Robinson (2004) examines the newly-created *Index for Inclusion* (2000), an Australian publication providing resource information on professional development and ways to change the overall cultures within schools for institutions and educators. The study reports specifically on how the *Index* is being used and how and whether it is facilitating inclusion in a particular primary school in Queensland. The *Index* was created as a result of a survey among schools in Australia of what has been effective up to now in terms of inclusion practices. One of the defining points was a shift in the perceived purpose of education from preparation for employment to the promoting of social cohesion. The authors believe that part of the problem until recently was the broad policy initiatives and mandates which allow neither say nor dialogue with school board officials to the individual teachers and head teachers in the schools (p. 142). At the same time, these same officials have not agreed to provide professional training for teachers to enable them to better implement inclusionary practices in their classrooms. Rather, the burden of responsibility has fallen on head teachers, who usually have neither the time nor the professional means to manage teacher stress and anxiety as changes are imposed

(Carrington and Robinson, 2004). The *Index* was created in the hope of *provid[ing] a framework for school review and development on three dimensions: school culture, policy and practice* (p. 144). Such initiatives, a desire to link and compile resources based on the first-hand experience of the professionals and to create a kind of inclusion reference book, is an important step in creating a common ground of understanding of the issue and ways to tackle it.

Some have cited part of the problem as being a lack of contact between mainstream pupils and special pupils. In terms of programming, a notable effort is being made to improve this contact. Shevlin and O'Moore (2000) analyse an Irish initiative taken in 1989 which has developed into a programme known as Fast Friends. The initiative involved teenagers with severe intellectual disabilities who were brought to share curricular activities with mainstream pupils on a weekly basis. The programme, modelled after another project known as the Rally Project, promotes cooperation on different levels and to varying degrees, depending on the nature of the activity. Activities are highly structured to maximize their benefits. The goal of the authors' study was to measure mainstream pupils' anticipation, the emotional reaction and the perceived benefits of intimate contact. Their results report that the pupils' anticipation of difficulties in this contact far outweighed the reality and that in fact the contact was positive and enlightening.

In a subsequent study, Shevlin (2003) continues his focus on the facilitation of these initial contacts, while arguing the importance of preparation for this contact as a means of ensuring its success. The programme (Fast Friends) initiated the use of a 21-minute video programme which explored the interaction between the two groups of

pupils, with the mainstream group frequently sharing their thoughts on this contact thereby;

*introducing prospective pupils to the notion of interaction with their peers who have severe or profound and multiple learning difficulties in a non-threatening manner* (p. 94).

Most of the mainstream pupils felt they had acquired knowledge and saw the potential for developing relationships as a result of viewing the video.

Technology and the education of people with learning difficulties are a natural match. As Bevan (2003) suggests, two clear initiatives of this type are the use of *adaptive technology* and the implementation of facilitated approaches to learning, or *assistive technology* (p. 101). This study looks at the mildly learning-disabled and the potential benefit of technology in leading toward advanced qualifications and eventually jobs. Some of the possible avenues discussed include open learning (a philosophy centred on instilling independence in the learner and providing flexibility through availability and easy access), IT and AT. The subjects of the study agreed overwhelmingly on the benefits of such initiatives in their quest for qualifications and the need to be included, *making decisions about choices and alternatives in the learning process* (p. 104).

Although technology may prove to be the answer for certain learning-pupils with disabilities, others may require more traditional means of assistance. Woods (2004) explores *questions about validity and inclusion* in his examination of the criteria which make certain pupils eligible for a *reader* during examinations, in this case the General Certificate of Secondary Education (GCSE) (p. 122). This examination, the outcomes of which are considered critical for pupils' futures, is also a reflection on



the educational school itself. The examination system, by accommodating special needs, tries to make the exam accessible to as many pupils as possible. According to the Joint Council for General Qualifications (2002), this includes those *for whom the standard arrangements ... may present an unnecessary barrier which could be removed without affecting the validity of the exam* (p. 125). Woods concludes through a thorough examination of this criterion an increasing number of pupils are seeking such assistance, not necessarily, however, those who most need help. This is due to a lack of identification of need, based on variations in reading assessment from one school to the next, variations in reading texts for the exam and the *simplistic correspondence between calculated text readability and a candidate's reading age* (p. 126). This in depth investigation concludes that pupils are poor at predicting their own needs in this case (of the GCSE exam) and that more research must be done in order to establish the validity of readers and the methods of assessing pupils' needs.

Similarly, there is an ongoing debate about whether or not the use of set targets in schools for the severely learning-disabled is a realistic and valid initiative. Male (2000) surveyed head teachers in a number of school districts to get their views on this issue. The author cites as the main reason why setting targets in special schools poses difficulties is the increasing complexity of the population, due to diversification (Male, 2000). The series of questions proposed by the author attempts to collect detailed information about the overall responses on the question by proposing positive and negative statements about target setting and offering a range of answers from Strongly Agree to Strongly Disagree. Interestingly, the author uses only one category for Strongly Agree and Agree and for Strongly Disagree and Disagree. The questions posed concern not only target setting in special schools but target setting in general. On the whole, the findings show that head teachers found the initiative to be

worthwhile in both cases but extremely challenging to employ, the reasons for which range from lack of comprehension on the part of the parents to its *unlikel[iness]* to *help schools to compare performances* (p .16)

An excellent initiative with possibly positive results, is early intervention. Nurture groups, Doyle (2004) argues, can be implemented for infants and toddlers who are at risk of exclusion due to behaviour considered overly aggressive or too violent for the mainstream classroom. According to Boxall (2002), who, along with Bennathan, furthered the notion of nurture groups;

*the emphasis within a nurture group is on emotional growth...in an environment that promotes security, routines, clear boundaries and carefully planned, repetitive learning activities* (p. 3).

Doyle's re-examination of this initiative highlights the need for a social development curriculum, that is,

*activities within mainstream primary school teaching in order to address a number of social objectives developmentally sequenced toward specific outcomes* (p. 26)

Doyle (2004) suggests that this refocuses the curriculum on meeting the needs of the child rather than the reverse and suggests that these principles could also be applied to mainstream classrooms.

Equally important is to provide a forum in which educators can share their views. Attfield and Williams (2003) review the key points that they took away from the

Leading Edge leadership seminar held by the National College for School Leadership (NCSL) The seminar focused on the *development of inclusive policies and practices* in special schools and gave the specialists an opportunity to share their ideas and experiences (p. 29). Leading Edge's seminar established certain universal principles concerning inclusion, including the need for educators to be humble and for commitment to open discussion; and the fact that there is always room for improvement and renewal of ideas. The range of issues emerging during the course of the seminar included some doubts as to whether or not those who did not work in special schools could fully appreciate the complex needs of SEN pupils; and suggested that *inclusion in a mainstream classroom for part or all of a child's education marked the beginning of an educational opportunity not the endpoint*, even though the curriculum and frameworks still require considerable development (p. 30). The educators had mixed feelings about special schools versus mainstream schools, with a number of them heralding the former as advantageous for SEN pupils. They conclude that whatever the case may be, special schools have an important role to play in the future of inclusive education.

One way of circumventing the problems described by Hanco (2003) is explored in the following article. As acknowledged by the other studies examined in this review, one of the most critical factors in determining the success of inclusion remains the attitudes of those involved at all levels. Although Jones et al. (2002), citing Marcovitch, Vachon, MacGregor, and Campbell in 1993, suggest that the attitudes of educators regarding inclusion are steadily improving, the authors posit that part of the central problem is the *dichotomous inclusion/exclusion frame of thinking* (p. 624). The authors contend that the time has come to dispose of such frameworks in order to

construct a vision of inclusion wherein *placement of pupils is based on the criterion of pupil-centred equifinality* (p .624). By *equifinality* the authors mean that:

*each and every pupil should be given the necessary supports and opportunities to benefit meaningfully from the education he or she is receiving* (p. 630).

This would entail that, after an assessment of the needs as determined by the parents, the educators and the pupil, the pupil would be placed either in an inclusive or segregated classroom. This placement would not, however, be based on the nature of the disability. Educators, administrators, parents and pupils with disabilities themselves, when surveyed, gave this concept considerable support. Another point put forward by these authors is the idea that much attention has been paid to teachers' attitudes while very little work has been done to learn more about the consequences of the attitudes of parents and the pupils themselves. The authors, in discussing some of the attitudes and beliefs about inclusion (including the strain on teachers of a heavier workload), give evidence of the positive effects of inclusion on pupils with disabilities, including increased social contact and peer tutoring. The data collected as a result of this study was positive on the whole and suggests that the *a one-size-fit-all program is overly simplistic in our vigorous and dynamic society*. The authors, in closing, state the obvious: that continuing to take this *simplistic* approach will be detrimental to the cause of inclusion at all levels (p. 631).

### **3.6.3 Administration**

Along with local, regional and federal legislation, another less obvious barrier to the effective creation of a positive inclusive environment is the negative attitude often found at the administrative level within the schools. Praisner (2003) looks at the effects of negative attitudes among school head teachers toward educational inclusion and the impact of these attitudes on the success or failure of the initiative. Of the 408 elementary school head teachers surveyed, only 20% had a positive attitude to inclusion while the overwhelming majority remained uncertain of its benefits. The author also discovered that positive attitudes led to a less restrictive learning environment (Praisner, 2003). As with other studies on this subject, the findings also revealed that attitudes toward inclusion were very much affected by the nature of the disability. As the role of the head teacher becomes increasingly polyvalent and his or her duties increase to include tasks such as the creation, management and implementation of new programmes for pupils with disabilities, the head teachers, not necessarily trained in special education themselves, feel less confident about the effectiveness of these programmes (Praisner, 2003). However, in order for inclusion to be successful, it is critical for it to be understood and facilitated at this level; if not, teachers will find themselves in a no-win situation. At present, studies in this area are few and inconclusive, due to the complexity of the issue. Praisner's study hopes to spark further research in this area. The 13-question survey reveals, nonetheless, that while head teachers agreed with the idea of inclusion in the generic sense, when specific mandatory regulations were added to the terms, attitudes became less favourable. As has been found in all studies, the breadth of the head teacher's training and experience also played a role in determining attitudes.

Some of the training which must be undertaken to ensure the efficacy of inclusion is that of administrators and of head teachers in particular. Cook et al. (1999) look at the attitudes of head teachers and those of special education teachers with regard to pupils with mild disabilities, claiming that, despite the limited research into this relationship, the attitudes of the former are vital to the attitudes of the latter. Crucial to the success of inclusion school-wide are the attitudes of special education teachers, who are instrumental in sharing their knowledge of pupils with disabilities and motivating general education teachers (Cook et al., 1999). The authors cite research which indicates that much of the impetus behind the inclusion movement is derived from an experimental context rather than from a proven basis of success. General education teachers supported the;

*nebulous concept of inclusion” at a rate of 65% until its terms of inclusion were defined more clearly to make general education teachers more responsible for its success, at which point support dropped to only 40% (p. 200).*

Interestingly, this survey contradicts Praisner’s (2003) findings of overwhelmingly negative attitudes among head teachers. Yet it is the special education teachers, and specifically those with the most experience, who were the least forthcoming toward the inclusion efforts of those involved. These negative attitudes from special education teachers pose the greatest concern for those involved in the inclusion efforts, for it is only with the guidance of special educators that pupils with mild disabilities could be integrated successfully into mainstream classrooms.

### 3.7 Mainstreaming Attitude Scale (MAS)

In light of the previously discussed research on the effect of teachers' attitudes on inclusion approaches, I would like to take the opportunity to discuss the instrument that I will use in this study to gather information regarding the attitudes of teachers and head teachers in Kuwait. In this study I am applying a modified version of Mainstreaming Attitude Scale (MAS). This questionnaire was developed by Dr. Emad Alghazo in 2000, and tested in several countries in the Middle East such as The Kingdom Of Jordan, UAE and Qatar. The utilization of the MAS will be discussed in more detail in Chapter 4.

The MAS scale is considered to be a suitable measure of teachers' and head teachers' attitudes and has been used for various countries in the region. This questionnaire includes 32 questions assessing teachers' and head teachers' attitudes towards inclusion into mainstream schooling. This scale has been utilized in some studies carried out in Middle Eastern countries and as a result is considered appropriate for use in Kuwait, as it would seem that the MAS would incur less cultural bias (see Appendix B). Antonak and Livench (1988), authors of the *The Measurement of Attitudes towards People with Disabilities*, recommend that researchers should *refine* scales rather than *[creating]* them. This is because well-established scales have gained credibility though extensive supportive data

There are plenty of questionnaires that measure attitudes towards disabilities (i.e., Scale of Attitudes towards Disabled Persons (SADP) (Antonak, 1981) have not been considered as the SADP measures parameters that are incompatible with this study and the Kuwaiti culture (i.e., attitudes towards civil and legal rights). Other scales

have not been utilized due to their lack of suitability. For example, the *Acceptance Scale* has not been used as it was developed to measure the attitudes of students towards people with disabilities, which is not the sample that this study wishes to measure, (Voeltz, 1984). There are also numerous questionnaires that look at the attitudes of people towards specific disabilities such as *Attitudes toward Mentally Retarded People Scale* (Bartlett et al, 1960), *Attitude to Deafness Scale*, (Cowen et al, 1969). In the final analysis, the MAS was deemed a desirable scale as the language employed was concise and simple, and the questionnaire was possible to complete in less than ten minutes (see Chapter 4).

### **3.8 Some Conclusions/Hypotheses Emerging from the Literature Review**

On the whole, what can be taken away from this literature review is that there is much work to be done on a number of fronts on the issue of the including pupils with disabilities in mainstream schools. Observably, there are also numerous initiatives proposed in making this process easier. Although inclusion is a universal question (and should equally be a universal initiative), there are innumerable intrinsic and extrinsic factors which help to create barriers to its implementation.

Ultimately it seems that the data on the teachers' attitudes toward inclusion vary according to a number of pertinent factors. These factors, as stated earlier, range from issues of culture, teacher experience, resources and training, the type and severity of the disability and the classroom context. What can be interpreted from this discord is that the experience of inclusion is very personal and its ultimate success is not a



matter of chance but the result of the attitudes of all those involved, pupils, parents and teachers alike.

Only by making inclusion a flexible, multi-layered process, for which teachers and administrators are prepared both pre-service and in-service, can the inclusion movement (which has now become a norm) have any hope of being justified. Teachers and administrators who are exposed to SEN early on in their careers, are much less likely to form barriers to its success. It is equally important for these early experiences to be positive ones and for teachers to feel as though they are being given the necessary resources and support to be successful. Although this does not ensure success across the board, it is the foundation on which the future must be built.

Since so little research has been done on this subject in regard to Kuwait, it was useful to look at approaches and studies undertaken in other countries, as well as examining some historical aspects of inclusion and the various theoretical views of academics and researchers. I discovered that Kuwait is far from being the only country lacking in research and that much can be gained from a comprehensive analysis and critique of other countries where inclusion has been successfully implemented. The key points that this research considered were: (1) what has been done so far in terms of inclusion efforts?, (2) what has worked for whom and why?, (3) what has not worked and what are the concerns surrounding inclusion (in particular, teachers' attitudes)?, and (4) which initiatives and approaches would be most beneficial for Kuwait to employ in its quest for inclusion of pupils with disabilities into the mainstream schools? The use of the MAS to comprehend teacher attitudes toward pupils with disabilities can be indispensable as a tool for answering these questions. The MAS includes subsections

which determine attitudes toward training, disabilities and support. Having information about teacher attitudes toward training can help administrators design appropriate experiences for teachers in preparation for their inclusion approach. Those involved with planning implementation of inclusion will also benefit from knowledge about teacher attitudes toward various disabilities as they determine plans for initiating programs for the four disabilities. Administrators can also use the MAS results from the support subsection to prioritize support functions for the inclusion process.

Chapter four will now present the details of the research methods used in this research study. The research questions will be clearly delineated followed by the research design. Sampling methods, demographic data of participants as well as validity, reliability and ethical considerations will be described as well. Subsequent chapters will describe the interview process in more detail.

## CHAPTER FOUR: METHODOLOGY AND METHOD (SURVEY STUDY)

### 4.1 Introduction

This chapter outlines and discusses the methods used during this study. The previous chapter examined existing literature about inclusion and attitudes toward pupils with disabilities in order that this study could build on extant knowledge with the goal of improving the delivery of educational resources to pupils with disabilities as well as mainstream students. Specifically, Chapter Four details the methods used in sampling, defining the population to be surveyed, and procedures for data collection and analysis use in the first (survey) study.

Since the attitude of teachers and head teachers towards pupils with disabilities is the selected tool of this study, it is useful here to explain the concept *attitude* to enhance the significance of this approach for this study. In the context of inclusion, the attitudes of teachers and head teachers towards pupils with disabilities provide important information for judging the overall effectiveness of the educational systems. At the classroom level, teachers' attitudes can affect their teaching style, classroom behaviour and, consequently, their pupils. Moreover, research shows that teachers' attitudes influence both the expectations of their pupils and their behaviour towards them. These attitudes, expectations and behaviours influence the pupil's self-image, which ultimately can affect their academic performance (Alexander & Strain, 1978).

If teachers believe that a disability of a child is inherent in the child, rather than a consequence of the relationship between the child and the environment, it will influence both their attitude and their way of teaching in the classroom. Jordan et al. (1997) found that those teachers who believed the latter were more engaged and determined in their style of teaching pupils with disabilities. Of course, this belief is something that can be inherent in the school norm, which in turn affects the beliefs of individual teachers. Thus, the school culture and teacher belief about attributing the child's disability will have an effect on attitudes towards inclusion as well as its success.

Because of the moral implications inherent in the debate regarding inclusion, rhetoric is naturally prominent, which tends to make the discussion of the pros and cons, at times, theoretical rather than practical. According to Thomas and Glenny (2002), too much focus has been put on the idea of inclusion and too little attention is paid to what it is that makes, in large part, a successful implementation of inclusive programmes: the experience of educators. The authors propose that while ideals are important to a cause, sentimentality does not justify sweeping changes in educational policy; a more important factor is the belief in its justice and necessity among those involved (Thomas and Glenny, 2002). There is certainly a great deal to be said for training and even more to be said for exposure and experience. Thomas and Glenny (2002) feel that much of educators' aptitude for working with pupils with disabilities is naturally formed from *the teachers' own intelligence and reflective practice* (p. 6).

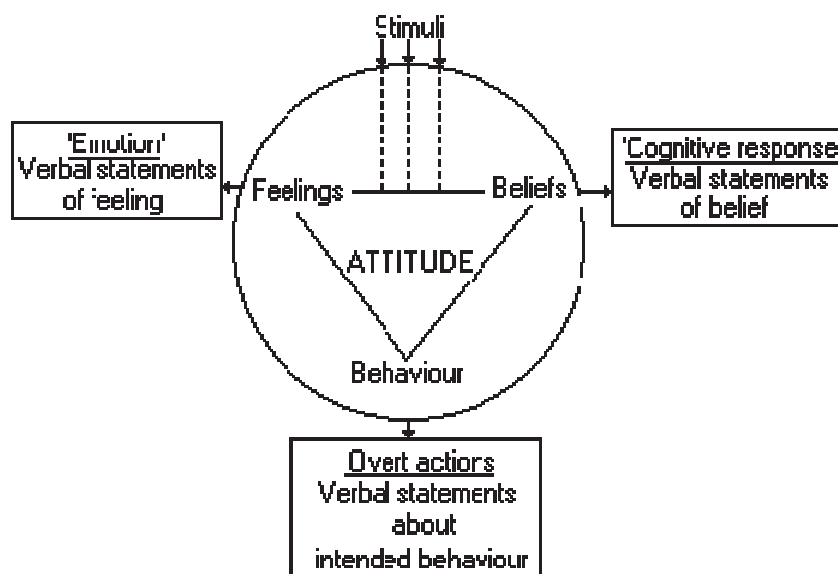
In Uganda, Baguwemu and Nabirye (2002) undertook a study sampling teachers' attitudes toward inclusion as introduced by the Universal Primary Education policy

(UPE). The surveys' results of 50 primary school teachers revealed that there was a *lack of proper understanding about the implication of the inclusive education process*. The teachers ascribed this to the lack of relevant preparation of teachers, insufficient systemic support and a lack of physical space. This information must be absorbed alongside the fact that those with mild special needs have always been included in classes with mainstream pupils. Inherent inclusion does not, however, mean that the system is well adapted and suited to the needs of such pupils. However, in regards to pupils with moderate to severe disabilities, very negative attitudes and poverty often prevented them from attending a school of any kind (Baguwemu and Nabirye, 2002). Chireshe and Ndluvo (2002) also emphasize the *importance of research on perceptions and attitudes, especially of teachers* (p. 17). This survey of 50 teachers explores these attitudes on the basis of five research questions. Their results show a lack of understanding of inclusion at the most basic level – its definition; only 12% of respondents were able to cite the correct one in a list of choices. The authors' overall findings suggested that an improvement of facilities along with training of primary teachers for pupils with moderate to severe disabilities is required to convince these pupils to stay in special schools or special units within mainstream schools.

There is an overwhelming call on all sides for increased training and support systems to develop and improve teachers' beliefs. Hanko (2003), an educational consultant, suggests ways of staff development, particularly in *deepening teachers' insights into emotional and social factors of pupils' learning* (p. 126). This could result, if there was more of a focus on behaviour as part of the curriculum, as well as promoting 'responsive pedagogy' on the part of schools and staff. These suggestions involve raising awareness about emotional and behavioural difficulties (EBD) (p. 127). The

author observes one problem, which is the excessive exclusion in response to behavioural issues. Teachers' frustrations and lack of confidence in their abilities contribute to this trend, which is due to a lack of understanding on the part of the educator and a lack of training on the part of the educational institution. As the author points out, simple initiatives such as learning about the pupil's personal circumstances can make a difference in a teacher's perception and attitude towards that pupil. Because this calls for *ways to improve both the quality of the pupils' education in general and the job satisfaction of those who teach them*, this has been put to the test by a recent emphasis on academic targets and wide-scale testing (p. 126). As Male (2000) discovers in a study of target setting, this competitive dimension causes the schools themselves to lose sight of their primary purpose – to educate – by placing too much focus on institutional goals. Teachers are, in so many words, encouraged to focus on the top pupils while the lower performing pupils are excluded to an even greater degree. Exclusion, as the author explains, becomes part of this picture when performance-oriented teachers reach their wits' end. The cure for this is a *more imaginative curriculum that enables teachers to provide all pupils with meaningful personal experiences* (Hanko, p. 128).

Figure 8 outlines the interplay between feelings and beliefs, which is translated into attitude, as proposed by Spooncer (1992). Consequently, attitude can influence behaviour.



**Figure 8: Interplay between feelings and beliefs, which translate into attitude.**  
(Spooncer, 1992).

The importance of teacher attitude on the implementation of the inclusion of pupils with disabilities in mainstream classrooms is argued in chapter 3. That chapter includes a description of the Mainstreaming Attitude Scale (MAS), which was developed by Alghazo (2000). This is a questionnaire-based attitude scale, which was used as a key research method in the thesis.

#### ***4.2 Terminology of Disabilities in Kuwaiti Context***

The meanings of terms to describe disabilities differ between the West and the Arab World. Alghazo and Gaad (2004) conducted a study of teachers in UAE and stated that the language used among teachers in the UAE to describe learning difficulties was “mentally disabled” or “mental handicaps.” These expressions refer to pupils with disabilities, and reflect the prevailing attitude (p. 94). Based on my experience as a primary school teacher in Kuwait, the common terms given to pupils with

disabilities are inappropriate. Some of these terms include calling emotional behaviour disorders as a *mental handicap* and in Arabic, *majnoon* which means *crazy* in English. In Arabic, *Down's syndrome* is known as *magoli* or *ahbal* which literally means *mental retardation*. Moreover, pupils with learning difficulties are described as *gabi* which means *dumb* in English. Additionally, *physical disabilities* are wrongly named by many teachers as *mashloul* translated into English as *paralysed*. However, in the government/ official language used in Kuwait is *Tollab Thowi Ihtiajat Khassah* which means *Pupil with Special Needs* in English. For instance, *physical disability* is officially known as *iaqat jasadiah*, *learning difficulties* is *so'ubat ta'lum*, *emotional behavioural disorder* is *itrabat infealia*, and *mental disability* which means *iaqat aqliah*. (Ministry of Education 2011)

Dr. Eman Gaad (2011) states in her book, *Inclusive Education in the Middle East*, that there is extensive confusion about the term inclusion, in Arabic, “Al-Damji” even among professionals. (p. 26)

She also found that terminology in Kuwait has also evolved over time. For instance, the Al-Rajaa School (Hope School) was originally called the Institute of Paralysis indicating total disrespect for the pupils. In some of the Gulf States generally (excluding the State of Kuwait), special educational needs are dealt with in Centres for the Rehabilitation of the Handicapped and do not come under the authority of the Education Ministries, but instead of the Social Affairs Ministries. (p. 27)



### **4.3 Research Design**

Easterby-Smith et al. (2002) claim that research design is not only about methods, but is also an overall arrangement of the research to provide insightful answers to the research questions.

This research study contains a mixture of descriptive and correlational studies. The aim is to observe patterns in the data upon which hypotheses can be generated about the factors which influence teachers' attitudes towards inclusion. As a result, factors in schools which may be causing negative attitudes towards inclusion may be subject to modification by educational decision makers (Papadopoulou et al., 2004).

### **4.4 Grounding of the Research Methodology**

This research is based on key studies from the literature on inclusion, which were used to determine the issues informing this work. Critical reviews and analyses were drawn from literature as a starting point to highlight the social concerns of mainstreaming pupils with disabilities.

It was revealed that the attitudes of teachers and head teachers are of paramount importance in determining the success of inclusion policies. Case studies of teacher attitudes toward inclusion established a basis for the selection of research instruments. Antonak and Livench (1988), authors of the 'The Measurement of Attitudes towards People with Disabilities', recommend that researchers should 'refine' scales rather than '[creating]' them. This is because well-established scales have gained credibility though extensive supportive data (Yuker et al., 1960).

The deductive phase of this study found in the body of collected data points from which to hypothesize and make interpretations (see Figure 9). An in-depth discussion of the forms of reasoning applied to this research project follows:

**Figure 9: Steps Characterizing the Path of Inquiry.**

Phase	Method	Tool
Inductive	Design and evaluation of materials (surveys and questionnaires), as well as following up interview guides.	Analysis of relevant cases and content
Phase	Method	Tool
Deductive	Development of conclusions that can be applied to a larger population	Conclusion that certain traits in teachers and head teachers correlate to the attitude towards the inclusion of pupils which require special educational needs into mainstream schools

(Hammersley, 1992)

Deductive reasoning is based on syllogism. Simply put, syllogism consists of a *major premise* based *a priori*, a *minor premise* providing a particular instance and a *conclusion* (Aristotle). Thus, an example would be this type of reasoning:

- All male teachers oppose inclusion.
- Jim is a male teacher.
- Therefore Jim opposes inclusion.

It is noteworthy that although hypothesis-raising and -testing are claimed to define deductive reasoning they are neither the exclusive preserve of quantitative research nor the only ways for deductive reasoning can be employed (Hammersley, 1992).

Inductive reasoning is known informally as the ‘bottom up’ approach. It begins with specific observations and measures, detects patterns and regularities and formulates a tentative hypothesis to be explored (Hammersley, 1996).

Inductive reasoning lays greater emphasis on the observational basis of science. Deductive reasoning is based on preconceived notions (*a priori*), which inevitably bias the conclusion, by which a study of a number of individual cases would lead to a hypothesis and eventually a generalization. Inductive reasoning applied to the previous example would appear in the following context (Hammersley, 1992).

- Harry, Bob, Alistair and Garry all appear to oppose inclusion.
- They are all male teachers.
- Therefore it can be hypothesized that all male teachers appose inclusion.

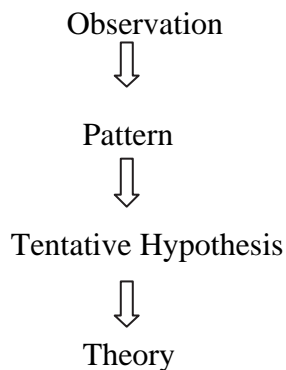
The inductive-deductive approach combines Aristotelian deduction with Baconian induction. According to Mouly (1978) this combination consists of:

A back-and-forth movement in which the investigation first some investigations operate inductively from observations to hypotheses. Others operate deductively from these hypotheses to conclusions.

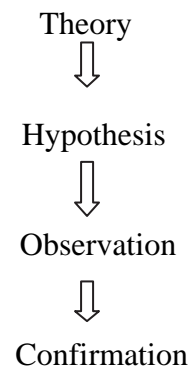
Most social science research involves both the inductive and deductive reasoning process in a project at the same time (Trochim, 2000). In fact, it can be easily seen from the following figure that we could assemble the two diagrams into a single cycle which continuously proceeds from theories down to observations and back up again to theories (see Figure 10).

**Figure 10: Showing the Differences between the Two Main Approaches to Reasoning: *Inductive* and *Deductive***

**Inductive Reasoning**



**Deductive Reasoning**



In research, inductive reasoning usually precedes deductive reasoning. Inductive reasoning involves formulating a hypothesis based on extracting trends from collections of data. Deductive reasoning tests this hypothesis by applying it to subjects and seeing if predictable results are achieved. A mixed approach to research is necessary, because hypotheses once formulated need to be tested before they can be accepted as concrete theories (modified from Trochim, 2000).

#### **4.5 Type of Data**

Data can be categorized into two main types: quantitative and qualitative data. Wellington (2000) provides the following definitions for these terms.

*Quantitative*: of quantity or number; methods or approaches which deal with numeric data, amounts or measurable quantities, i.e. numbers (p. 200).

*Qualitative*: of or relating to quality or kind (*'qualis'* [Greek]); adjective describing methods or approaches which deal with non-numeric data, i.e. words rather than numbers (p. 200). Note that qualitative refers to much more than data in the form of

words/text; photographs, videos, sound recordings and so on are all classed as qualitative data.

Quantitative research, like this study, often includes surveys and is distinctively designed to produce precise and reliable statistical analysis. Holme and Solvange (1997) claim that conclusions based on great amounts of cautiously selected quantitative data are likely to be more representative of the population investigated than conclusions drawn from a small number of case studies. Naturally, a sample which can be called 'representative' is not necessarily identical to the population. Instead a sample can be defined as representative if it has been drawn in a manner which makes it probable that the sample is approximately the same as the population *regarding the variables to be studied*. The issue of sampling is discussed in greater detail in the next section.

Edwards and Talbot (1999) state that:

*the quantitative approach as a method of data analysis is most frequently associated with deductive research design and the testing of hypotheses (p. 159).*

By contrast, qualitative researchers must remain open and alert to possible alternatives and it is this quality that marks qualitative research as primarily inductive (Becker, 1993). Moreover, quantitative research yields many benefits, as Patton (1990) states:

*The advantage of a quantitative approach is that it's possible to measure the reactions of a great many people to a limited set of questions, thus facilitating comparison and statistical aggregation of the data. This gives a broad, generalizable set of findings presented succinctly and parsimoniously. By contrast, qualitative methods typically produce a*

*wealth of detailed information about a much smaller number of people and cases. This increases understanding of the cases and situations studied but reduces generalizability (p. 14).*

In other words, quantitative research is beneficial in exploring a large number of people's reactions to a limited set of questions (Creswell et al., 1996). For example, the research questions 1,2 and 3 looks for a correlation between teacher and head teacher attitudes towards pupils with disabilities (and their attitudes towards including pupils with disabilities in the mainstream classrooms and various other variables (type of school, teacher status, teacher gender); these questions did not seek specifics but rather, in order to draw the correlation (if indeed there is one), required data on the overall attitude.

Another advantage of quantitative design is that it offers greater respect for confidentiality, which encourages participants to be more forthcoming with their responses; as its questions are generally not asked face to face and often answered anonymously, for which reason participants tend to be less inhibited (Salomon, 1991). Teachers' and head teachers' opinions regarding pupils with disabilities may be a sensitive matter and a respondent may not feel comfortable in revealing his/her attitudes (Hill et al., 2003). For example, a teacher or head teacher who has a negative attitude towards pupils with disabilities may not have the courage to express his/her her disapproval in an interview. Also, with emerging pressures for authoritarian figures to conform to society's trends, which dictate political correctness, teachers and head teachers are less likely to express their true feelings unless their identity is kept confidential. Quantitative research honours the logic of the experimental or correlational method in adhering to agreed rules and predetermined

sequences, irrespective of emerging data and analysis. Hence, the role of the researcher is detached from the field of enquiry (Lloyd-Jones, 2003).

In quantitative, as opposed to qualitative research, the emphasis is on what is general rather than what is unique to the individual. Moreover, in practice, quantitative researchers aim to operate with greater control than qualitative researchers. Data collection methods such as semi-structured interviews and focus groups inhabit a 'no man's land' between naturalism and control. In such situations, the choice of greater control may influence the data in ways which compromise the representativity of the subsequent analysis (Gorard, 2001). For example, as people give variable answers in qualitative research and may go on to touch on new topics, it may be difficult to categorize data in order to analyze it, hence the possibility of less-than-optimal analyses emerging.

Fundamentally, quantitative and qualitative data are intimately related to each other. All quantitative data is based upon qualitative judgment; and all qualitative data can be described and manipulated numerically. Hence, an approach which takes both into account is ideal (Creswell et al., 1996). This study has combined the two by using a structured questionnaire and semi-structured interviews.

Avramidis and Norwich (2002) point out that most research on attitudes towards inclusion have been oriented towards quantitative research, leaving important data from qualitative research provides out of account. Thus, they have proposed *adopting alternative research designs for the study of teachers' attitudes* (p. 143).



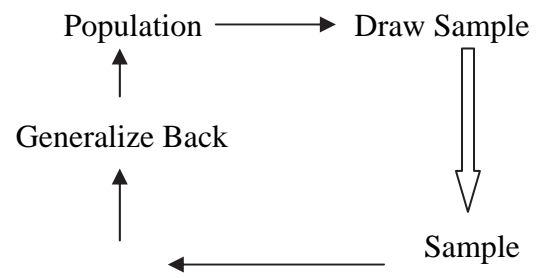
The use of interviews in this research can be ascribed to the fact that it facilitates the study of complex human behaviour by using more than one standpoint to observe it. Also, it eliminates the exclusive reliance on a single method, which may distort the researcher's picture of the particular slice of reality she or he is investigating. This method increases confidence that the data generated are not simply the artefacts of one specific method of data collection and it assists in verifying the results (Lin, 1976).

In reality, however, although though some researchers accept that theories may be developed through qualitative study design, examples of it are rare. Quantitative and qualitative approaches have been utilized in this study to generate as much information as possible to help the Ministry of Education to implement inclusion successfully.

#### ***4.5.1 Sampling***

The aim of identifying a sample which is representative of a defined population is to enable results to be generalized back to the population (Light et al., 1990). Investigating properties within the entire population itself is difficult and time-consuming as its size is too large. The following diagram summarizes the rationale behind drawing a sample from a population (see Figure 11), which is to enable me to generalize the results back to the population. For example, a representative sample of the general population which exhibits a particular trait would enable us to assume with some degree of confidence that the population as a whole possesses similar attributes.

**Figure 11: Summarizes the Sample**



#### **4.6 Defining the Population**

The first task to take into account when considering drawing up a sample is defining the target population. One issue which was considered when choosing the sample was how varied or restricted the sample group should be. For example, should the sample be limited only to girls' primary schools? Focusing only on these, which have an all-female staff (as opposed to boys schools which are staffed by both males and females), would eliminate a potential confounding factor: that of gender. The confounding factor would be between teacher sex and pupil gender/school placement. However, eliminating male teachers would detract from the purpose of this study, which is to investigate the attitudes to inclusion of *all* teachers and head teachers in the State of Kuwait. Discrepancies due to gender related issues have been addressed by comparing the results of tests from female teachers and head teachers in all-female schools and female teachers and head teachers in all-male schools and noting if the results are significantly different.

All Kuwaiti state schools adopt a standardized national curriculum which is set by the Ministry of Education (Ministry of Education, 1994). Private schools are not required to comply with the national curriculum and have been excluded from the study, since government plans to include pupils with disabilities in mainstream schools does not involve privately-owned schools.

The populations accounted for in this study are the primary school teachers and head teachers (male and female) who are currently employed in the 209 (special and mainstream) schools in the State of Kuwait. At the time of the study in 2006 the population of primary teachers was estimated to compose of a total of 7,561 teachers,

4,165 of whom are females (364 foreigners, 8.7%) comprising 55.0% of the total and 3,396 of whom are males (380 foreigners, 11.1%) comprising 44.9% of the total (Ministry of Education, 2004).

According to the Kuwaiti Ministry of Education there are six educational districts (Ministry of Planning, 2000). These are Al-Farwaniya, Al-Jahra, Al-Asemah, Hawalli, Mobarak, Alkabeer and Al-Ahmadi. All six districts have been designated so as to cover approximately equal proportions of the population. There are 195 mainstream schools in total and 14 special schools: seven specializing in the education of males and seven specializing in the education of females. All 14 special schools are situated on a campus in the district of Hawalli. It is noteworthy that all the districts in the State of Kuwait are close to each other and few, if any, differences exist between the communities in different districts. The fact that all special schools are in Hawalli does not mean that they are out of reach for settlements outside the district, as the furthest settlement in the State of Kuwait is no more than a 45-minute drive away from Hawalli. In reality, the accessibility of these special schools implies that they are not necessarily seen as 'distant' or 'segregated' places, but grouping them into a single campus does give them an unusual identity.

#### **4.7 Sampling Techniques**

Initially a stratified sample was extracted to allow defined variables to be compared, e.g. gender, district, school type. That is, a set number of teachers and head teachers from each district, of different genders and from different types of school, was randomly selected. Stratified sampling permits a different sampling ratio to be applied within each group.

Within the stratification, random selection was used. The reason for this was to improve external validity (ability to generalize) – the key task is to avoid sampling bias. Randomization was employed, each school/teacher/head teacher was assigned an identification number, which was then randomly selected.

Non-probability sampling may demonstrate bias since it does not represent the whole population. In contrast probability sampling (based upon random selection) reduces the risk of bias. However, there is still the risk that a random sample will be biased because of the chance of sampling error (Cohen et al., 2003).

## 4.8 Sample Size

The sample is defined as a probable approximate representation of the whole population based on certain variables (Walter, 1989). It is not possible to apply a general rule to sample size as this depends on the difference in the general population of the study. Generally, a small increase in a sample which is small will result in an increase in accuracy (or confidence), whereas increasing the sample size of a large sample will not produce so great an effect. The ideal is to reach a point of equilibrium where the sample size is large enough not to be vastly affected by an increase in its size. Experiences from the pilot study helped to determine the number of participants needed. It has been suggested by De Vaus (1986) that a sample size of 10% of the population for comparable groups is a requirement for accuracy. However, Ary et al. (1990) state that, although this is the belief of most researchers, it is an opinion and is not necessarily accurate. The argument is that the sampling procedure, not the size of the sample, is more indicative of whether or not the sample is representative of the population. Additionally, Dillman (2000) states that the selection criteria and substitution procedures are also contributory factors to the representation of the sample. Therefore, a purposive selection was employed, in order to meet the criteria which directed this research.

A sample of 560 teachers/head teachers was selected from the population. This sample was obtained from a total of 37 schools: 3M\*, 4F\* schools from Al-Asema, 3M, 3F from Al-Farwaniya, 4M, 4F from Al-Ahmadi\*\*, 3M, 3F from Al-Jahra, 2M, 3F from Mobarak Alkabeer and 2M, 3F from Hawalli, giving rise to a grand total of 37 mainstream schools. At the same time 7M and 7F special schools were included,

giving a total of 14 special schools. From each school, teachers were randomly selected to participate in the study. Questionnaires (Mainstreaming Attitude Scale) were dropped off at the specified educational schools to ensure a high response rate. In the case of a participant's being unable to take part in the study, a replacement was found from the remaining population. Steps were taken to avoid picking the same subject twice. The return rate of questionnaires was 91.5%.

(Notes: \*M = all-male schools, F = all-female schools; \*\* Al-Ahmadi contains approximately twice as many educational schools as any other district and thus the same ratio was maintained when determining the number of mainstreamed schools to be used in the study.)

#### ***4.9 Methods of Data Collection***

In the study presented, both qualitative and quantitative methodologies are employed. As Patton (1987) states, the method of data collection in any educational study should not depend on one method alone. The most appropriate method should be chosen in relation to each category of information. Furthermore, a number of sources of information are provided to the researchers with the use of a combination of both qualitative and quantitative methods, thus allowing data which are not available through one method to be collected by means of the other.

When dealing with social phenomena, where institutional aspects or social behaviour are examined, no strict rules regarding choice of methodology are observed. Hence,

there are no strict expectations for the rules of general disability in social science research.

#### ***4.10 Instruments***

As both head teachers and teachers implement any educational reform, since they are all involved in the day-to-day running of the school and have primary contact with the pupils, it is imperative to take their opinions into account.

Consequently, certain instruments have been used to give a measure of teachers' and head teachers' attitudes towards inclusion.

#### ***4.11 Demographic Questionnaire***

This 15-question survey collects data about age, gender, occupation and amount of contact with pupils with disabilities. This questionnaire will be used to assess if demographic factors tend to influence teachers' and head teachers' attitudes towards pupils with disabilities (see Appendix A), i.e. these could be used to test whether these factors had any influence on the dependent factors (i.e. attitude). This will help identify the factors which influence the shaping of attitudes towards inclusion and pupils with disabilities. Hence, future promotional material and training relating to inclusion can be customized to target the population which most needs it.



#### ***4.12 Mainstreaming Attitude Scale (MAS)***

Originally, this questionnaire was developed and tested in Jordan by Alghazo (2000), who carried out a similar study. This survey includes 32 questions assessing teachers' and head teachers' attitudes towards inclusion into mainstream schooling. This scale has been utilized in some studies carried out in Middle Eastern countries and as a result is considered appropriate for use in Kuwait, as it would seem that the MAS would incur less cultural bias (see Appendix B).

Note: In the original version the disabilities used were hearing, vision, mental disabilities and learning difficulties. The modified version included the latter two, while the former were replaced by 'physical disabilities' and 'emotional and behaviour disorders'.

The MAS scale served the purpose of directly gauging teachers' and head teachers' attitudes towards inclusion, which is a fundamental aspect of this research (See Chapter 3).

#### ***4.13 Language***

The MAS scale was originally written in English and thus had to be translated to Arabic. To ensure that the Arabic version was close to the English version, a back translation technique was used. To test the translation equivalence, the original MAS was first translated from English to Arabic by a bilingual translator and then back-translated from Arabic to English by an independent bilingual translator. The two

versions of the MAS were then compared to confirm translation equivalence. The MAS was adequately translated to Arabic without losing any meaning. This was done by employing professional translators in Kuwait, to ensure quality and accuracy. Some of the challenges encountered during the translation process were the absence of equivalent words in the other language, which had use a phrase instead (which may be viewed as a bias) and the presence of words which had more than one equivalent word in the other language (consequently, a discussion with the translator ensued to verify that the words which best fitted the context of the questionnaire were chosen). The main challenge was to overcome the major differences between the Arabic and English languages. The Arabic language uses a style which is long-winded (as opposed to English, which is much more succinct), does not rely on vowels and uses a structure which does not resemble the English language in any way. The use of specialist trained translators, however, helped overcome these challenges.

#### ***4.14 Culture***

It is assumed that the effect of the culture on attitudes toward people with disabilities differed between Kuwait and the West. This assumption is based on the inherent differences which exist between the two societies regarding people with disabilities (e.g. in legislation and service delivery). To ensure that the questionnaire was not culturally biased, four professors of sociology from Kuwait University reviewed them (e.g. to judge whether the questions required rewording). It was agreed that the MAS scale did not require any alteration, which is not surprising, considering it was obtained from an Arabic country.

To ensure validity, the four professors were also asked to predict what the questionnaire aimed to measure before they were given any additional information. All four professors answered that the questionnaire measured attitudes towards people with disabilities.

#### **4.15 Types of Questions**

Some questionnaires give respondents the freedom to express their own ideas through the use of open questions. However, as greater detail is required when answering open questions, they demand more effort and time on the part of the participant to complete. Moreover, answers can be difficult to code and hence analysis can prove challenging, due to disparate responses from individual participants (Edwards et al., 1999). This is especially true when carrying out a study which deals with a larger population.

Closed questions (used in the questionnaire) are a compromise between giving respondents freedom to express an opinion and constructing a questionnaire format from which information can be easily extracted (Campbell and Machin, 1999).

#### **4.16 Interview**

Interviews are among the most challenging and rewarding forms of data collection. They require personal sensitivity and adaptability, as well as the discipline to stay within the bounds of the designed protocol (Mertens, 1998).

Interviews are particularly useful in the context of this research, since ‘attitude’, the construct being dealt with, is complex and is difficult to measure adequately through

numerical methods alone (Avramidis and Norwich, 2002). Also, interviews allow a greater depth of understanding and help to uncover the factors that underlie particular attitudes. Questionnaires, in contrast, tend to provide information that is limited to the acceptance/rejection of an ideal/subject (Newell, 1993). The bias and quality of responses in interviews can also be judged at first hand and thus improved.

I decided to carry out two methods approach to enhance this study with more information about the attitudes towards inclusion as possible to help the implementation of inclusion in the Kuwaiti educational system. As a result, Interviews with random subjects were conducted to add greater depth to the study's analysis and also to elaborate on and verify its results. The method and rationale related to the interview is presented in Chapter 6.

#### **4.17 Data Collection Procedure**

I contacted the Ministry of Education to obtain permission to send the questionnaire to the schools which participated in this study. Included with the questionnaires was a cover letter explaining the significance of the study. The same questionnaires were supplied to teachers and head teachers in both special schools and mainstream schools. The turnaround time for the completion of the questionnaires was estimated to be roughly 5 days. Participants were asked to sign informed consent forms before participating in this study and were given access to its results of the study once completed (see Appendix A).

#### **4.18 Validity and Reliability**

I must always be aware of the importance of validity and reliability in my research. Babbie (1992) defines validity as *a descriptive term used of a measure that accurately reflects the concept that is intended to be measured* (p. G8).

In quantitative research, according to Cohen et al. (2003), *validity may be improved through careful sampling, appropriate instrumentation and appropriate statistical treatments of the data* (p. 105). In supporting the use of appropriate instruments, Moser (1967) defines the validity of an instrument as follows: *By validity is meant the success of the instrument in measuring what it sets out to measure* (p. 243). Cohen et al. (2003) also argue that research can never be 100% valid. It must be acknowledged therefore that even quantitative research has a measure of standard error.

Since I seek to generalize the research findings, it is important to be specific and clear in constructing the survey questions so as to reduce the chance of misunderstanding them. It must also be acknowledged that identical answers from two different participants may not have the same meaning. For example, two teachers may both answer 'yes' to the question 'Is inclusion good?'. However, one of the teachers may mean 'Yes, it is good and should be fully implemented' and the other may mean 'Yes, it is good, but not suitable for a country like Kuwait'. By asking clear and detailed questions, the possibility of confusions such as these may be lessened.

Also, the validity of the questionnaire (i.e. whether the instrument measures what it is meant to be measuring) was strengthened by ensuring that the language used in the

questionnaire was compatible with Middle Eastern culture (see the section on language, above). Another way of increasing the validity of the study is to ask someone to *read the questionnaire thoroughly before it is finalised, preferably someone who is not involved in its preparation, which would reflect an independent point of view* according to Phillips (1980, p. 100).

Reliability is defined by Slavin (1992) as the consistency of outcomes from one measurement to another. Any risk of uncertainty in the present study was made less likely by the clear wording of the questionnaire. Another aspect of reliability defined by Gay, (1996) is whether the instrument will produce the same results if administered repeatedly to an individual. This can be determined using an alpha-internal reliability estimate. It is generally accepted that attitude questionnaires should have an alpha-internal reliability estimate greater than 0.5. (Henerson et al., 1978). In this study the questionnaire's alpha-internal reliability is calculated at 0.923.

#### **4.19 Pilot Study**

Even though entire research procedures are to be carried out at a later stage, the advantage of pilot studies is evident. They are done to improve data-collecting routines, test scoring techniques, revise locally developed measures and check the appropriateness of standard measures. While these are all results serving the usual purpose of 'tryouts', the pilot study also assesses additional knowledge which might improve the main research (Behling, 2002). The benefits of the pilot study include not only the preliminary testing of hypotheses, leading to more testing of more precise hypotheses, but also may bring forth the changing, dropping of and developing of new hypotheses (Cook et al., 1979).

Clear-cut findings may be obtained from clues provided by the pilot study, which might not have been foreseen without it. In addition, pilot studies allow the statistical analysis and analytical procedures to be thoroughly checked, hence allowing a better evaluation of their adequacy in treating the data. This in turn enables the researcher to modify the data-collecting methods (Lester, 1984).

A sample of teachers and head teachers, representative of the population to be investigated in the main study, were invited to participate in the pilot study of the research. This sample, like the sample for the main research, included subjects from both types of educational schools (mainstream and special schools) representing both genders equally. To be realistic, it must be acknowledged that the sample used in the pilot study always carries a high sampling error, as it is a small sample; variations within the population are not as dispersed in them as they would be through a larger population.

The identities of the participants were noted, to avoid their participation in the main research, which would contaminate the sample. This was done in order to minimize prestige bias, which is the tendency for respondents to answer in a way that makes them feel better. I tried to ensure the pilot study sample was as varied as possible so that excluding its participants from the main study would have no bearing on its results.

In total, 20 questionnaires consisting of 32 questions were completed by this sample of teachers and head teachers working in mainstream and special schools. Ten

questionnaires were completed by teachers and head teachers in mainstream schools (five each from all-boy and all-girl schools) randomly selected. The selected participants, were then asked to take part in the pilot study. The same system was applied to the teachers and head teachers in special schools (note: all government-owned schools in Kuwait are single-sex). The response rate (100%) is attributed not only to the small sample size (20 people), but also to the fact that these educators knew that they were participating in an uncommon study, thus perceiving their co-operation furthering an improved educational system. I explained how to complete the questionnaire in personal interviews.

Based on their feedback, the questionnaire was deemed reliable, apart from some suggestions about the wording and explanation of one definitions of the disabilities which was mental disability and these were taken into consideration in the final version.

In order to eradicate the problems found in the pilot study, e.g. confusion regarding the exact definitions of the four disabilities, clearer instructions were given in the cover letter of the questionnaire in the main research. These contained definitions of the four disabilities, including examples of common disorders classified under them. The pilot study was seen as an effort to reduce any difficulties that might otherwise have affected the main research. I collected the completed questionnaires within five days.

Preparation of the pilot data allowed the consideration and piloting on the data analysis methods to be used in the main analysis. This included the use of descriptive



statistics such as frequency tables and the application of Analyses of Variance (ANOVAs) to compare group differences (see Chapter 5).

#### **4.20 Data Analysis**

The data analysis explored the differences between the attitudes of female and male teachers in special schools and mainstream schools; and female and male head teachers in mainstream schools and special schools. This study also examined the attitudes of teachers towards inclusion and whether teachers' attitudes are influenced by the type or severity of disability.

The analysis of the questionnaire data used a one-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) test to determine possible differences between the opinions of teachers and head teachers in both special schools and mainstream schools. Moreover, the Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS) computer application (SPSS 1994) was employed to analyze the data.

The data extracted from the interviews was organized, analyzed and examined for themes, beliefs and attitudes pertaining to the study's subject area (Trochim, 2000). (See Chapter 6).

#### **4.21 Summary**

The purpose of this chapter was to give a detailed account of the methods used to answer the research questions about teacher' and head teachers' attitudes about students with disabilities and their inclusion into mainstream classrooms. The research questions, design and sampling methods were stated as were methods for

demographic data gathering. The researcher's validity, reliability and ethical considerations regarding the methodology were overviewed and the techniques for data analysis were specified. The chapter particularly (though not exclusively) focussed upon the survey study (the results of which are presented in the next chapter), but more detail of the method of the interview study is presented in Chapter 6.

The results of the quantitative aspect of the study are presented in the next chapter. First an overview of the data analysis will be provided followed by findings about how attitudes toward disabilities and inclusion were related to teacher and head teacher gender and status. An analysis of the differences found between results of the MAS in mainstream schools and special schools will also be found in Chapter five, which follows.

## **CHAPTER FIVE – RESULTS OF SURVEY**

### **5.1 Introduction**

In the last chapter, the research questions were clearly stated and the methods of the study, particularly those pertaining to the survey, were described in detail.

This chapter presents the results of a questionnaire-based survey of 560 primary teachers in Kuwait. The chapter first describes the survey then the sample characteristics and its representativeness of the population. In subsequent sections, results (frequencies, means, totals, cross-tabulations) are presented in relation to the Mainstreaming Attitude Scale (MAS). ANOVA is used to analyse the impact of a series variables (gender, type of school and teacher status) upon attitude towards placement of students with different disabilities into mainstream schools as measured by the MAS. Each univariate analysis is discussed in turn. The results of all of the analyses are then discussed together and summarised in the chapter conclusion.

The overall research design of this study includes the use of both quantitative and qualitative instruments for data collection. As a result, the research generated a range of data related to the central questions of the study. In order to clarify the presentation, it was decided that the results of the quantitative data analysis should be presented first in this chapter, as they provide a broader picture of the attitudes of teachers and head teachers to inclusion. The results of the interviews, the qualitative data, will follow in chapter seven. The interviews took place after the survey.

## **5.2 Overview of the Data Analysis**

This chapter presents the results of the quantitative data analysis. This includes the presentation of the demographic variables by means of statistical tables, pie charts and figures.

This MAS survey includes 32 questions assessing teachers' and head teachers' attitudes towards including pupils with different disabilities into mainstream schools. This scale has been utilized in some studies carried out in Middle Eastern countries and as a result is considered appropriate for use in Kuwait, as it would seem that the MAS would incur less cultural bias. The MAS instrument involves a series of questions in relation to mainstreaming and pupils with particular disabilities. The six-question structure was applied to the four main disability groups investigated in this study (physical disabilities, emotional and behavioural disorders, mental disabilities, and learning difficulties). A more general set of eight questions were also administered (see Table 14-15 below), to investigate participants' views on mainstreaming pupils with disabilities and the support and training which would be required.

For the purposes of the analysis, the questions were averaged to give five scores:

- An average score is given for attitudes to mainstreaming on each of the four specific disabilities (each based upon six question, see Tables 10-13 below)
- Two average scores are given attitudes of mainstreaming generally, one measuring attitudes towards support (based upon three questions) and one measuring attitudes towards training (based upon five questions, see Table 16 below).

For further analysis, I wanted to see whether joining categories in the Likert scale (MAS) would have changed the findings. I have calculated the means for the four disabilities plus the training and support by joining categories in the Likert scale for example (1 strongly disagree and 2 disagree versus 3 uncertain, 4 agree and 5 strongly agree). As a result, I found that the relation is positive and if the sum or the means are calculated the same findings will be shown. (See Appendix J).

The analysis draws upon several procedures of data analysis; the first section starts by providing a descriptive analysis of some of the characteristics of the sample of the study, such as gender, type of school and teacher status. Inferential statistics follow in which Analysis of Variance (ANOVA) are applied to the data. The Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS) version 17 computer software application was used to analyze the data.

### 5.3 Sample Characteristics

The questionnaire was designed to explore teachers' and head teachers' attitudes to inclusion and pupils with disabilities. To begin with, the key variables (school type, teacher status and gender) were elicited (see table 9). The analysis of these variables revealed the general characteristics of the participants. In the following tables and figures the sample characteristics are described.

**Table 9: Count and Percentage Distribution of Characteristics in the Sample**

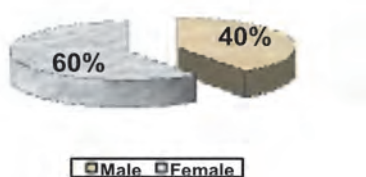
<b>School Type</b>	<b>Status</b>	<b>Gender</b>	<b>N</b>	<b>%</b>	<b>Total</b>	<b>%</b>
<b>Mainstream Schools</b>	Teacher	Male	128	22.9%	349	62.3%
		Female	221	39.5%		

	Head teacher	Male	11	2.0%	29	5.2%
		Female	18	3.2%		
Special Schools	Teacher	Male	79	14.1%	167	29.8%
		Female	88	15.7%		
	Head teacher	Male	6	1.1%	15	2.7%
		Female	9	1.6%		
Total			560	100.0%	560	100.0%

### 5.3.1 Gender

According to the data displayed in Figure 12, it is clear that there is a greater percentage of female teachers (60%) than males (40%) in this sample. It should be stressed that, due to official state policy in the Kuwaiti education system, females are encouraged to qualify as primary school teachers. In addition, Kuwaiti women find that teaching in schools offers them a culturally appropriate working environment as well as a good salary. As a result, the Ministry of Education has been replacing all the male teachers at primary level with female teachers. This gender disparity at the primary level is because of a strong Kuwaiti cultural and religious belief that it is women who should be the main caregivers of children. Kuwaiti culture and Islam both profess women are inherently better suited for care of young children because they are believed to have more patience and a more nurturing nature than men.

**Figure 12: Gender Distribution**

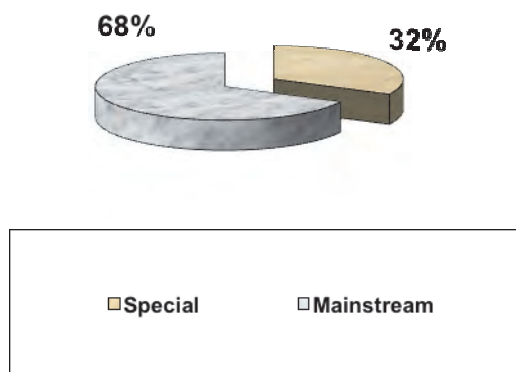


### 5.3.2 Type of School

The data displayed in Figure 13 show that 67% of the sample are teachers and head teachers from mainstream schools and 33% are from special schools. This reflects the

use of stratified sample which was weighted to ensure that the sample contained respondents from special schools.

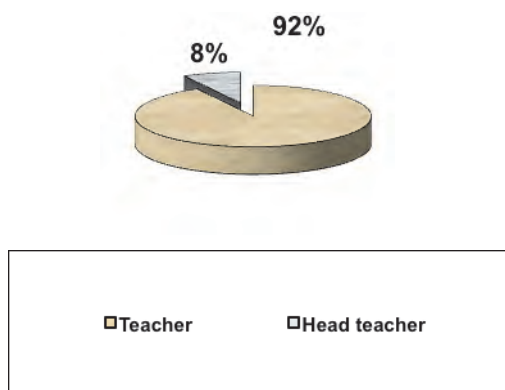
**Figure 13: Schools Type Distribution**



### **5.3.3 Teacher Status**

The data displayed indicate that the percentage of mainstream classroom teachers was 62.3% and of mainstream head teachers was 5.2%. While special school teachers accounted for 29.8% and special school head teachers for 2.7% of the staff of the special schools. In the sample as a whole, 92% of the respondents were teachers and 8% were head teachers (Figure 14). Again this reflects the approach to sampling which was weighted to ensure the sample contained respondents who were head teachers.

**Figure 14: Teacher Status Distribution**



#### **5.4 Attitudes to the four disability groups**

The following tables show the summary statistics of the MAS variables in relation to attitudes towards the inclusion of the four disability groups in mainstream schools. They include percentages received at each level of the Likert scale, as well as the means for each question with 1 meaning strongly disagree and 5 meaning strongly agree. The means of each sub-section (attitudes towards physical disabilities, emotional and behavioural disorders, mental disabilities and learning difficulties) were calculated by averaging the score of the six questions for each scale. The average scores are presented at the end of each summary table and again in the overall summary see table 16.



**Table 10: Summary Statistics of Attitudes to Physical Disability. N=560**

<b>MAS Variables</b>	<b>SD %</b>	<b>D %</b>	<b>U %</b>	<b>A %</b>	<b>SA %</b>	<b>Mean</b>	<b>Std. dev</b>
MAS-6-Pupils with physical disability will learn how to cope with the real world better if they are in a mainstream school setting	22.0	22.0	22.3	16.8	17.0	2.85	1.39
MAS-5-Pupils with physical disabilities would be happier in mainstream classrooms	20.2	24.1	20.5	21.3	13.9	2.85	1.34
MAS-4-In general, it is desirable to teach physically pupils with disabilities alongside mainstream pupils	19.8	27.0	17.7	18.4	17.1	2.86	1.38
MAS-2-Pupils with physical disabilities should be in the mainstream classroom	21.8	23.0	19.6	17.5	18.0	2.87	1.41
MAS-3-It is possible to teach pupils with physical disabilities alongside normal pupils in the same classroom	20.7	25.2	16.8	19.8	17.5	2.88	1.40
MAS-1-Pupils with physical disabilities should have the right to be in a mainstream classroom	20.9	24.6	14.8	21.3	18.4	2.92	1.42
<b>Mean</b>	<b>-</b>	<b>-</b>	<b>-</b>	<b>-</b>	<b>-</b>	<b>2.87</b>	<b>1.16</b>

**Notes:** SD = strongly disagree; D = disagree; U = Uncertain; A = agree; SA = strongly agree.

**Table 11: Summary Statistics of Attitudes to Emotional and Behavioural Disorders. N=560**

<b>MAS Variables</b>	<b>SD %</b>	<b>D %</b>	<b>U %</b>	<b>A %</b>	<b>SA %</b>	<b>Mean</b>	<b>Std. dev</b>
MAS-10-In general, it is desirable to teach pupils with emotional and behavioural disorder alongside mainstream pupils	23.8	24.1	24.6	14.3	13.2	2.69	1.33
MAS-12-Pupils with emotional and behavioural disorders will learn how to cope with the real world better if they are in a mainstream school setting	24.1	22.5	20.2	16.8	16.4	2.79	1.40
MAS-8-Pupils with emotional and behavioural disorder should be in the mainstream classroom	22.1	21.8	23.8	20.0	12.3	2.79	1.32
MAS-11-Pupils with emotional and behavioural disorder would be happier in a mainstream classroom	21.1	25.0	20.2	20.7	13.0	2.80	1.34
MAS-9-It is feasible to teach pupils with emotional and behavioural disorder alongside normal pupils in the same classroom.	20.9	23.8	23.2	18.0	14.1	2.81	1.34
MAS-7-Pupils with emotional and behavioural disorder should have the right to be in a mainstream classroom	17.7	26.8	23.4	18.9	13.2	2.83	1.29
<b>Mean</b>	<b>-</b>	<b>-</b>	<b>-</b>	<b>-</b>	<b>-</b>	<b>2.78</b>	<b>1.33</b>

**Notes:** SD = strongly disagree; D = disagree; U = Uncertain; A = agree; SA = strongly agree.

**Table 12: Summary Statistics of Attitudes to Mental Disability. N=560**

<b>MAS Variables</b>	<b>SD %</b>	<b>D %</b>	<b>U %</b>	<b>A %</b>	<b>SA %</b>	<b>Mean</b>	<b>Std. dev</b>
MAS-16-In general, it is desirable to teach pupils with mental disabilities alongside mainstream pupils.	24.6	23.8	18.0	20.7	12.9	2.73	1.37
MAS-13-Mentally disabled pupils should have the right to be in a mainstream classroom.	20.7	29.1	19.1	14.3	16.8	2.77	1.37
MAS-18-Mentally disabled pupils will learn how to cope with the real world better if they are in a mainstream school setting.	21.4	24.5	22.9	16.3	15.0	2.79	1.35
MAS-14-Mentally disabled pupils should be in the mainstream classroom.	23.0	18.8	20.5	24.6	13.0	2.86	1.36
MAS-15-It is feasible to teach pupils with mental disabilities alongside normal pupils in the same classroom.	19.6	25.4	19.6	18.0	17.3	2.88	1.38
MAS-17-Pupils with mental disabilities would be happier in a mainstream classroom.	20.2	24.6	17.5	21.4	16.3	2.89	1.38
<b>Mean</b>	-	-	-	-	-	<b>2.85</b>	<b>1.36</b>

**Notes:** SD = strongly disagree; D = disagree; U = Uncertain; A = agree; SA = strongly agree.

**Table 13: Summary Statistics of Attitudes to Learning Difficulty. N=560**

<b>MAS Variables</b>	<b>SD %</b>	<b>D %</b>	<b>U %</b>	<b>A %</b>	<b>SA %</b>	<b>Mean</b>	<b>Std. dev</b>
MAS-20-Pupils with learning difficulties should be in mainstream classrooms.	26.1	25.4	16.6	16.6	15.4	2.70	1.41
MAS-24-Pupils with learning difficulties will learn how to cope with the real world better if they are in a mainstream school setting	22.3	26.1	22.3	16.1	13.2	2.72	1.33
MAS-22-In general, it is desirable to teach pupils with learning difficulties alongside mainstream pupils.	25.4	20.7	21.6	19.8	12.5	2.73	1.36
MAS-23-Pupils with learning difficulties would be happier in mainstream classrooms.	22.1	24.6	21.8	17.3	14.1	2.77	1.35
MAS-19-Pupils with learning difficulties should have the right to be in a mainstream classroom.	20.0	25.7	22.9	19.8	11.6	2.77	1.29
MAS-21-It is feasible to teach pupils with learning difficulties along with normal pupils in the same classroom.	21.1	23.9	22.3	17.3	15.4	2.82	1.36
<b>Mean</b>	-	-	-	-	-	<b>2.75</b>	<b>1.35</b>

**Notes:** SD = strongly disagree; D = disagree; U = Uncertain; A = agree; SA = strongly agree.

#### **5.4.1 Discussion Tables 10 - 13**

Tables 10 through 13 display the scores of the entire sample of teachers and head teachers on attitudes towards physical disabilities, emotional and behavioural disorders, mental disabilities and learning difficulties. One salient feature of the scores across disabilities is the consistently wide range of responses (high standard deviations). Although there is a trend to disagree more than to agree with the MAS statements, reflecting an overall reluctance to accept pupils with disabilities into

mainstream classrooms, there is also a substantial percentage of teachers and head teachers for each item who, on average, agree or strongly agree, as well as a large percentage of respondents who scored 3, which means they neither agree nor disagree. For example, on the first question of Table 10, although 44% of respondents disagreed (either strongly or otherwise) with the statement, *Pupils with physical disability will learn how to cope with the real world better if they are in a mainstream school setting*, 33.8% agreed and 22% neither agreed nor disagreed. Thus, although 44% of the teachers and head teachers disagreed or strongly disagreed, overall 55.8% of the respondents were either uncertain, agreed or strongly agreed. This trend, of having a wide-ranging, barely skewed, set of responses is found on all of the MAS questions. The data indicate there is no clear majority of teachers and head teachers who either agree or disagree with inclusion, and there is a great deal of uncertainty surrounding the issue. Further analysis of responses using Analysis of Variance (ANOVA) would help identify the origin of the variance present in all of the MAS questions. Thus there are two main conclusions that can be drawn from this section: 1.) There is an enormous range of responses for each MAS item perhaps indicating a division among respondents, the nature of which could be investigated through further statistical testing and 2.) There appears to be an overall negative attitude of teachers and head teachers toward including pupils with these four disabilities in mainstream classes.

## **5.5 Attitude Toward Training and Support**

The following tables show the summary statistics of the MAS variables in relation to attitudes towards training and support linked to the inclusion of pupils with disabilities in mainstream schools. They include percentages received at each level of

the Likert scale, as well as the means for each question with 1 meaning strongly disagree and 5 meaning strongly agree. The means of each sub-section (attitudes towards training, and attitudes towards support) were calculated by averaging the score of the questions for each scale. The average scores are presented at the end of each summary table and again in the overall summary table (Table 16).

Questions numbers 25 and 26 of the MAS were worded with a meaning opposite to the nuance of the other questions so they responses were reversed for calculating averages. For these two questions, in the original data in SPSS 1 became 5, 2 became 4, 3 remained the same since it's the mid point, 4 became 2 and 5 became 1. Their means were then calculated in the same manner as the other questions.

**Table 14: Summary Statistics of General Attitudes - Training**

<b>MAS Variables</b>	<b>SD %</b>	<b>D %</b>	<b>U %</b>	<b>A %</b>	<b>SA %</b>	<b>Mean</b>	<b>Std. dev</b>
MAS-29-Mainstream classroom teachers need training in identifying pupils with disabilities who need special education services.	25.0	24.8	19.6	17.1	13.4	2.69	1.37
MAS-28-Mainstream classroom teachers need training in selecting and developing materials and activities appropriate for pupils with disabilities if they are to teach them in their classroom.	23.8	25.2	21.4	15.2	14.5	2.71	1.36
MAS-27-Educating pupils with disabilities in the mainstream classroom will require extensive training of mainstream teachers.	20.5	26.8	22.7	17.9	12.1	2.74	1.30
MAS-26-Mainstream classroom teachers have sufficient training and experience to teach pupils with disabilities*	22.9	24.1	20.5	15.4	17.1	2.80	1.40
MAS-25-Mainstream classroom teachers have the necessary skills to teach pupils with disabilities*	23.6	22.7	24.1	15.2	14.5	2.74	1.35
<b>Mean</b>	-	-	-	-	-	<b>2.73</b>	<b>1.35</b>

**Notes:** \* Reversed for calculating the subscale mean.

**Table 15: Summary Statistics of General Attitudes - Support**

<b>MAS Variables</b>	<b>SD %</b>	<b>D %</b>	<b>U %</b>	<b>A %</b>	<b>SA %</b>	<b>Mean</b>	<b>Std. dev</b>
MAS-30-Mainstream classroom teachers would feel more comfortable teaching pupils with disabilities if special school teachers would assist in providing services in the mainstream classroom.	24.1	27.0	23.9	13.8	11.3	2.61	1.29
MAS-31-Mainstream classroom teachers need to be assisted in planning an individual program for the disabled pupil in the mainstream classroom.	24.1	27.0	18.9	18.6	11.4	2.66	1.33
MAS-32- Mainstream classroom teachers need to be provided with special materials designed to meet the educational need of pupils with disabilities if they are to teach them in their classrooms.	25.7	22.0	21.1	17.1	14.1	2.72	1.38
<b>Mean</b>	-	-	-	-	-	<b>2.66</b>	<b>1.33</b>

#### **5.5.1 Discussion Tables 14-15 Attitudes Toward Training and Support**

The General Attitudes Scale section of the MAS, resulted in means in slight disagreement (i.e. mean score under the mid-point, 3) with statements which indicated that overall teachers perceive they need training, materials, additional staff and planning time when pupils with disabilities are introduced into mainstream classrooms. However, all general attitude questions also had large proportions of participants who responded in the “agree” range. For example, in the Attitudes Towards Training section of the General Attitudes Scale, on MAS-28: *Mainstream classroom teachers need training in selecting and developing materials and activities*



*appropriate for pupils with disabilities if they are to teach them in their classroom,* 49% of the respondents disagreed with the statement while 29.7% agreed. It would be interesting to investigate further whether such a large proportion (49%) of teachers feel ready to work with the pupils with disabilities (in that they disagreed with statements indicating a need for additional training) or if they feel inclusion simply should not happen. At first glance it may appear the results of MAS-26 (*Mainstream classroom teachers have sufficient training and experience to teach pupils with disabilities*) as well as MAS-25 (*Mainstream classroom teachers have the necessary skills to teach pupils with disabilities*) contradicted the results of the first three items of that section. MAS 25 and 26 had percentages similar to the first three questions which appear to claim the opposite. But their averages, 2.80 and 2.74 respectively are the highest in that section which shows a concordance with the averages of the first three items. The phrases in the two items “teachers have sufficient training and experience” and “teachers have the necessary skills” and the fact that although respondents disagreed, they disagreed the least to these statements, may reflect a preference among the already-trained and more experienced respondents to resist yet more training. It is also possible these two items reflect the notion that teachers and head teachers who have not worked in inclusive classrooms underestimate the challenges they will face, thus do not anticipate the need for additional training. Similarly, a larger percentage of teachers and head teachers disagreed than agreed with each of the questions regarding attitudes towards support. For example, 47.7% of respondents disagreed or strongly disagreed with MAS 32 (*Mainstream classroom teachers need to be provided with special materials designed to meet the educational need of pupils with disabilities if they are to teach them in their classrooms*) and 31% agreed or strongly agreed with that statement. Thus, although the largest proportion of

respondents did not feel a need for special materials for pupils with disabilities, an overall 31% felt additional materials would enhance their effectiveness in the classroom.

At first glance the responses to the General Attitude Scale section of the MAS, in their preponderance of disagreeing scores, indicate educators consistently said they believe they are not in need of training and support. But upon a closer examination, there is also a substantial percentage of teachers and head teachers who agree with the MAS statements, which show the sample is split. Further study should investigate the possibility that a large minority of teachers and head teachers exist who believe they are in need of training, additional staff and planning time when students with disabilities are added to their mainstream classrooms. It could also be determined if this substantial minority are the less experienced teachers and head teachers. Another interesting possibility to be investigated is whether there is a segment of the majority of respondents who disagreed with statements like MAS-27: *Educating pupils with disabilities in the mainstream classroom will require extensive training of mainstream teachers* because, though they may be inexperienced with inclusion, they underestimate the amount of additional support required to make inclusion a success.

## **5.6 Comparison of attitude towards the inclusion of different disability groups in mainstream schools**

Questions surrounding the four types of disability (physical disabilities, emotional and behavioural disorders, mental disabilities, and learning difficulties), and the two general attitude scales (training and support) were concluded in the questionnaires to

specifically address the research questions. The tables summarise the means and standard deviations for the responses of teachers and head teachers on these six themes of the survey.

**Table 16: Attitudes in Kuwait to Educational Inclusion**

<b>Attitude</b>	<b>N</b>	<b>Min</b>	<b>Max</b>	<b>Mean</b>	<b>Std. Dev</b>
Physical Disabilities	560	1	5	2.87	1.16
Emotional and behavioural disorders	560	1	5	2.78	0.96
Mental Disability	560	1	5	2.82	0.99
Learning difficulties	560	1	5	2.75	0.94
Attitude Toward Training	560	1	5	2.73	0.67
Attitude Towards Support	560	1	5	2.66	1.00

In the first four rows, which show the results for the attitudes of teachers and head teachers toward pupils with the varying disabilities, the fact that all of the means reside in the “disagree or strongly disagree” response areas indicates that overall respondents felt more negatively than positively about the prospects of mainstreaming pupils with disabilities. Based upon these mean scores, respondents were the least willing to accept the idea of mainstreaming pupils with learning difficulties 2.75. Physical disabilities were the most accepted on average by teachers and head teachers 2.87. Perhaps Kuwaiti teachers and head teachers were more willing to accept those with physical disabilities than those with learning difficulties because their

teaching/assessing methods were perceived to require fewer modifications for the former than for the latter. Teachers and head teachers are responsible for teaching and learning, and, according to MAS questions, many do not feel prepared to assess, prescribe and implement appropriate classroom modifications for the wide range of existing learning difficulties. Physical disabilities do not necessarily require as much modification of classroom methods and materials because it can be assumed their cognitive ability is similar to that of pupils without disabilities. A similar argument holds for respondents' negative attitudes regarding including pupils with mental disabilities. The responses to the statements about emotional and behavioural disordered pupils scored on average 2.78 only slightly more positively than those of the learning difficulties. Classroom discipline is a challenge under the best circumstances and adding emotionally and behaviourally disordered pupils to the daily challenges of teachers and head teachers may give educators greater anxiety.

### **5.7 The Relationship between the Study Components and the Demographic Variables**

In this section of the analysis, the relationships of each demographic factor with the responses to the survey items are statistically examined using a series of one way Analyses of Variance (ANOVA). The analysis is carried out by looking at the interaction between three demographic factors (gender, school types and teacher status) and the relationship to survey items and general (support and training) attitude.

### 5.7.1 Teachers' Gender

One way ANOVAs of the attitude variables in relation to gender revealed four significant effects (and two non-significant effects). Gender had a significant effect upon:

- Attitude to the inclusion of student with physical disabilities in mainstream primary schools ( $F=4.932$ ,  $df\ 1,549$ ,  $p=0.027$ ).
- Attitude to the inclusion of student with learning difficulties in mainstream primary schools ( $F=13.205$ ,  $df\ 1,549$ ,  $p<0.0005$ ).
- Attitude to the need for more training for mainstream primary school teachers to include students with disabilities ( $F=8.240$ ,  $df\ 1,549$ ,  $p<0.005$ ).
- Attitude to the need for more support for mainstream primary school teachers to include students with disabilities ( $F=16.115$ ,  $df\ 1,549$ ,  $p<0.0005$ ).

Gender did not have a significant effect upon:

- Attitude to the inclusion of student with emotional and behavioural disorders in mainstream primary schools ( $F=2.486$ ,  $df\ 1,549$ ,  $p>0.05$ ).
- Attitude to the inclusion of student with mental disabilities in mainstream primary schools ( $F=3.568$ ,  $df\ 1,549$ ,  $p>0.05$ ).

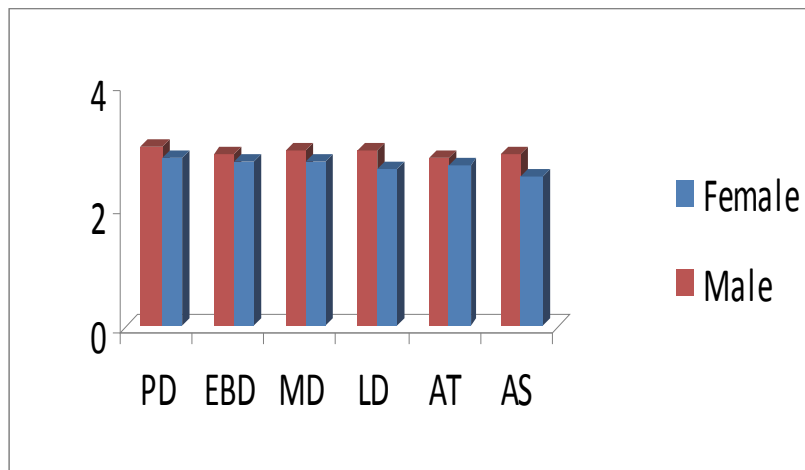
**Table 17: Attitude toward Inclusion among Teachers by Gender**

Gender		Disability Group				Support / Training	
		PD	EBD	MD	LD	AT	AS
Female	Mean	2.78	2.73	2.75	2.63	2.67	2.52
	SD	1.16	.93	.96	.88	.68	.94
	N	336	336	336	336	336	336

Male	<b>Mean</b>	3.00	2.86	2.91	2.92	2.83	2.87
	<b>SD</b>	1.16	.98	1.02	.99	.65	1.07
	<b>N</b>	224	224	224	224	224	224
<b>Total</b>	<b>Mean</b>	2.87	2.78	2.82	2.75	2.73	2.66
	<b>SD</b>	1.16	.96	.99	.94	.67	1.00
	<b>N</b>	560	560	560	560	560	560

**Tables key:** **PD:** Physical Disabilities; **EBD:** Emotional and Behavioural Disorder; **MD:** Mental Disabilities; **LD:** Learning Difficulties; **AT:** Attitude towards training; **AS:** Attitude towards Support

**Figure 15: Attitude in Kuwait to Educational Inclusion by Gender**



**PD:** Physical Disabilities; **EBD:** Emotional and Behavioural Disorder; **MD:** Mental Disabilities; **LD:** Learning Difficulties; **AT:** Attitude towards Training; **AS:** Attitude towards Support.

Table 17 shows that the mean score for the attitude toward disabilities of the entire sample of males is higher than that of the females for each of the four types of disability. The females' scores ranged between 2.63 and 2.78 for the four types of disability and 2.67 and 2.52 in General Attitude Toward Training and Support, respectively. The males' mean scores reflecting their attitudes towards including pupils with the four disabilities ranged from 2.86 and 3.00, and 2.83 and 2.87 on General Attitude Toward Training and Support, respectively. The higher means of the males on the MAS reflects an attitude more positive on average than that of the females in attitudes that pupils with disabilities can and will benefit from mainstreaming. Of the four disabilities assessed, females agreed most strongly on average 2.78 that pupils with physical disabilities would prosper in mainstream classrooms, and were least comfortable 2.63 with the idea of mainstreaming pupils with learning difficulties, which corresponds with the prior results presented in Table 17 which include the entire sample. Males, also were most comfortable 3.00 with the

idea of including pupils with physical disabilities but least favoured including pupils with emotionally and behaviourally disordered 2.86.

There were some significant effects as regards gender. Male teachers' attitudes were significantly more positive on average than female teachers' attitudes about teaching pupils with physical disabilities ( $p=.027$ ), and learning difficulties ( $p=0.000$ ). Males were also statistically significantly more agreeable in their responses to the General Attitude Scales, indicating they believed more strongly than females that more training and support were needed to make inclusion a success. Although the differences were not statistically significant at the .05 level, male respondents also scored more positively than females on the other two subtests: mental disability and emotional and behavioural disorders indicating generally more acceptance of including pupils with these disabilities in mainstream classrooms.

### **5.7.2 School Type**

One way ANOVAs of the attitude variables in relation to school type (mainstream or special) revealed five significant effects (and one non-significant effect). School type had a significant effect upon:

- Attitude to the inclusion of pupils with physical disabilities in mainstream primary schools ( $F=60.447$ ,  $df\ 1,549$ ,  $p<0.0005$ ).
- Attitude to the inclusion of pupils with emotional and behavioural disorders in mainstream primary schools ( $F=54.764$ ,  $df\ 1,549$ ,  $p<0.0005$ ).
- Attitude to the inclusion of pupils with mental disabilities in mainstream primary schools ( $F=53.720$ ,  $df\ 1,549$ ,  $p<0.0005$ ).



- Attitude to the inclusion of pupils with learning difficulties in mainstream primary schools ( $F=60.346$ ,  $df\ 1,549$ ,  $p<0.0005$ ).
- Attitude to the need for more support for mainstream primary school teachers to include pupils with disabilities ( $F=19.324$ ,  $df\ 1,549$ ,  $p<0.0005$ ).

School type did not have a significant effect upon:

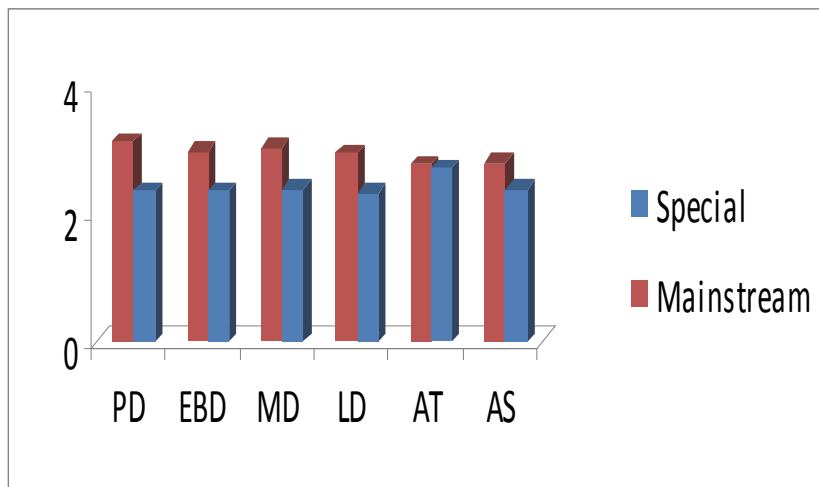
- Attitude to the need for more training for mainstream primary school teachers to include students with disabilities ( $p>0.05$ ).

**Table 18: Attitudes towards Inclusion by Type of School**

Type of School		Disability Group				Support / Training	
		PD	EBD	MD	LD	AT	AS
Special Schools	Mean	2.34	2.37	2.39	2.32	2.69	2.39
	SD	.92	.78	.83	.77	.62	.80
	N	182	182	182	182	182	182
Mainstream Schools	Mean	3.12	2.98	3.02	2.95	2.76	2.79
	SD	1.18	.97	1.00	.95	.70	1.06
	N	378	378	378	378	378	378
Total	Mean	2.87	2.78	2.82	2.75	2.73	2.66
	SD	1.16	.96	.99	.94	.67	1.00
	N	560	560	560	560	560	560

**PD:** Physical Disabilities; **EBD:** Emotional and Behavioural Disorder; **MD:** Mental Disabilities; **LD:** Learning Difficulties; **AT:** Attitude towards Training; **AS:** Attitude towards Support.

**Figure 16: Attitude in Kuwait to Educational Inclusion by Type of School**



**PD:** Physical Disabilities; **EBD:** Emotional and Behavioural Disorder; **MD:** Mental Disabilities; **LD:** Learning Difficulties; **AT:** Attitude towards Training; **AS:** Attitude towards Support.

Table 18 shows that the mean scores for the attitudes toward educational inclusion for the whole sample of teachers and head teachers in both type of schools ranges from 2.75 to 2.87 for the four types of disability. The total population scored higher on

average on the General Attitude Toward Training scale 2.73 than on the General Attitude Toward Support scale 2.66 indicating they perceived a greater need for training than for support on average. In the mainstream schools, the sample means range from 2.95 to 3.12 for the four types of disability, whereas in the special schools, the means on the varying disabilities ranged from 2.32 to 2.39, which were all, calculated through the ANOVA, found to have been significantly lower assessments of teacher and head teachers attitudes toward inclusion than those of the teachers and head teachers working in mainstream schools. In fact, inferential statistics show mainstream teachers and head teachers agree significantly more than special school teachers and head teachers that there will be a need for more support when pupils with disabilities are introduced to mainstream classrooms. This would indicate the teachers and head teachers in mainstream schools who already have more training and experience working with the pupils with disabilities, feel less need for support than those teachers and head teachers in special schools who are more apprehensive about including more pupils with disabilities.

Although the mean Attitude Toward Training scores for teachers and head teachers in mainstream schools were slightly higher than those of the teachers and head teachers in the special schools, they were not found to be statistically significantly higher. The teachers and head teachers of the mainstream schools did, however, score on average statistically significantly higher than their counterpart in the special schools on the Attitude Toward Support scale. This finding indicates the teachers and head teachers at the mainstream schools expressed a stronger need for additional support services to accompany inclusion than did the teachers and head teachers at the special schools.

### 5.7.3 Teacher Status

One way ANOVAs of the attitude variables in relation to teacher status (class teacher or head teacher) revealed no significant effects. Teacher status did *not* have a significant effect upon:

- Attitude to the inclusion of pupils with physical disabilities in mainstream primary schools ( $F=0.227$ ,  $df\ 1,549$ ,  $p>0.05$ ).
- Attitude to the inclusion of pupils with emotional and behavioural disorders in mainstream primary schools ( $F=0.006$ ,  $df\ 1,549$ ,  $p>0.05$ ).
- Attitude to the inclusion of pupils with mental disabilities in mainstream primary schools ( $F=0.131$ ,  $df\ 1,549$ ,  $p>0.05$ ).
- Attitude to the inclusion of pupils with learning difficulties in mainstream primary schools ( $F=0.005$ ,  $df\ 1,549$ ,  $p>0.05$ ).
- Attitude to the need for more training for mainstream primary school teachers to include pupils with disabilities ( $F=2.461$ ,  $df\ 1,549$ ,  $p>0.05$ ).
- Attitude to the need for more support for mainstream primary school teachers to include pupils with disabilities ( $F=0.908$ ,  $df\ 1,549$ ,  $p>0.05$ ).

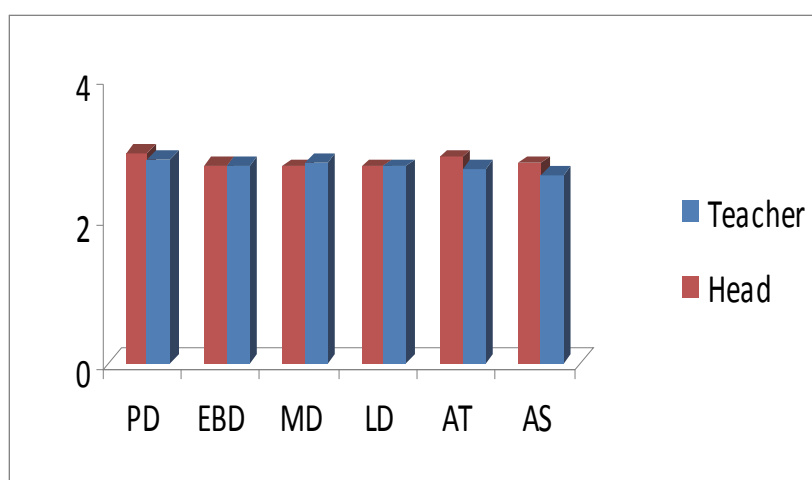
**Table 19: Attitude in Kuwait to Educational Inclusion by Teachers' Status**

Status		Disability Group				Support / Training	
		PD	EBD	MD	LD	AT	AS
Teacher	Mean	2.86	2.78	2.82	2.75	2.72	2.65
	SD	1.15	.95	.99	.93	.67	1.00
	N	516	516	516	516	516	516
teacher Head	Mean	2.95	2.77	2.76	2.76	2.89	2.80
	SD	1.22	.99	.94	1.02	.70	1.08

	N	44	44	44	44	44	44
Total	Mean	2.87	2.78	2.82	2.75	2.73	2.66
	SD	1.16	.96	.99	.94	.67	1.00
	N	560	560	560	560	560	560

**PD:** Physical Disabilities; **EBD:** Emotional and Behavioural Disorder; **MD:** Mental Disabilities; **LD:** Learning Difficulties; **AT:** Attitude towards Training; **AS:** Attitude towards Support.

**Figure 17: Attitude in Kuwait to Educational Inclusion by Teachers' Status**



**PD:** Physical Disabilities; **EBD:** Emotional and Behavioural Disorder; **MD:** Mental Disabilities; **LD:** Learning Difficulties; **AT:** Attitude towards Training; **AS:** Attitude towards Support.

Table 19 compares teachers and head teachers on their MAS results. The mean score on the MAS for the teachers ranges from 2.75 to 2.86 for the four types of disability with physical disabilities scoring the highest and learning difficulties the lowest. The head teachers' sample scores range from 2.76 for attitudes towards including pupils with mental disabilities to 2.95 for attitudes towards including those with physical disabilities. Though the head teachers' means on both the Attitude Towards Training and Attitude Towards Support scales were higher than those of the teachers, they were not significantly higher. Similarly, head teachers and teachers had no statistically significant differences between their MAS scores on their attitudes toward including

any of the four types disability ( $p>0.05$ ). Thus, there was no significant effect of teachers' status, i.e. no observed difference in attitude toward inclusion, between head teachers and classroom teachers (see Table 19 and Figure 17).

## **5.8 Discussion and Conclusion**

The results in general suggest the following:

- Wide ranges existed among the Likert responses to the MAS survey. Although the responses tended toward the “strongly disagree” or “disagree” end of the Likert spectrum, for every survey item there was also a substantial number of responses in the “uncertain” and “agree” or “strongly agree” categories.
- Teacher and head teacher attitudes towards including the pupils with disabilities in mainstream classrooms varied from most accepting to least accepting in the following order: Physical Disabilities, Mental Disabilities, Emotional and Behavioural Disordered, and Learning Difficulties
- Male teachers' attitudes towards including pupils with physical disabilities in mainstream classrooms are statistically significantly more positive than the attitudes of female teachers towards including pupils with physical disabilities.
- Male teacher and head teacher attitudes towards including pupils with learning difficulties in mainstream classrooms are significantly more positive than the attitudes of female teachers and head teachers towards including pupils with learning difficulties.
- Male teacher and head teacher attitudes toward obtaining more training and support in order to effectively implement and expand inclusion programs into mainstream classrooms are statistically significantly more positive than the

attitudes of female teachers and head teachers toward obtaining more training and support for inclusion programs.

- Teachers and head teachers at mainstream schools have statistically significantly more positive attitudes than teachers and head teachers at special schools regarding including all categories of disability: physical disabilities, mental disabilities, emotional and behavioural disorders, and those with learning difficulties.
- Teachers and head teachers at mainstream schools have significantly more positive attitudes than teachers and head teachers at special schools regarding the need for additional support in order to implement and expand inclusion programs.
- Teacher status (head teacher vrs classroom teachers) does not appear to be linked to attitude measured using the MAS.

It is impossible to ignore the wide range of scores on teacher and head teacher attitudes toward inclusion. Perhaps inclusion's novelty to Kuwait and the expansion of inclusion to encompass more types of disabilities influenced the wide range of scores. Since inclusion is new to Kuwait, there are some teachers who are more familiar with it than others. Those who have learned about mainstreaming pupils with disabilities into their classes and those who are experienced with inclusion may comprise the slight minority of respondents who chose to "agree" or "strongly agree" with items on the MAS, and those teachers and head teachers who had not learned enough about inclusion, and/or had not had the opportunity to work in an inclusive classroom, which would comprise the majority of Kuwaiti teachers and head teachers, may have been more likely to have chosen to "disagree" or "strongly disagree" or

even chosen “uncertain”. The widespread uncertainty identified in the MAS data may be explained through interviews of teachers and head teachers, though some of the variance has been explained by respondents’ gender, and type of school (but not teacher status). Perhaps future research and performance of MANOVA tests could determine the sources of the consistent variance among MAS survey item responses beyond the variables explored here. Other variables such as age, number of years working with pupils with disabilities, years of experience teaching, or amount of teacher and special education training received should be investigated as possible influences on the wide MAS variance results obtained in this sample.

The MAS scores reflecting the need for training and support were also dispersed. Perhaps interviews can determine if more experienced teachers and head teachers feel they have enough training and support. Those teachers and head teachers, together with those who do not welcome inclusion because it may be seen as requiring more work and undesired change may make up the small majority of respondents who “disagree” or “strongly disagree” with the MAS statements reflecting the needs for additional training and support in order to implement including pupils with disabilities into mainstream classrooms. Nonetheless, interviews may clarify this issue.

Male teachers and head teachers scored significantly more agreeably than females in their acceptance of including pupils with disabilities into mainstream classes. Males also were significantly more agreeable to more training and support for the implementation of inclusion. Perhaps, as mentioned in the introduction of this chapter, the following facts influenced their less agreeable attitudes toward inclusion: a) many females have been moved to Primary levels, and b) thus already have new



assignments, thus additional work, and c) females will also be more likely to be expected to implement new inclusion efforts. Although the scores were, as usual, very disparate, and even the small majority of male teachers and head teachers chose to “disagree” or “strongly disagree” with all of the items relating an accepting attitude toward including each type of disability in mainstream classrooms, their more agreeable scores (or ‘less disagreeable’) than those of the females, might not be as hesitant as female to make such a big change. Perhaps interviews will help to explain if this theory is the case and if the same reasoning holds true for the fact that male teachers and head teachers were also significantly less likely to disagree with MAS items that stated a need for additional training and support for inclusion.

Finally, teachers and head teachers at mainstream schools had significantly more positive attitudes toward including pupils with all types of disability than did teachers and head teachers in special schools. Perhaps teachers and head teachers at mainstream schools had significantly better attitudes toward inclusion because more of them had experienced inclusion and found it to be not as difficult as they had anticipated. On the other hand, the attitudes of the respondents at the mainstream schools, though more positive than those of the respondents at the special schools, still had a small majority scoring in the “disagree” or “strongly disagree” categories reflecting a reluctance, shared with the special school respondents, to include pupils having any of the four types of disability. Nonetheless, perhaps it is the case that the mainstream teachers and head teachers, rather than already finding inclusion easier than anticipated to implement, overestimate their ability to adapt their teaching practices to the new challenges that inclusion presents. Respondents from special schools thus may have been less agreeable than their mainstream school counterparts

because they are more experienced with pupils with disabilities, and more accurately understand the increased demands on time and expertise that will inevitably accompany including pupils with disabilities in mainstream classrooms. Teachers from special schools may have had significantly less positive attitudes about expanding inclusion programs because they face the biggest disruption to their professional lives. They may worry about having to move from their present special schools to mainstream schools. Special teachers may also be uneasy about a potential loss of status when they share a building with mainstream teachers. Special School teachers may also be concerned about being a *second teacher* in mainstream classrooms, or relegated the role of *helper* to mainstream teachers, a step down psychologically from their previous status as an independent teacher with their own domain. There is also the possibility that special school teachers fear expanding inclusion classrooms may result in the loss of their jobs as mainstream teachers simply add teaching pupils with disabilities to their job descriptions, leaving some teachers from special schools unemployed. Mainstream teachers and head teachers also had significantly more positive attitudes toward having more support for inclusion programs than did their special school counterparts, but the two groups did not significantly differ on their attitudes toward need for training, though respondents from both types of school scored in the “disagree” or “strongly disagree” range. Again, perhaps mainstream teachers miscalculate the additional work and stress involved in inclusion and do not know enough about the types and amount of support they will need to make their work in inclusion classrooms successful. Interviewing teachers and head teachers may help explain some of these differences.

Interviews were introduced to determine whether more experience working with pupils with disabilities caused some teachers and head teachers agreements, or whether those already working with pupils with disabilities felt more comfortable with their prospects for success in mainstream schools.

Perhaps the most important finding from the survey is that it suggests that there is a majority of respondents who have reservations about inclusion as well as a smaller, but substantial minority of teachers and head teachers who, for reasons to be investigated through interviews, feel more comfortable with including pupils with disabilities in mainstream classrooms. Perhaps it is this minority, the ones who were more likely to agree with the MAS statements, who can be called upon to provide leadership as inclusion expands in Kuwait.

Interview data can perhaps shed some light on whether teachers feel a more urgent need whereas head teachers may have a reluctance to subject further strain on school funds. Interview data may also clarify whether the wide range of responses to the attitudes questions about training and support originate in the different degrees of experience in working with the pupils with disabilities, or if this disparity of opinions about the pupils with disabilities evinced in all of the MAS scores came from the differing experiences of those in mainstream and special schools.

Other demographic data collected in the MAS questionnaire were also explored (although these variables were not the focus of the study it was thought useful to find out if there was any significant relationships associated with them). Significant main effects in relation to attitudes towards inclusion were found for the following

variables: teacher experience/contact with pupils with disabilities (three options: no knowledge, some knowledge including personal and training experience, and professional knowledge), and school district (six districts).

Table 20 shows the attitudes towards inclusion in relation to teacher experience/contact with pupils with disabilities. The results show that teachers with ‘some knowledge’ and ‘professional knowledge’ of pupils with disability were more negative about inclusion than teachers with ‘no knowledge’ of pupils with disability. This is in keeping with the earlier reported findings that special school teachers were more negative about inclusion. In fact, and unsurprisingly, there is confounding of these independent variables because teachers with the greatest experience of pupils with disability were also special school teachers. Nevertheless, it is interesting to note that those few teachers from mainstream schools who described themselves as having ‘some knowledge’ of disabilities (N=42) were also more negative towards inclusion (in line with views held by the special school teachers). While this is interesting, it is important to be cautious about this finding given the low numbers and variable confounding. Even so, the importance of teacher experience/contact with pupils with disabilities was also raised in the interviews with teachers (see Chapter Seven) and is also drawn out in the conclusion and recommendations (see Chapter Eight, Section 8.2).

Table 21 shows the attitudes towards inclusion in relation to school districts. The most negative attitudes towards inclusion were observed in the Hawali school district. This is not surprising as all special schools are located in this district.

**Table 20: Attitudes toward Inclusion by Experience/Contact**

Experience / contact		Disability Group				Support / Training	
		PD	EBD	MD	LD	AT	AS
No knowledge	Mean	3.27	3.05	3.07	3.02	2.81	2.86
	SD	1.14	.96	.98	.94	.67	1.07
	N	332	332	332	332	332	332
Some knowledge through studies or personal contact	Mean	2.02	2.41	2.71	2.48	2.30	2.25
	SD	.83	.89	1.06	.81	.73	.92
	N	42	42	42	42	42	42
Professional knowledge through work	Mean	2.34	2.37	2.39	2.33	2.69	2.40
	SD	.91	.77	.81	.76	.61	.80
	N	186	186	186	186	186	186
Total	Mean	2.87	2.78	2.82	2.75	2.73	2.66
	SD	1.16	.95	.99	.93	.67	1.00
	N	560	560	560	560	560	560

**PD:** Physical Disabilities; **EBD:** Emotional and Behavioural Disorder; **MD:** Mental Disabilities; **LD:** Learning Difficulties; **AT:** Attitude towards Training; **AS:** Attitude towards Support.

**Table 21: Attitudes towards Inclusion by School Districts**

District		Disability Group				Support / Training	
		PD	EBD	MD	LD	AT	AS
Al-Asema	Mean	2.68	2.60	2.75	2.62	2.58	2.72
	SD	.99	.79	.95	.83	.73	1.02
	N	103	103	103	103	103	103
Al-Jahra	Mean	3.60	3.37	3.12	3.16	2.89	2.96
	SD	1.05	1.05	1.06	.98	.59	1.05
	N	61	61	61	61	61	61
Hawali	Mean	2.43	2.48	2.49	2.44	2.75	2.42
	SD	1.03	.84	.90	.82	.61	.89
	N	208	208	208	208	208	208
Mubarak Al-Kabeer	Mean	3.49	3.19	3.00	3.10	2.71	2.85
	SD	1.21	.88	.77	.87	.57	.86
	N	37	37	37	37	37	37
Al-Furwania	Mean	2.85	2.98	2.99	2.86	2.62	2.67
	SD	1.22	1.04	1.03	1.03	.80	1.08
	N	67	67	67	67	67	67
Al-Ahmadi	Mean	3.39	2.97	3.27	3.10	2.86	2.85
	SD	1.11	.97	.95	.95	.69	1.09
	N	84	84	84	84	84	84
Total	Mean	2.87	2.78	2.82	2.75	2.73	2.66
	SD	1.16	.95	.99	.93	.67	1.00
	N	560	560	560	560	560	560

**PD:** Physical Disabilities; **EBD:** Emotional and Behavioural Disorder; **MD:** Mental Disabilities; **LD:** Learning Difficulties; **AT:** Attitude towards Training; **AS:** Attitude towards Support.

In the following chapter the advantages and limitations as well as types of interviews are discussed. The design of the interview and selection of interviewees is also described in Chapter Six as a prelude to Chapter Seven in which the interview results are presented.

## **CHAPTER SIX: METHODOLOGY AND METHOD (INTERVIEWS)**

### **6.1 Introduction**

Now that the results of the quantitative aspects of the study have been presented, we turn to the description of and rationale for the interview process. This chapter discusses the reasons for and advantages of using qualitative research through interviewing to better understand the issues related to inclusion from the perspective of teachers and head teachers. It discusses the major objectives and overall structure of the interviewing process. The details of the interviewing process and the results are discussed in the following chapter (Chapter 7).

### **6.2 Qualitative Research by Interviewing**

Interviewing is one of several possible qualitative research methods. Other methods include direct observation and focus groups. Interviews can be used before quantitative research methods such as structured questionnaires, to help design the most relevant questions and categories for the questionnaire. Alternatively, interviews can be used after the quantitative research has been done, as a way of gaining greater insight into why the findings from the quantitative research produced the results that were obtained. Quantitative analysis is very useful for learning *what* teachers' attitudes are concerning inclusion, but less so in explaining *why* these attitudes have been formed, and it is better to supplement it by interviews with teachers and head teachers (Cohen et al, 2007). Interviewing is particularly useful for learning the story

behind a participant's experiences; they allow the interviewer to pursue in-depth information about the topic and around it (Cohen et al, 2007).

Qualitative interviewing is most useful for:

- evaluating programmes obtained from individual outcomes
- capturing and describing programme processes
- exploring individual differences between participants' experiences and outcomes
- evaluating programmes which are seen as dynamic or evolving
- understanding the meaning of a programme to its participants documenting variations in programme implementation at different sites. (Saunders et al, 2003)

These purposes fit the research in this study very well. One of the main aim of the inclusion approach is to produce improved results from mainstreaming pupils with disabilities throughout Kuwait, the results of the approach are composed of a compilation of individualized outcomes. In order for an inclusion approach to be a success, individual pupils and individual teachers must have a positive experience with it. Capturing and describing the success of an approach by teachers who have had prior experience with inclusion is very important. Giannola and Kamens (2006) claim that Interactions between people with disabilities and their same-age peers can provide social models for those with disabilities while rising knowledge and positive attitudes of those without disabilities



It is also important to understand the views of those educators who have not experienced inclusion in order to understand their preconceptions and needs before inclusion is expanded in Kuwait. In order to build a successful inclusion approach throughout Kuwait, it is important to understand and describe what the key elements are in a successful inclusion approach. Exploring individual differences between teachers' and head teachers' experiences and outcomes with inclusion is also important because inclusion has not been standardized throughout the country. Some schools have essentially tried experimental approaches with inclusion, so the understanding of the different experiences and outcomes of the teachers and head teachers in these schools is very useful in developing a set of recommendations for all schools to follow. In addition, some teachers may have experience with inclusion outside Kuwait and their experiences and outcomes would be very valuable if they were based on a more developed programme. Furthermore, the survey data indicated salient differences between male and female educators, and between teachers at mainstream and special schools. Interviewing can elucidate ramifications of the differences among these groups' attitudes.

The inclusion programme in Kuwait is certainly still in planning stages and needs to be implemented. For this reason, a wide variety of different experiences with it and attitudes concerning it are very likely. Interviewing is also highly appropriate in this research because inclusion is a very broad concept and has a number of different meanings for teachers and head teachers, depending on their experiences with it and their knowledge of it. To some teachers and head teachers, inclusion may mean only including pupils with 'minor' disabilities in mainstream classrooms on a part-time basis, while to other teachers inclusion might mean including pupils with all

disabilities in mainstream classrooms on a full-time basis. The survey results identified general attitudinal differences teachers had about including pupils of varying disabilities. Therefore, using interviews to gain more understanding of the meaning of inclusion to different teachers and head teachers is helpful in characterizing the knowledge of it and the acceptance of it within the teaching community. The implementation of inclusion (to the extent that it is implemented) is certainly different across different sites in the country and interviewing can be used to understand the differences in implementation and the relative level of success with different implementations.

### **6.3 Limitations of Interviewing**

The limitations of interviewing and situations where it is not a good methodology to use should also be understood. Interviewing is not a very useful method to evaluate programmes which emphasize a common outcome for all participants (Saunders et al, 2003). So far inclusion in Kuwait has not been organized as a standard programme. Instead, it is in an early experimental state because it has been implemented in different schools on an essentially experimental basis. This interview is limited to investigate teachers, head teachers, and decision makers in the Ministry of Education in the State of Kuwait.

Another situation where interviewing is not a good methodology to use is for measuring the specific, predetermined effects of a programme on participants (Sewell 1998). Thus, interviewing would not be good for measuring the effects of a standardized training programme. Since this study is not looking at the effects of a programme on participants, but at teachers and head teachers who have been exposed

to different training programmes on inclusion and different experiences with inclusion, this limitation of interviewing is also not applicable to the situation.

Interviewing is not an appropriate methodology to be used in impact evaluations which is when trying to decide whether an intervention caused changes in its participants (Saunders et al, 2003). In this study, there has been no intervention. Teachers and head teachers may have varied experiences with inclusion and probably some successes and frustrations with it on an individualized basis, but this study is not trying to measure the impact of any intervention. There is no specific attempt to capture such an intervention and is not included in any interview. Thus, this third limitation of interviewing is also inapplicable to the situation.

Among the disadvantages of interviews is the fact that they are often viewed as more intrusive than quantitative approaches. This can lead to several issues. It may result in the researcher having difficulty in finding suitable participants to interview. The participants may withhold a significant amount of information because they do not want to disclose things which they may later regret. Interviews may be more vulnerable to the personalities, moods and interpersonal dynamics between the interviewer and participant than methods such as surveys (Saunders et al, 2003). If the interpersonal dynamics between the interviewer and interviewee are poor, moreover, the interviewee will probably not share a significant amount of useful information.

Another disadvantage is that interviews are time-consuming and resource intensive. A suitable time needs to be worked out between the interviewer and interviewee, as opposed to a survey that can be taken whenever time allows. In addition, analyzing

and interpreting the results from qualitative interviews is more time-consuming and resource intensive than analyzing quantitative data (Robson, 2002). Interviewing is much more subjective than quantitative research because it can be selected which quotations or what specific examples to report. Because of this, the interviewer can inject bias into the research. For example, a researcher who is pro-inclusion may tend to emphasize positive comments from interviewees while downplaying negative comments.

#### **6.4 Goals of the Qualitative Research**

There are several intellectual goals which are more easily reached with qualitative research. These should be kept in mind when designing the interview questions. Qualitative research is useful for understanding the meaning for participants in the study of the events, situations and actions which they have experienced (Robson, 2002). In qualitative research, I am interested not only in what events and behaviours ensued but how the participants in the study made sense of them and how their understanding has influenced their behaviour. Therefore, the interview process needs to incorporate follow-up questions regarding participants' experiences, to try to understand the meaning of these experiences to the participants.

Another goal of qualitative research is to understand the context within which the participants act and the influence of the context on their actions (Robson, 2002). Understanding the context of the situation allows me to understand how the events, actions, and meaning were affected by the unique circumstances in which they occurred. Therefore, in the interviews it will be very helpful to understand the context in which the teachers' experience with inclusion occurred or the context in which they

formed a particular attitude towards inclusion. The interviewee population will need to be chosen such that a variety of different contexts are represented. This includes different demographic factors, different teacher experiences and job levels, and different types of school.

An additional goal of qualitative research is to develop causal explanations, in order to discover unanticipated influences (Robson, 2002). Researchers can use the interview process to ask participants why a certain event happened or why a certain attitude or opinion was formed and then use the responses to try to develop causal explanations. Therefore, in conducting the interviews, I should structure and carry out the interview in such a way to uncover the underlying causes behind the teachers' actions and their attitudes towards inclusion.

## **6.5 Advantages of Interviewing**

Both the advantages and disadvantages of interviewing should be understood, to enable the design and implementation of the interviews to maximize the advantages while minimizing the disadvantages. One advantage is that interviewing allows the participants to describe what is meaningful or important to them, using their own words rather than being restricted to predetermined categories (Robson, 2002). This can result in the participants being more relaxed and outspoken. In some cases, there are no existing standardized questionnaires or outcome measures to measure what the research is targeting. Interviewing allows the interviewer to probe for more details during questioning and ensure that the participants have understood the questions and are interpreting them as they were intended.

Another advantage of interviewing is that it allows interviewers the flexibility to use their knowledge, expertise, and interpersonal skills to explore interesting or unexpected ideas raised by the participants (Robson, 2002). A participant may mention something that the interviewer had not seen before as being of significance. Interviewing provides high credibility and face validity. The results obtained through interviewing tend to *ring true* to participants and also make intuitive sense to general audiences.

## **6.6 Types of Interview**

There are several different types of interview for a researcher to use, depending on the research questions and the participant. Each type of interview has its own advantages and disadvantages.

An *informal, conversational interview* is one in which there are no predetermined questions. Questions emerge from the immediate context (Klecka, 1980). The advantage of this type of interview is that it is highly individualized and can produce information or insights which the interviewer could not have anticipated (Robson, 2002). Because this type of interview is very informal, the interviewee tends to be relatively relaxed and may be willing to share more information than with a more formal approach. This type of interview requires interviewers to be very knowledgeable on the topic, since there is no script to follow and they need to create useful questions at short notice. A major disadvantage of this type of interview is that the data from the interview are difficult to analyze, since the interview is not conducted in a systematic manner.

*A general interview guide approach* is one in which the interviewer has an outline of topics to cover but is free to vary the wording and/or order of the questions. The advantage of this type of interviewing is that it ensures that the same topics are covered with each interviewee, but it still allows adaptability to the situation and the interviewee (Klecka, 1980). It is also an informal approach so interviewees are typically relaxed and willing to share information. This type of interview also requires the interviewer to be knowledgeable and produces the data which may be difficult to analyze. An additional drawback of the informal, conversational interview is that important topics which are not on the agenda of topics to be discussed can be missed.

*A standardized, open-ended interview* is one where the interviewer uses a script of questions to be asked in the same words and in the same order. This is the most structured type of interviewing and is useful for reducing bias when multiple interviewers are used (Hair et al, 2000). As an approach, it leads to faster, more efficient interviews, which can allow a larger sample size to be interviewed. Also, since all interviewees are asked the same questions, the data are fairly easy to compare and analyze. The drawback of this interview process is that it does not allow the interviewee to talk about the issues which are most relevant to them unless they are covered in the questions. It also adds a layer of formality to the interview, so the interviewee may not be as relaxed and willing to talk freely.

## **6.7 Design of the Interview**

Bearing in mind the above considerations, a basic design and plan for the interview was developed in order to choose the most appropriate method and maximize the advantages of interviewing, while minimizing the disadvantages. The standardized,

open-ended interview type was selected as the interview method for this research. This method would ensure that the interviewees were asked the same questions in the same words to avoid confusion and inconsistencies. Since the interviews would be conducted in Arabic and the results translated into English, asking the questions in the same wording also avoided translation-related inconsistencies. This method also allowed a fairly large sample size of teachers and head teachers to be interviewed, with a view to eliciting a broad range of experiences. A disadvantage of this method is that it can be somewhat restrictive on the topics covered. This disadvantage was mitigated by making the questions very broad and general in nature, allowing the participants to expand on those areas of the topic that they considered most relevant. Another disadvantage is that the formality of the interview may cause participants to be somewhat guarded with their responses and unwilling to go into much detail. This disadvantage was mitigated by stating at the outset that their anonymity would be preserved and all responses would remain confidential.

A general disadvantage in interviewing is that it is resource-intensive and scheduling problems can be encountered, since it requires real-time meetings. This disadvantage was mitigated by allotting to it an adequate length of time (6 weeks) out of the project schedule. Another general disadvantage with interviewing is that it can be subject to bias by the interviewer. This disadvantage was minimized by having only one interviewer and by recording the interviews. The recording allowed the results to be reported as the participant expressed them, as opposed to being paraphrased in the interviewer's notes, which could be subject to bias.



A general advantage of interviewing is that it allows interviewers to use their interpersonal skills and expertise to make participants more relaxed and ask meaningful follow-up questions. These advantages were maximized by conducting all the interviews in person and practising interviewing with fellow students; this allowed me to relax enough to make the respondents more relaxed. Based on the knowledge which I acquired through the literature review and quantitative analysis, I believe that I had enough expertise to ask meaningful clarifying and follow-up questions.

## **6.8 Conclusion**

This chapter dealt with developing a good qualitative interview structure to explore teachers and head teachers' attitudes toward inclusion. The conditions for the appropriate use of interviewing as a research method were reviewed and found to fit. The general advantages and disadvantages of interviewing as a research method were reviewed and a basic interview design was developed to maximize the advantages, while minimizing the disadvantages. The types of interview were reviewed, along with their relative strengths and weaknesses. The standardized, open-ended interview method was selected and provision was included within the interview design to minimize the relative weaknesses associated with this method.

Chapter seven presents results of interviews with teachers and head teachers in both mainstream and special schools. Interviews were performed to gain insight into the attitudes of teachers and head teachers toward pupils with disabilities as well as their attitudes towards inclusion. The interviews also delved into the types of training and

support educators felt they needed, as well as how valuable they found the training and support teachers and head teachers had already experienced in their schools.

In Chapter seven the interview data collection procedures, participant demographics, processes to ensure confidentiality and anonymity of respondents are considered. Finally the responses to each question are analyzed one by one so that conclusions may be drawn about the attitudes of teachers and head teachers regarding inclusion and pupils of varying disabilities.

# **CHAPTER SEVEN: INTERVIEWS WITH TEACHERS AND HEAD TEACHERS**

## **7.1 Introduction**

It was mentioned earlier in the previous chapters that interviews would be one of the main sources for data collection. Chapter six describes the interview process as well as advantages, limitation and design of the qualitative portion of this study. This chapter deals with the data collected from interviews given by teachers and head teachers in primary schools and special needs schools. The significance of interviews as a means of gathering data from participants provides insights that may be missed by the questionnaire. For this study's purpose, interviews investigated teachers and head teachers' attitudes towards the four disabilities (emotional and behavioural disorders, mental disability, physical disabilities and learning difficulties) that will be the next disabilities to be included in the mainstream schools in Kuwait. In the interviews, precisely worded open-ended questions were asked to the teachers and head teachers to explore their beliefs and attitudes towards the theory and practice of inclusion, as they observe and work very closely with pupils. Also, interviews with decision makers in the Ministry of Education became a necessity for precise data that serves the ultimate objective in this study. The interviewees have illustrated and stated their points of view on inclusion in Kuwait based on their own experiences with mainstreaming which started in 1994 with only two disabilities (Hearing impairments and Down's syndrome) were first included into mainstream schools. (Al-Albaan and Al-Mosalam, 2003)

Using the MAS, findings indicated teachers and head teachers were most comfortable working with pupils with physical disabilities. Interview questions were created to gain knowledge about which types of disabilities teachers and head teachers would be willing to include into their classes.

It was found on the MAS that teachers and head teachers from both types of schools felt they were in need of more training, planning time and assistance in order to effectively implement inclusion. An aim of the interviews was to examine, more thoroughly, the types of training and assistance teachers and head teachers consider most important. Furthermore, I was prompted to investigate, through interviews, teacher and head teachers' attitudes; significant segments of the sampled population felt prepared for inclusion while an almost equal number of teachers and head teachers indicated they were in need of more training. Decision makers' findings have also been in agreement with the need of teachers and head teachers for training and support.

Finally, it was necessary to interview teachers, head teachers, and decision makers to determine the extent to which they were willing to collaborate in the interest of pupils with disabilities whom they appear to view in different ways.

The responses of teachers, head teachers, and decision makers who worked for the Ministry of Education in Kuwait are presented, and analysed qualitatively. These collected responses serve as more evidence concerning the implementation of the inclusion approach in the school systems of Kuwait. They will elucidate the reasons behind some teachers' acceptance of inclusion as well as other teachers' disapproval

of it. Teachers and head teachers' experiences with inclusion will also be explored as well as their opinions about training and assistance needs and their willingness to include pupils with other various disabilities. The information from these interviews will be particularly important if the proposed changes are carried through. First, this chapter looks at the interview questions and their data analysis. Second, there is a description of teachers and head teachers' responses. Lastly, the decision makers' responses are detailed.

## **7.2 Sample**

The thesis included a more qualitative phase of work in line with arguments made earlier about the potential strengths of a mixed method design for answering my research questions. Hence, because I am studying all the teachers and head teachers in the State of Kuwait, a sample group too large for qualitative research such as interviewing, I decided to select for interview 30 teachers and head teachers – one head teacher and two teachers from each of the six educational districts (18) and two head teachers and ten teachers from special schools (12) – in the hope of gaining further information and explanations to strengthen the study and make it more useful to the research.

A standardized, open-ended interview approach was selected as the interview method for this research. The open-ended questions were felt to gain an insight into the attitudes towards mainstream inclusion of pupils with disabilities from the perspective of teachers and head teachers. At the same time the standardised format ensured that all 30 participants were asked the same questions. The four open questions covered the following: what is your general and specific experience with inclusion; strengths

and weaknesses of the concept of inclusion; possible improvements to the current inclusion system in Kuwait. I also asked four important decision makers in the Ministry of Education an open-ended question in order to better understand the responses of the teachers and head teachers.

Although the number of people interviewed was limited by financial and time constraints, it was necessary to speak with enough respondents to achieve a sample from each of the stratifications considering gender, type of school and teacher. Head teachers were also selected because of their position of responsibility as teachers' supervisors and 'link' between schools and the Ministry of Education. They may be also particularly aware of the degree of willingness in their respective schools to implement inclusion and the problems facing teachers. Furthermore, the sample includes staff from all the mainstream schools within the six educational districts, and all the special schools in the State of Kuwait. Based on random selection and awareness that the sample is not representative of district size, I chose the representatives listed below from each of the six educational districts.

**Table 22: Stratified Interview Sample**

School Type	Status	Gender	N
Mainstream Schools	Head Teacher	Male	3
		Female	3
	Teacher	Male	6
		Female	6
Special Schools	Head Teacher	Male	1
		Female	1
	Teacher	Male	5
		Female	5
Total			30

Both males and females were chosen for the interviews to gain insight into possible gender differences.

**Table 23: Sample of Decision Makers in the Ministry of Education**

Status	Name	Gender
The Head of Mubarak Al-Kabeer Project	Dr Issa Al-Jassem	Male
Educational District Supervisor	Dr Bader Al-Barak	Male
Educational District Supervisor	Dr Hamad Al-Ajmi	Male
Senior Psychologist	Maha Al-Mutairi	Female

The overwhelming evidence from the survey also showed teachers' need for training and additional staff and planning time. Since head teachers are often catalysts for staff development needs, they were also included in the interviews to gain a more clear

insight into the types of development they would be willing to provide as well as a means to better understand the degree to which they felt their administrative decisions could facilitate smooth implementation of inclusion programmes. Teachers were interviewed to gain a more detailed view of their needs and concerns surrounding the implementation of inclusion programmes.

### **7.3 Interview Questions and their Data Analysis**

I devised four simple questions in order to gain information about the willingness and attitudes of teachers and head teachers toward including pupils with disabilities into mainstream classroom. Therefore, each of the teachers and head teachers was asked four open-ended questions to generate a range of views and opinions in relation to educational inclusion of pupils with disabilities into mainstream schools. In addition to the teachers and head teachers' questions, I also decided to interview four decision makers with one comprehensive question to have deeper understanding of inclusion in Kuwait. They were devised with a view to eliciting information on the effectiveness of recent inclusion policies, anecdotal evidence and attitudes on the situation, and to generate ideas on how to adapt the current education system in the future to meet the needs of more pupils with different disabilities:

1. What is your general experience with inclusion?
2. Have you taught pupils with disabilities in mainstream classes before? If the answer is yes, do you think more types of disability should now be introduced?  
If the answer is no, how willing would you be to do so in the future?
3. What do you believe are the strengths and weaknesses of the concept of inclusion?



4. What do you believe can be done to improve the current inclusion system in Kuwait?

Following translation of the questions into Arabic, the interviews were reviewed and pre-tested to ensure that none of the questions could be misunderstood or misinterpreted. This review and pre-testing was done by Professor Abdel-Hamid El-Abbasi, who works at the University of Kuwait. No changes were needed as a result of Dr. El-Abbasi's review. Phillips (1980) says:

*At least one other person should read the questions thoroughly before it is finalised, preferably someone who is not involved in its preparation, which would reflect an independent point of view (p. 100).*

When interviewing the participants, I used a tape-recorder to ensure that none of the statements that had been made by the participants were later forgotten or misquoted. Bell (1993) claims:

*tape recorders can be useful to check the wording of any statement you might wish to quote and to check that your notes are accurate (p. 96).*

Hand written notes were also used in order to consolidate responses provided by the participants.

#### **7.4 Procedures of the Data Collection by Interview**

An official letter from the Ministry of Education was obtained as a prerequisite for the interview, and this letter was distributed to all schools concerned by the study. I sent

letters (which included a copy of permission from the Ministry of Education) to schools, requesting selection of participants. I followed these letters by calling to arrange suitable timing for appointments with the teachers and head teachers, which had been selected by the schools. Immediately prior to the interviews, a form of consent was signed by each participant. It is important to mention that two main areas of difficulties were encountered. Firstly, in arranging specific times to interview the participants, due to their busy schedules; it was somewhat frustrating when seven of the participants cancelled their appointments for interviews, and another four rescheduled them. It is worth noting that the above-mentioned hindrances to my research came generally from men and mainstream teachers. As for the actual interviews, no problems were encountered when interviewing any of the male interviewees. Secondly, it should also be recalled that Kuwait is an Islamic culture. Hence gender related obstacles were expected, since female teachers, who were single and new in the field, would have been embarrassed at the prospect of dealing 'one to one' with a (male) researcher. Hence, the female teachers were interviewed in a large room with one or two colleagues present who were not privy to our conversation.

The interviews were conducted between January 10 to 17 and February 20 to 21 of 2008. Two hours were allotted for each interview, although most interviews were completed in close to one hour.

## **7.5 Interview Analysis Procedures**

After conducting the interview with the participants, I followed several procedures as preparation for analysing the data. First, I listened to the recorded tapes to ensure clarity and confirm that there were no problems or technical defects. (It should be

noted that, in addition to this, the tapes were also checked in the middle and after each interview, for the same reasons). Second, the interviews were in Arabic, so they had to be translated into English to correspond with the language of the study. The same procedure was used for the written notes that complemented tape recorded answers. Lastly, all the answers were classified under each question against every participant's name. These processes were performed to ensure correct and thorough data analysis.

Following the recommendations of Cohen et al. (2007) on generating meaning from transcript and interview data, the interview transcripts were read several times in order to see if natural units of meaning emerged. This data was then classified, categorized and coded, for example, several responses were listed when teachers were asked to name weaknesses of inclusion programmes. Also, Robson (2002) says comments should be coded into several categories that were related by themes or topics. Thus, despite the fact that teachers may have used different terms to express that inclusion sometimes was forced on teachers, this sentiment was coded forcing reluctant teachers. Finally categories were eliminated, combined and subdivided according to larger themes that emerged. These themes were then related to the research questions and deviations from these themes were noted as well. Tables were then created as a comparative tool to offer a visual summary of the themes. I have used SPSS for the interviews' alpha reliability. The interviews' alpha reliability is calculated at 0.780 (See section 4.18 Validity and Reliability/Appendix K). Furthermore, following Miles & Huberman's (1994) suggestion, frequency of occurrence of themes was also counted (e.g., five teachers felt inclusion would lack pedagogical differentiation). Plausibility was identified and, using informed intuition to reach a conclusion, a good

sense of the data was arrived at. To insure more accuracy, these procedures have been reviewed by a colleague.

Finally, in the next discussion chapter, a more interpretive approach was used when respondents' environments and experiences were also related to their responses as patterns emerged and anecdotes were examined for their ability to elucidate research questions. The patterns were analysed in light of existing studies to determine to what extent the interviews support existing research as well as the degree to which these interviews prompt future research.

## **7.6 Description of the Participants**

In this section, I divided the participants into the following categories: Female Head Teachers, Male Head Teachers, Female Teachers, Male Teachers, all from mainstream schools and Female Head Teacher, Male Head Teacher, Female Teachers and Male Teachers all from special schools. I also interviewed four decision makers from the Ministry of Education; they are three males and one female. All participants responded to the interview questions according to their awareness about inclusion. Differences in gender and type of school as well as a deeper understanding of preparations needed were explored. It is important to point out here that these participants were selected in order to gain insight into their experience, as well as to obtain more in-depth knowledge about their beliefs and attitudes towards including pupils with disabilities into mainstream schools now and in the future. This section is a description of the teachers and head teacher answers to each question in turn.

## 7.7 The First Question

### *What is your general experience with inclusion?*

#### *7.7.1 The mainstream school head teachers*

Of the six interviews conducted with head teachers in mainstream schools, four had training or experience of inclusion in their classrooms. Of these, two head teachers had negative experiences of inclusion; Fahad cited the gap, often, though not always, quite wide, between mainstream pupils' ability to learn and those with learning disabilities; the other, Jassim, cited teacher resistance and indicated explicit hostility to the idea, *If I wanted to teach pupils with disabilities I would have gone to teach at special schools* (Interview 16 January 2008). Conversely, the other two heads found inclusion to be a good experience; Manal found it positively challenging and fulfilling, and Nora, who had some training in special needs teaching, positively observed the support of most of the teachers and pupils in her school for an inclusive approach.

In contrast, the two heads with no special needs pupils in their schools both disapproved of inclusion; Nasser, mostly due to his view that inclusion in his school would be unwelcome to teachers and Haya because she had heard of negative experiences at other inclusive schools. This would indicate that experience and or training does not necessarily always result in a positive attitude to inclusion, but without it, these two head teachers' attitudes were negative.

### 7.7.2 The mainstream school teachers

Twelve mainstream teachers were asked the same interview question about their general experience of inclusion. Four of the six teachers interviewed, who had worked in inclusive schools, had a positive experience: Sara found it *refreshing and beneficial* (Interview 13 January 2008), however, while Sahar *fully support(ed) the process of inclusion* she felt there were *not enough resources or trained teachers to deal with inclusion* (Interview 14 January 2008). Khalood, similarly, enjoyed it but found the lack of proper training *frustrating* (Interview 15 January 2008) and Zaid felt he profited from *access to advice from special teachers* (Interview 17 January 2008). Thus, while their attitudes were positive towards inclusion when they had experienced it, they were often related in the context of training or lack of it.

Those who were trained or had experience but were unhappy with inclusion, Khaled cited *different levels of capabilities* (Interview 17, January 2008) and Salman stated that *curriculum (had) not been appropriately adapted to target both categories of pupil* (Interview 16, January 2008).

Only one of the six interviewed with no training or experience of inclusion had a negative position. Waleed felt he was not *cut out to teach pupils with disabilities*. (...) *How can I teach pupils with disabilities in mainstream schools when I don't even understand fully what their needs are?* (Interview 16 January 2008). Conversely, two had a positive view, Mohammed would *like to experience that some day* and Maha reported a friend *finding the experience a pleasure* (Interview 10 January 2008). Three of those that had no training or experience of inclusion had no opinion on the matter. This suggests that at least some teachers with no training or experience of

inclusion had a positive reaction to inclusion, and this might contrast with the head teacher's point of view / prediction.

Overall, taking into account both the teachers and head teachers, their general experience or attitude seems to be very much related to training (or the perceived lack of it), and direct (or indirect) experience of inclusion. Other important factors negatively influencing their attitudes were: the inability to differentiate teaching, negative rumours, insufficient resources and curriculum, lack of trained teachers and training, and the potential frustration of teaching in an inclusive classroom. Positive attitudes towards inclusion were that it could be: challenging and fulfilling, refreshing and beneficial, something worth trying, good to have the support of special schools teachers, and therefore, in general, a pleasurable experience.

### ***7.7.3 The special school head teachers***

While Shekha had no experience of inclusion, she favoured the idea of it as it would position the pupils with disabilities in the *real world*, and enable them to *progress* (Interview, 20 February 2008). Ali, who had experienced inclusion in a mainstream school and transferred to special schools later in his career, very much believed in the benefits of inclusion, especially when pupils with disabilities are working alongside pupils without disabilities who they can look up to: *they seemed so happy to be given a chance of being perceived as normal. It is their chance for a real life.* (Interview, 21 February 2008).

#### **7.7.4 The special school teachers**

Fatma, Mona, Amel, Noura and Sarah all said that for the last 4-6 years they had been regularly attending conferences on the subject of inclusion. They all expressed in some way or other the conviction that they benefited from these conferences and they enjoyed learning how to teach in inclusive classrooms. Amel felt raising awareness through conferences was interesting in terms of *how the needs of pupils with disabilities differ from those of mainstream pupils once they are placed in mainstream classrooms* (Interview, 20 February 2008).

Saleh and Sultan had no experience teaching in mainstream schools but were positive about the prospect. Hussein was in a similar situation but had added to his understanding by attending conferences and reading a good deal on inclusion. Hussein focused on the idea of ethical responsibility to pupils with disability: *all educators and decision-makers have to take into account the development of pupils with disabilities* (Interview, 21 February 2008). Similarly, Sarah felt inclusion was part of pupils with disabilities' human rights and *how it should be, they are members of our society and have a right to be there* (Interview, 20 February 2008).

Fawaz had never experienced inclusion directly had visited several mainstream schools in Kuwait with inclusion. He was looking very much from the pupils with disabilities' point of view and thought that an environment surrounded by mainstream pupils gave *pupils with disabilities positive behavioural influences that would help them in their lives* (Interview, 21 February 2008).



Salem taught at a special school but after a few years of this, had switched to teaching in mainstream classrooms which included pupils with disabilities and then returned to special school, for the following reasons: *I was not satisfied teaching pupils with disabilities in mainstream schools, as I did not feel that the curriculum allowed me to teach the pupils with disabilities to the best of my abilities. It was not tailored appropriately for them* (Interview, 21 February 2008). This is not surprising as the curriculum he refers to was not designed for an inclusive environment and only provided for mainstream pupils.

Overall, the general experiences and attitudes of the twelve special needs head teachers and teachers, most of whom have never experienced inclusion, are very much positive towards it. It is interesting to note, and perhaps unsurprising, that they seem to approach the benefits of inclusion from the point of view of the perceived advantages to pupils with disabilities; the only negative response, from Salem, cites a specific problem, lack of curriculum modification. In general, they believed that the pupils with disability would be better able to progress, would have a better chance of feeling a normal part of society, that by including them all the pupils attitudes and behaviour would be positively influenced, that it reflected an integrated reality, that mainstream pupils would be good social role models for pupils with disability and that inclusion was ethically responsible. Furthermore, as with the training of mainstream teachers and head teachers, further education, in this case at conferences and through reading, appears to have contributed to a positive attitude to inclusion. As can be seen from the summary tables below, mainstream teachers and head teachers cited significantly more negative aspects of inclusion than their special school colleagues. It is interesting to see that higher level issues become clear in these tables.

In response to this broad opening question, the special schools teachers and head teachers focused largely on the social benefits of inclusion and the ethical responsibility it fulfilled for the pupils with disabilities. They did not raise the same concerns as their mainstream colleagues in relation to the potential academic issues for mainstream pupils in terms of pedagogical differentiation or the potential problem of frustration or resistance to inclusion from their mainstream colleagues. Indeed, as mentioned, it would appear that special schools teachers approached the benefits of inclusion largely from the point of view of the perceived advantages to pupils with disabilities. Conversely, none of the mainstream teachers and head teachers mentioned the possible social benefits of inclusion or the ethical motivations for the pupils with disabilities.

### 7.7.5 Summary

**Figure 18: Mainstream school teachers and head teachers**

Positive views	Negative views
Challenging / fulfilling for the teachers	Can't differentiate teaching between mainstream pupils and pupils with disabilities
Refreshing / beneficial for the teachers	Teachers have heard negative rumour from other teachers who have had negative experiences of inclusion
Support from special schools teachers will help mainstream teachers	Not enough resources to teach in as inclusive environments
Would like to try inclusion	Not enough teachers trained to teach pupils with disabilities
Enjoyed previous experiences of inclusion	Lack of proper training for teachers
	Teaching is frustrating in an inclusive environment
	Insufficient curriculum to teach both mainstream and pupils with disabilities.

**Figure 19: Special school teachers and head teachers**

Positive views	Negative views
Reflects integrated reality for pupils with disabilities	Insufficient curriculum to teach mainstream and pupils with disabilities in an inclusive environment.
Beneficial to pupils with disability in general	
Mainstream pupils as social role model to pupils with disability	
Conferences are beneficial to teachers	
Ethically responsible to include pupils with disabilities	
Pupils with disability part of 'normal' society	
All pupils would have better attitudes and behaviour	

## 7.8 The Second Question

*Have you taught pupils with disabilities in mainstream classes before?*

*If the answer is yes, do you think more types of disability should now be introduced? If the answer is no, how willing would you be to do so in the future?*

### 7.8.1 The mainstream school head teachers

Of the six head teachers asked whether they had taught pupils with disabilities in mainstream classes before, three had and three had not. Of those who had experienced inclusion, Manal was the only head teacher who was willing to have pupils with more types of disability in her classrooms. She was proud of her *teaching achievements* and the school's achievements in regards to inclusion, excited by the positive *challenge* of it, and felt that *pupils are bound to benefit and really so are we* (Interview, 10 January 2008). Fahad, however, was against inclusion having *heard several complaints from teachers about this practice, that they are finding them quite difficult to teach*. He also thought that pupils without disability would be slowed down, and aired his intense opposition to inclusion by saying: *I hope the Ministry of Education becomes aware that we do not welcome this approach. They should consider this before they take further steps to add more disabilities. Including more disabilities would just cause further chaos and instability for teachers and mainstream pupils* (Interview, 15 January 2008). Jassim was also against inclusion based on the current system, which he felt was now out of date and would not be able to fulfil the goal of inclusion: *Our teachers are already very frustrated in trying to figure out how to deal with these pupils without preventing the others from receiving the education they deserve. This is the case now with only a few types of disability included. Imagine what would happen if further types of disability, perhaps more severe ones, were added* (Interview, 16

January 2008). It is interesting to note the extremity of the language used here (*chaos, instability, imagine what would happen*) expressing their frustrations and fear of the idea of including pupils with more severe disabilities in their classrooms.

Of those that had not experienced inclusion, Nora said that she would like to make use of her training and train others how to teach inclusive classes, especially if schools *made the necessary modifications in the classroom to facilitate this system of learning* (Interview, 13 January 2008). Haya, however, was strongly opposed to it, saying she would even advise all the teachers at her school against it. She emphasized that she could not see how this system benefited anyone involved: *it makes it more stressful for the teachers, as well as pupils with and without disabilities* (Interview, 14 January 2008). Nasser was also very against the idea: *If a pupil has difficulty with reading, then he/she should be in special classes that are specifically targeted to address that matter. This way pupils with disabilities and pupils without disabilities will each have an appropriate learning environment that is targeted to their relative needs* (Interview, 16 January 2008).

Thus, of the three head teachers who had experienced inclusion, two were against it and only one was willing to have more types of disabilities in the classroom. Of the other three who had not experienced inclusion only one was willing to accept this approach in the future.

### **7.8.2 The mainstream school teachers**

In line with responses to question one, of the 12 mainstream teachers asked, 5 had experience of inclusion and were positive about it and the prospect of including more

pupils with different types of disabilities (one aired concerns about including more disabilities). Of those who had not experienced it, 4 were positive about the idea of inclusion and 3 responded negatively.

Some of those who responded positively said they would view including pupils with all types of disabilities as progress, like Sara who saw inclusion as *a sign of achievement on the part of so many people: the Ministry of Education, special schools teachers, mainstream schools teachers, head teachers, mainstream pupils, pupils with disabilities and, most importantly, parents*; it represented all these groups of people working together and succeeding to learn equity through creating an inclusive environment (Interview, 13 January 2008). It was also viewed as more equitable, as Khaled said *the real world does not segregate people with disabilities and people without disabilities*. Sahar was in favour of including more pupils with different types of disability *to boost the morale of the pupils with disabilities* (Interview, 14 January 2008), and Zaid, who supported inclusion, said he did so because he *fully supports the parents*.

Aisha felt inclusion represented a positive challenge but should be done with great care and incrementally: *for now, I believe that the Ministry of Education should include only pupils with minor disabilities, to achieve successful inclusion. The more severe disabilities should only be added once all teachers are properly trained in teaching and helping pupils with disabilities* (Interview, 16 January 2008). Maha, similarly, wanted the Ministry of Education to provide plenty of training so the change would be a success. Khalood had very limited experience with pupils with disabilities, and had not yet fully made up her mind about teaching inclusive classes.

She believed that success was dependent on the circumstances in each individual classroom; one inclusive classroom could be a total success having supportive mainstream pupils and pupils with minor disabilities would help. On the other hand, she thinks that the circumstances were different, it could end up being a total mess and it is a risk to take. Khalood concluded: *I'm not sure of having more pupils with disabilities included in my classroom, as I am a little afraid that I would fail to meet their requirements, since I haven't enough knowledge on the subject of their needs* (Interview, 15 January 2008).

Nadia opposed inclusion and its future expansion in terms of disabilities believing that teachers should have the choice of which types of pupil they wanted to teach, saying it would *only create a group of frustrated teachers, frustrated mainstream pupils and even more frustrated pupils with disabilities* (Interview, 16 January 2008). Salman, had similar fears about frustrated teachers, parents and pupils, and felt they were not currently knowledgeable enough to take on the challenge: *our current education policy is simply not ready for this* (Interview, 16 January 2008). Waleed was also concerned by the possibility that inclusion would *negatively affect both types of pupil such as low self-esteem* (Interview, 16 January 2008) and cited lack of training as a major barrier: *How can I teach pupils with disabilities in mainstream schools when I do not even understand fully what their needs are?*

Overall, in terms of a positive response to including a greater range of pupils with disabilities or working inclusively, mainstream teachers and head teachers thought it would be: challenging, more equitable, would boost pupils with disability's morale and reflect an achievement by all. In this way, they were echoing the perceived social

and ethical benefits of inclusion expressed by the special school teachers in the first question. Resistance to increasing this range or teaching inclusively were based on: lack of knowledge, negative rumours, pupils with disability's low self-esteem as an inevitable result of the programme, lack of proper training, lack of choice for teachers, frustration and stress for teachers and pupils, the academic impediment of mainstream pupils, the chaos and instability it would create, the fact that the current education system cannot support this policy, that it benefits no one, and that its success was too dependent on the particular teacher and pupils in a given classroom. Others suggested that having segregated classes within the same school was a better option.

### ***7.8.3 The special school head teachers***

Ali had taught in an inclusive classroom and had been actively trying to include more pupils with disabilities in mainstream schools, encouraging *the idea of inclusion, even including more types of disability, as long as the pupil is learning and functioning at their optimal rate* (Interview, 21 February 2008). Shekha, who had no experience with inclusion but felt that collaboration between special school and mainstream school administration and teachers could result in very successful inclusion. She also thought that *the services of special schools should always be available for those with severe disabilities because sometimes a great deal extra care is necessary and really does make all the difference* (Interview, 20 February 2008). Thus both special schools head teachers were very positive about the idea of inclusion whether they had experience or not, and in Ali's case, felt more types of disabilities should have the opportunities to be included in mainstream schools.



#### **7.8.4 The special school teachers**

Fatma, Mona, Amel, Noura, Sarah and Hussein had not taught pupils with disabilities in mainstream schools but had attended many conferences on inclusion, to which they were sent by their special schools. Fatma accepted it as long as the Ministry of Education and head teachers of the schools were giving them their full support, and furthermore, it was *critical that parents, pupils and all teachers receive total encouragement during the inclusion processes* (Interview, 20 February 2008). Mona was willing to teach pupils with disabilities in mainstream schools and hoped that *inclusion is considered as a serious educational step*. She felt her teaching skills would be pushed to a higher level and that *teaching in inclusive classrooms gives all pupils and teachers the opportunity to experience a great educational environment* (Interview, 20 February 2008). Amel thought that inclusion was challenging but beneficial for teachers (Interview, 20 February 2008). Noura believed inclusion was one of the best and most effective steps that the Ministry of Education had taken so far (Interview, 20 February 2008). Sarah said she would like to experience inclusion and felt that, since she had attended many conferences on the topic, she would be able to contribute a good deal to teaching inclusive classes. Hussein welcomed the idea of inclusion saying mainstream schools should have accepted more types of disability a long time ago. Hussein pointed out that *After learning more about inclusion, I do not see any reason why all pupils with disabilities cannot be included in mainstream schools, as long as the schools are appropriately designed and equipped* (Interview, 21 February 2008).

Saleh, who also had no experience of inclusion, said he would like to teach pupils with disabilities in mainstream classrooms. Interestingly, he pointed out that teaching in mainstream schools is *more convenient* for him as he would be able to work in his

local neighbourhood school, rather than having to drive to the distant areas where the special schools are located, thereby improving the conditions of his job. Indeed, this is something that is likely to affect many teachers. Furthermore, Saleh states that it would also be beneficial for the pupils because *If I can teach close to my home, I will feel even more enthusiastic about going to work and that will positively affect how I teach my pupils*. Another improvement in teachers' conditions was that *Inclusion does not only mean including pupils with disabilities, in fact it also includes those teachers from special schools who sometimes feel left out, just like the pupils with disabilities* (Interview, 21 February 2008). Fawaz, who had no direct experience of inclusion, expressed the opinion that whether one is willing to teach inclusive pupils or not was besides the point, decision makers should include all types of disability, as *it is truly these pupils' right to be included* (Interview, 21 February 2008).

Sultan, the only special needs teacher with no experience of inclusion who would not be willing to do it, said he would like pupils with disabilities to stay in special schools, which he saw as the *best environment for them*. Sultan argued that it was *wrong to include pupils with disabilities who have special needs with those who do not and expect both types of pupils to learn at one uniform pace* (Interview, 21 February 2008). In this way, Sultan expressed pedagogical concerns as to the differentiation of pupils with and without disabilities.

Salem, who was the only teacher who had experienced inclusion, felt that *not having a special needs curriculum and support in mainstream classrooms was very disruptive to my teaching and I am strongly against including more pupils with*

*disabilities. These disabilities will no doubt be more severe and the frustration of teachers and pupils will surely increase* (Interview, 21 February 2008).

Of the 12 teachers and head teachers from special schools, only 2 had direct experience of inclusion: one experience was positive, which led him to want more pupils of different types of disabilities included in mainstream schools; and other had a negative experience due to insufficient curriculum, and therefore did not approve of inclusion in the first place and certainly not including more pupils with different types of disabilities. Of the rest, 9 out of 10 had positive attitudes toward expanding the inclusion programme. These positive attitudes were based on: the challenge and beneficial nature of it, a more convenient teacher lifestyle (reduction in travel), enhanced teaching skills and a better educational environment, the idea that it was ethically more appropriate and represented a step forward in education that it was inclusive of special school teachers and that collaboration would breed success. Resistance to expansion or inclusion in the first place was influenced by the perceptions of potential frustration, disruption, insufficient facilities, inability to differentiate teaching, and that special schools were, in fact, preferable. As can be seen from the summary figures below, mainstream teachers and head teachers cited significantly more negative aspects of inclusion than their special schools colleagues. Building on the first question, those that were positive about inclusion were again positive in their response to its expansion in the second question. Interestingly, only a few of the answers on expansion were disability specific (for example, agreeing with expansion on the condition of sufficient provision in terms of facilities and training); most answers simply functioned as an extension of their positivity or negativity about inclusion in general. This suggests either a lack of interest or knowledge on the

potential increased level of difficulty of teaching in a classroom which includes, for example, severely mentally disabled pupils as opposed to those with minor physical disabilities.

The negative response from mainstream head teachers was particularly vehement and may be a result of having a more administrative perspective in terms of facilitating the expansion of inclusion in mainstream schools, and anxieties about the implications of change on their responsibilities and position. Their fears may also be based on an assumption that the inclusion policy would not provide the necessary support or training when more pupils with disabilities enter their classrooms.

### 7.8.5 Summary

**Figure 20: Mainstream school teachers and head teachers**

Positive views	Negative views
Challenging experience for the teachers	Lack of knowledge and choice for the teachers
More equitable for pupils with disabilities	Negative rumours from teachers colleagues
Inclusion is good for pupils with disability's morale	Pupils with disabilities low self-esteem would be affected in an inclusive environment.
Training for teachers would be beneficial.	Segregated classes are better for teachers and pupils
Modify school facilities	Lack of proper teachers' training
Inclusion would provide achievement for everyone	Teachers' frustration with an inclusive classes
	Inclusion would be stressful for teachers and pupils
	Mainstream pupils slowed down with inclusion
	Inclusion would cause chaos and instability at school
	Current educational system can't support

	inclusion approach
	Inclusion would benefits no one

**Figure 21: Special school teachers and head teachers**

<b>Positive views</b>	<b>Negative views</b>
Inclusion enhances teaching skills	Teacher's frustration with an inclusive class
Conferences are beneficial for teachers	Can't differentiate teaching in an inclusive classroom
Inclusion provide a better educational environment	Special schools preferable for teachers
Challenging and beneficial for the teachers	Disruptive for other pupils
Ethically responsible to include pupils with disabilities	Insufficient facilities in mainstream schools
Inclusion would involve special school teachers in mainstream schools as well as the pupils	
Travel more convenient for teachers and pupils	
Collaboration between mainstream and special schools breeds success	
Inclusion would be an educational step forward for Kuwait	

## 7.9 The Third Question

*What do you believe are the strengths and weaknesses of the concept of inclusion?*

### 7.9.1 The mainstream school head teachers

Four of the six mainstream schools' head teachers indicated they noticed more weaknesses than strengths with inclusion.

In terms of strengths identified across the interviews, mainstream head teachers felt that equality and tolerance were among the good aspects of inclusive schools, as Manal pointed out, inclusion was not simply an educational movement, but involved pupils with disability in the community along with their parents and teachers. Further to this, pupils were learning the same curriculum, by the same method, at the same time and *this is a big boost to the morale of the pupils with disabilities as well as their parents, as once they are part of a mainstream classroom they are no longer 'special' any more!* (Interview, 10 January 2008). Nora furthered this by saying, *not only do the mainstream pupils have to learn patience and acceptance towards pupils with disabilities, but the case applies also vice versa; pupils with disabilities experience more realistic aspects of life – how life is most often not tailored exclusively for them* (Interview, 13 January 2008). Manal also argued that her concerns with inclusion used to be that the pupils with disabilities would get frustrated and anxious in being in an environment that does not solely target their needs. She also worried about the mainstream pupils treating them badly, but found that: *luckily my concerns were not an issue, from what I have seen so far; on the contrary, the pupils with disabilities look up to the other pupils as role models* (Interview, 10 January 2008). Nasser felt there were other ways to create this strength, outside of an inclusive classroom, that

while *inclusion induces better ethics in the mainstream pupils, as they become more sensitive and aware of people's differences* it was not reason enough to justify including pupils with disabilities in mainstream schools. He felt that the general education pupils could learn these ethics from other social events and at home (Interview, 16 January 2008).

Another aspect identified in terms of the strengths of inclusion related to teachers and parents: Khaled, for example, believed that *teaching in inclusive classrooms provides teachers with the ultimate and optimum teaching skills* (Interview, 17 January 2008). From the parents perspective, Jassim remarked that some of them had shown support for inclusion: *A couple of parents have thanked me for including their pupils with disabilities in my school as these are parents who have pupils with and without disabilities and this way their child who has a disability can go to the same school as his brother/sister who does not. It does make it easier on the parents to drop them at one school and they also do not have to feel bad about separating their kids* (Interview, 16 January 2008).

Weaknesses of inclusion were identified with regards to teachers: Jassim's views echoed Nora's who was aware there were some teachers that did not fully support the inclusion movement and that it was a worry *that if these teachers are forced to teach in a classroom that they do not believe in, they will become discouraged and this will result in bad teaching* (Interview, 13 January 2008). Fahad furthered this idea by saying that inclusion made the education system more complicated and caused stress to teachers who were not appropriately trained.

In terms of the perceived negative consequences of inclusion for parents, Jassim said he was already aware that inclusion sometimes brought out negative feelings from the parents of pupils without disabilities. He reported one of his teachers saying that: *several complaints had reached him from these parents and many of them were worried that their child was not receiving the tutoring they are entitled to or the education which mainstream pupils receive when their classrooms are not inclusive* (Interview, 16 January 2008).

Overwhelmingly, however, the perceived weaknesses of the inclusion systems were centred around the pupils. Fahad felt that *teachers who are teaching inclusive classes are required to give much of their attention to the pupils with disabilities*, so with all this attention directed at the pupils with disabilities, it becomes more or less like a special school, except, he argued, that there were general education pupils in the classroom who are neglected. Fahad felt that while inclusion helped pupils with disabilities to feel as though they belong to the society, they could instead participate in events outside of schools to help with this issue: *Schools are for education and learning and neither type of pupil will get the education they are entitled to if they are in inclusive classes* (Interview, 15 January 2008). From a learning point of view, Nasser believed that *special schools provide the best education for pupils with disabilities and they benefit the most from this kind of environment, where the teaching techniques are specialized for them exclusively* (Interview, 16 January 2008). Haya's views supported this, that *inclusion holds back the general education pupils from progressing with their learning*. Haya went on to say that inclusion could also negatively affect the pupils with disabilities, because inclusion might also harm pupils with disabilities, mentally and emotionally (Interview, 14 January 2008).



The proposed new curriculum was also considered a serious weakness in inclusion. Nasser thought that even with changes, it would never be perfect for pupils with disability, realistically, as they have *special needs* and therefore require a *special* curriculum for themselves and not one that tries to balance the needs of pupils with and those without disabilities. He felt that this could result in isolation of the pupils with disability, harming them both academically and psychologically (Interview, 16 January 2008).

Thus, in conclusion, of the six interviewed, only two head teachers thought inclusion had mostly strengths. The strengths mentioned across the interviews were the following: equality; tolerance; that they had seen it work; that mainstream pupils actively helped pupils with disability; thereby boosting morale for these pupils; and that some parents found it easier and made them happier to use only one school if they had pupils with and without disabilities. In terms of weaknesses, head teachers claimed that inclusion caused more stress among teachers, it was more complicated and the curriculum could not be sufficiently modified to cater for the needs of both kinds of pupils, which held back everyone's educational progression. Furthermore, in terms of fulfilling an ethical responsibility, pupils with disability could be assimilated into the community through extra-curricular activities. A final perceived weakness was that parents were suspicious of inclusion with regard to the diminished quality of education for their children attending mainstream schools.

### ***7.9.2 The mainstream school teachers***

Briefly, before outlining the teachers' thoughts on the strength and weaknesses of inclusion it is important to highlight the importance Mohammed, Aisha and Sahar

placed on resources as a key factor in the success of inclusion and its resultant strengths and weaknesses. Having taught and been brought up outside Kuwait, Sahar was able to highlight the importance of the practical aspect of inclusion which would rely greatly on the *availability, or a lack, of human, financial and physical resources and if there are well trained teachers and maybe an assistant teacher for each classroom, appropriate facilities and curriculum, then the strengths will be tremendously heightened and the chances of having problems substantially reduced* (Interview, 14 January 2008).

The main strengths of inclusion, according to the mainstream teachers, were that it was ethically correct, would engender tolerance and integrate disabled people into the community. Zaid believed that *Inclusion creates a sense of awareness about disabilities and in this way, pupils of mainstream schools, as well as teachers, will have respect for those disabilities* (Interview, 17 January 2008). More generally, Maha felt that it was a good move towards human rights (Interview, 10 January 2008). As Sara pointed out, the common ground of curriculum would facilitate friendships between disabled and mainstream pupils, and this would make them not *only accepting of peoples' academic differences, but also tolerant of other cultures and beliefs* (Interview, 13 January 2008). Khaled's and Waleed's remarks were in line with Mohammed's, who pointed out that inclusion *allows for pupils with disabilities long-term integration in society* bearing in mind that currently, a large number of pupils with disabilities do not go on to work once they have finished their education because they feel excluded from society. (Interview, 17 January 2008).

The strengths of inclusion, in terms of parents who had pupils with disabilities, centred around the idea of them feeling more integrated too. In Khalood's view, *the*

*parents will not feel so sad for their kids once they see them going to mainstream schools. In addition, not only will the pupils stop feeling isolated, but the parents themselves will also stop feeling isolated from the rest of the community and from other parents whose kids are in mainstream schools* (Interview, 15 January 2008).

The benefit to pupils and teachers was perceived as another strength of inclusion. Maha felt that *inclusion encourages the pupils with disabilities to develop as independent individuals, far more than special schools would allow* and that this was critical for leading lives as normal as possible in the future. Khaled said that *there are some teachers who are may be concerned that having pupils with disabilities in the classroom will negatively affect mainstream pupils by distracting them or slowing them down. Still I believe that there are ways that this can be avoided* (Interview, 17 January 2008). Khaled also thought that teachers would be positively challenged by inclusion and would have to learn all different kinds of teaching techniques, which would be very helpful to them and their pupils (Interview, 17 January 2008).

The weaknesses of inclusion again centred on the disadvantages it would bring to both kinds of pupils. Jassem believed that, *inclusion would disturb the smooth flow of pupils with disabilities learning process at special schools* (Interview, 17 January 2008). Nadia believed this extended to the mainstream pupils too in that the pace of teaching would become slower and less targeted towards one type of learner. She also felt that *mainstream pupils will be distracted by the pupils with disabilities* (Interview, 16 January 2008). Salman went further than this saying that *pupils with disabilities will feel as though they need to be at the same level as the other pupils and if this doesn't happen they will feel very discouraged. As for the mainstream pupils, they will*

*feel that they cannot learn to the best and quickest of their ability and even more they will not be able to voice their problems with this issue as they may feel that it is disrespectful towards the pupils with disabilities* (Interview, 16 January 2008). Sara voiced concern that *if a mainstream pupil realises that the other pupils have 'special needs' and therefore receive extra attention and help in class, there may be resentment on the part of mainstream pupils or their parents* (Interview, 13 January 2008).

Worries of negative attitudes engendered by inclusion were greater for both Maha and Zaid. Zaid thought that *although many pupils will learn to respect the disabilities of the pupils, not all will adopt this positive trait, some will no doubt bully those who they see different to them and I worry that the pupils with disabilities will not be able to protect themselves* (Interview, 17 January 2008). Similarly, Maha thought that *the school's administration can only to a certain extent monitor the bullying or mistreatment of these pupils by mainstream pupils. It can be reduced by strict regulations from the heads of schools, but can never be completely eradicated. Although it is sad to see this happen, it gives the pupils with disabilities a more realistic approach in life. The mistreatment of pupils with disabilities can either scar them for life or make them stronger and more immune to future harassment they may receive* (Interview, 10 January 2008).

The weaknesses of inclusion in terms of parents were cited by Khalood who thought that *although most parents of pupils with disabilities will be much more pleased to have their pupils included in mainstream schools, I am not so sure all of them will feel this way. Some parents might not want this, as they may want to see special attention*

*given to their kids and special schools are the best place to get this* (Interview, 15 January 2008).

The teachers experience in an inclusive classroom was also considered a weakness of the system. Salman believed that inclusion put too much pressure on them, that *they have to expend double the effort to direct their 'regular' attention towards those with no disabilities and their 'special' attention towards pupils with disabilities* (Interview, 16 January 2008). Furthermore, Waleed believed there were some like himself who were not attracted to or could not work with pupils with disabilities, it was completely different from working with pupils of mainstream schools and *teachers should have a choice of which group of pupils they would like to teach. Inclusion takes away this choice from teachers* (Interview, 16 January 2008).

Perceived weaknesses in terms of curriculum were also voiced. Waleed pointed out that *one curriculum cannot serve so many different levels of learning ability. It cannot be directed perfectly towards each pupil* (Interview, 16 January 2008).

In conclusion, nearly all of the mainstream teachers talked of the great strengths of inclusion in terms of having an active role in society, tolerance, equality and the benefits to pupils with disability as a result. Other points made concerned the ideas that it was a good challenge for and would optimize the abilities of the teachers and that parents of the pupils with disability would be happier to see their children assimilated in a 'real' environment. The cited weaknesses of inclusion were: the negative effects it would have on the pace of learning, and on the ability to learn for both types of pupils with an inclusive curriculum; the difficulties and lack of choice

for teachers; the possible resentment of parents and mainstream pupils about the extra attention pupils with disabilities sometimes require; and the potential for bullying in an inclusive environment. As such, the mainstream head teachers and teachers did not diverge significantly in their views on the perceived strengths and weaknesses of inclusion.

### ***7.9.3 The special school head teachers***

The strengths and weaknesses of inclusion, as expressed by the two special school head teachers, centred on the benefits for pupils with and without disability, advantages and disadvantages for their teachers, and the larger scale social benefits of integration.

Shekha thought that inclusion would maximize the education of pupils with disabilities and create tolerance: when a pupil with a disability is included in a mainstream classroom, to them the atmosphere in the classroom is much more focused on the learning factor rather on the disability factor. The fact that there are pupils without disabilities around them induces a positive competitiveness and pushes them to learn. She also thinks it is good for the mainstream pupils to work alongside the pupils with disabilities so they can learn about disabilities and develop an attitude of understanding towards them (Interview, 20 February 2008).

In terms of special school teachers, there were weakness and strengths to inclusion. Shekha thought that by having the opportunity to work alongside mainstream teachers to monitor and help with the inclusion process, they would *not be left out of the mainstream schools activities*, however, when special school teachers are recruited in

mainstream schools as assistant teachers to observe and help the pupils with disabilities in mainstream classrooms, they become secondary to the main teacher in the class, their teaching role greatly diminishes and *this could cause them to feel unfulfilled at not reaching the goal of what they started their career for and demotivation can lead to more serious problems that can affect the pupils and the teachers they are working with* (Interview, 20 February 2008).

In terms of the benefits of inclusion in terms of integration, Ali thought that *inclusion ensures the achievement of the country's general public goals of uniting the community, making everyone, regardless of their difficulties or lack thereof, feel that they are entitled to participate in society*. As such, inclusion would be a crucial turning point for pupils with disabilities as, in his experience, most pupils who have graduated from special schools do not go on to work as they do not feel part of the society. Saying this much, Ali did not believe that inclusion would benefit all types of disability (Interview, 20 February 2008).

Thus, both special school head teachers perceived inclusion as very much a positive thing with many inherent strengths. These strengths, however, were conditional on implementation in terms of how special needs teachers were integrated into inclusive schools and what disabilities were included.

#### ***7.9.4 The special school teachers***

The strengths of inclusion were the main focus for special schools teachers particularly with regards to the tolerance, equality and integration it engendered.

Amel felt that inclusion educated society and gave all pupils equal rights, which she thought *the most important thing and outweighs all the other strengths and weaknesses* (Interview, 20 February 2008). Saleh focused on integration within the immediate community, saying that besides the fact that he would be able to work much closer to his home, inclusion would allow teachers and pupils to get to know those from their neighbourhood and as such, he believed that inclusion was a *social rather than an educational movement* (Interview, 21 February 2008). In terms of integration in a broader sense, Fatma thought one of inclusion's strengths was that society would be more accepting and understanding of disabilities (Interview, 20 February 2008). Sarah felt that *special schools teachers and pupils would no longer feel so distant and isolated from the mainstream community (...) as our schools are very far away, our curriculum is different and we are not a part of their daily activities* (Interview, 20 February 2008). Noura, Fawaz and Hussein echoed this comment, however, Hussein worried that inclusion could potentially back-fire if *pupils with disabilities lose confidence in themselves when they see that they are less able than the others - this could cause them to reject the system altogether* (Interview, 21 February 2008).

On the whole, however, the pupils' experience was perceived as a strength of inclusion. Mona believed that inclusion could work quite well for pupils with disabilities *especially during the earlier stages of their education, as it jump-starts their learning curve in a way and gives them a little healthy push*. Interestingly, taking another perspective on it to Hussein who thought they would *lose confidence*, she thought that, at a younger age, pupils would not really be aware of the difference between them and their mainstream education classmates, so being disabled would,



most likely, not affect their confidence when they were young (Interview, 20 February 2008). Noura thought that pupils with disabilities would gain further from having mainstream pupils to look up to and learn from as role models, academically, and that *they would see that there is more to them than just their disability* (Interview, 20 February 2008). In turn, she felt, that the pupils without disabilities would have the opportunity to see a side of them that is usually warm and endearing, something they would not have come to see otherwise (Interview, 20 February 2008). Fawaz's comments concurred with this, that *a very critical strength of inclusion is that mainstream schools' pupils can develop a higher understanding and sensitivity towards the needs of others and will further better prepare both types of pupils for the future* (Interview, 21 February 2008). He added that pupils with disabilities would have the opportunity to form friendships with other pupils who they could even meet after school, and this would improve their social life greatly (Interview, 21 February 2008).

The special school teachers also perceived potential weaknesses in the inclusive system from the pupils' point of view. While Salem accepted that inclusion might better prepare pupils with disabilities for their future socially and in general, he felt that it was more important for them to get as good an education as possible. Instead their family, through other social events, could help them prepare for the future. Salem had this view because he believed that no pupil's needs would be met in terms of education through inclusion: *the teaching techniques and the curriculum would not target only one type of pupil, it would target a wide range of abilities which would not serve the exact needs of any of the pupils. It will have to be too general and too flexible to provide them with the concentrated education that they need* (Interview, 21

February 2008). Sultan also thought that *inclusion dilutes the volume of learning that would typically go on in separate schools. Although it does improve the social life of the pupils in some ways, the most important goal of schools is to give a good education and this goal would not be met under the inclusion system* (Interview, 21 February 2008).

Even the perceived strong social benefits of inclusion for pupils were not conferred by all, nor the fact that inclusion's strengths were unconditionally so. Sarah said she was concerned *that the pupils with disabilities might be mistreated and subjected to bullying by the mainstream pupils for being different* (Interview, 20 February 2008). Furthermore, both Amel and Mona thought that while there were great strengths of inclusion, they were conditional. Mona, for example, felt like Amel, in that *pupils with severe disabilities will eventually, as they get older, fall behind the rest of their peers. Inclusion does not meet the needs of those pupils with severe disabilities* (Interview, 20 February 2008).

The benefit to teachers was another strength of inclusion according to Noura, who believed that *the teachers would be more challenged in a good way, which would make them better teachers overall* (Interview, 20 February 2008). Mostly, however, it was considered a weakness of the inclusive system. Saleh claimed that *there would be less of a focus on education than having separate schools, as the attention of the teachers will be divided among groups of different abilities, rather than targeting one group who all share the same pace of learning. The teacher will have to work twice as hard* (Interview, 21 February 2008). Fawaz agreed with this but added that he believed *teachers can be trained, which would help with the challenge* (Interview, 21

February 2008). Amel pointed out that a weakness of inclusion was that it did not give the mainstream teachers *the choice of whether to teach pupils with disabilities or not* (Interview, 20 February 2008).

In terms of the perceived strengths of inclusion for parents, Noura felt parents of pupils with disability would be better off to see their children in mainstream schools (Interview, 20 February 2008). Similarly, Fatma felt that parents of pupils with disability would like seeing their kids being accepted in daily activities and the general community. She accepted *that some parents of mainstream pupils may not be too excited about inclusion; they may see including pupils with disabilities in mainstream classrooms as a distraction for their kids, (...) that it would prevent them learning to the best of their ability and their kids would not get enough attention from the teacher* (Interview, 20 February 2008). However, Fatma also felt that this potential weakness could be overcome by *adding an assistant teacher in the classroom who is totally dedicated to the pupils with disabilities* thereby assuring the parents of mainstream pupils that those with disabilities are not affecting the education of their child (Interview, 20 February 2008).

Overall, there were similar numbers of strengths (50) and weaknesses (51) mentioned by those interviewed. The table below summarizes these as well as their frequency of citation. It is interesting to note that there seems to be no obvious distinction between the groups based upon the small sample; rather, the range of views appears common across the groups in terms of what these strengths and weaknesses were. The table shows, however, that the discussion on inclusion is a fairly polemical one in that over half of the sample identified only strengths or only weaknesses. This highlights the

strong feelings surrounding the issue, possibly resulting from the fact that inclusion is a new concept for Kuwait and there is lack of knowledge and experience with it.

The quantitative data analysis suggests more strengths than weaknesses, however, it is also important to consider that, the interview data suggests more society oriented strength and that weaknesses are more pupils and practicality orientated

According to the interview data and the frequency table below, teachers and head teachers are most concerned that, as it stands, the curriculum in mainstream schools is not appropriate for pupils with disabilities, that adding pupils with disabilities to their classrooms complicates matters, that too much attention is needed to support pupils with disabilities (thus some attention is taken from mainstream pupils), and that more resources and training are required if children with a wide range of disabilities are to be included. Scoring the highest frequency on the table, teachers and head teachers recognise the value of inclusion for facilitating the integration into society of the pupils with disabilities. They also believe that inclusion improves all pupils' tolerance and understanding of one another and, furthermore, that it is an important human right to enable pupils with disabilities to participate in mainstream schools.

On the whole, strengths were largely associated with the social aspects of inclusion such as involvement both in the immediate and wider community, which would prevent the isolation of teachers, parents and pupils; tolerance; equality; and that pupils would mutually gain from inclusion, socially and for the pupils with disabilities at least, in terms of education. Weaknesses of inclusion mainly centre on its educational system that teachers, pupils and parents would be unhappy and less

achievement would be reached because of the challenges teachers faced and a non-adapted curriculum for those particular needs.

### 7.9.5 Summary

**Table 24: Strengths**

<b>Issue</b>	<b>Frequency (number of participants)</b>
Pupils with disabilities will be more integrated into society	10
Greater tolerance of people with disabilities and the acceptance of difference in society	9
Create equality for pupils with disabilities – equality in human rights.	6
Inclusion is ‘more like life’	5
Parents of pupils with disabilities prefer it	4
Friendships between neighbouring children will develop	4
Pupils with disabilities will learn more life skills	3
Mainstream pupils will be more ethically aware of their disabled peers	2
Pupils with disabilities self esteem will increase	1
Siblings can be together in one school	1
Pupils with disabilities can gain independence	1
Pupils with disabilities will be happier in mainstream schools	1
Teachers from Special education and mainstream will teach together	1
Less travel for special school teachers	1
Pupils with disabilities would have better people skills	1

**Table 25: Weaknesses**

Current curriculum not appropriate for pupils with disabilities	7
Inclusion would be more complicated	5
Too much attention would be given to pupils with disabilities and not enough on mainstream pupils	5
Schools would need more resources	5
Pupils with severe disabilities would need more help which would detract from other pupils	4
Forcing reluctant teachers to teach in an inclusive classrooms would create a negative environment	4
Mainstream pupils may bullying pupils with disabilities	4
Less focus on education	3
Mainstream pupils distracted	3
Harms pupils with disabilities emotionally	3
Holds mainstream pupils back	3
Mainstream parents object it	2
Special schools teachers lose status	1
Pupils with disabilities will be isolated	1
More stress for teachers	1

**Table 26: Distribution of participants' views on weaknesses and strengths**

<b>Identify Strengths</b>	<b>Identify Weaknesses</b>	<b>Identify Both</b>
10	7	13

## 7.10 The Fourth Question

*What do you believe can be done to improve the current inclusion system in Kuwait?*

### 7.10.1 The mainstream school head teachers

Preparation appeared to be the key theme in the mainstream head teachers' responses to the question, not only of the teachers, but the public, the parents, the pupils, the curriculum, the universities, and the schools' facilities.

Fahad thought that *before the Ministry of Education imposes inclusion on us, they should make sure that most educators and most of the public are in agreement with the system. If the majority are not, then the movement will be sure to fail* (Interview, 15 January 2008). Manal suggested that this was less a question of approval as education: *most importantly, the Ministry of Education needs to educate the general public about the inclusion concept, so that the whole society can lend their support in this* (Interview, 10 January 2008).

The preparation of teachers was an aspect which could be improved for Manal: *there needs to be intensive courses for teachers and anyone involved in the educational sector on how to deal with pupils with special needs*. She also said that, although it is important to learn how to deal with pupils with disabilities, this is not the difficult part with regard to inclusion; the difficulty is in learning how to teach in classrooms where there are pupils with so many different levels of learning ability. It becomes a balancing act and the Ministry of Education has to train teachers to find this balance. Manal felt that her *teachers' very supportive towards the movement at the moment is*



*due to their positive attitudes and the support that they are getting from their superiors.* She believed, however, that teachers will eventually get stressed if they are not adequately trained, especially if more types of disability are included (Interview, 10 January 2008). Nora pointed out that *luckily, just recently, universities have made it mandatory for anyone studying education to include, in their curriculum courses, special education for pupils with disabilities.* Unfortunately most of the mainstream education teachers have missed out on these courses and because of that, Nora, like Haya, Jassim and Fahad, thought intensive training courses should be available for them (Interview, 13 January 2008).

Nasser also felt that to supplement training, mainstream teachers *really need a lot of help from special schools and their teachers.* Fahad elaborated further on this by saying that special school teachers should participate along with mainstream teachers in adjusting the curriculum to meet the needs of all pupils, and that they should also assist mainstream teachers in the classrooms (Interview, 16 January 2008).

Manal also pointed out that *parents' support of both types of pupil is always necessary for successful inclusion, so heads of schools and teachers need to involve the parents as much as possible to reassure those with any doubts by showing them positive results* (Interview, 10 January 2008). Fahad also thought that mainstream pupils should be prepared and informed about how to interact with pupils with disabilities (Interview, 15 January 2008).

Improvement of curriculum was something Nora felt strongly about: *the curriculum needs to be updated, with the needs of the pupils with disabilities in mind* (Interview, 13 January 2008).

In terms of improving facilities, Haya said that although she did not support the movement of inclusion, she, like Jassim, thought that *taking steps to ensure that schools are properly equipped for the relevant disabilities is important as well as providing the necessary tools* (Interview, 14 January 2008).

Alongside all of this preparation, Jassim suggested an incremental inclusion programme where *pupils with severe disabilities should be kept at special schools until teachers are completely confident with the idea of teaching the more moderate disabilities currently being included* (Interview, 16 January 2008).

The head teachers from special schools took a practical approach to this question, suggesting that preparation for all involved was key and that the government should supply plenty of training and support to teachers before and during the inclusion process. Other suggestions included the idea of actually gaining public approval before moving forward with the further implementation of inclusion and that carrying it out in a step-by-step fashion would improve inclusion and lend the process greater possibility of success.

### **7.10.2 The mainstream school teachers**

Not surprisingly preparation was also the keynote in the mainstream teachers' responses on how to improve the current system of inclusion. They had some interesting extra comments to make however.

Maha believed *that the media can play a big part in encouraging and educating the society to greater acceptance of pupils with disabilities* (Interview, 10 January 2008). Jassem also raised the point about public awareness but thought the responsibility lay with the Ministry of Education to *raise public awareness of inclusion* (Interview, 17 January 2008).

A sense of welcome was important to Aisha, Maha and Salman. Aisha felt that the *school's staff must convey warm and welcoming support to pupils with disabilities and their parents* (Interview, 16 January 2008). When this did not occur, Maha believed that head teachers and teachers needed *to introduce very strict rules with regards to bullying and the mistreatment of pupils with disabilities. For the pupils with disabilities to feel comfortable in mainstream classrooms they must know that they have the support of everyone around them and if anyone shows otherwise then they can be assured that immediate action will be taken* (Interview, 10 January 2008). Zaid placed the onus on *parents of mainstream pupils to talk to their kids about being kind and accepting the differences and disabilities of others* (Interview, 17 January 2008). He felt like Maha that schools should have a *no tolerance* attitude towards bullying (Interview, 17 January 2008). Salman thought, like Sara and Waleed, that training of pupils and teachers was key to a good welcome: *Schools should bring in experts to lecture their general mainstream pupils and teachers on different types of*

*disability and each one's different needs. This is so important as it will help in the way that they deal with them and the pupils with disabilities will appreciate and recognize their courtesy and this will make them feel more welcome* (Interview, 16 January 2008).

The theme of teacher training and support as a way of improving the current system of inclusion was raised again but from different angles. Sara made the point that *the Ministry of Education should run more conferences and seminars on inclusion* and should insist on their attendance. She also added that extra help from outside should be provided if the teacher feels it necessary (Interview, 13 January 2008). Jassem strongly believed that The Ministry of Education should focus more on providing classes in universities for anyone training to be a teacher and that these special classes should be informative about disabilities and concentrate on teaching techniques for pupils with these disabilities. (Interview, 17 January 2008).

Sahar furthered the head teachers' ideas on incremental implementation of inclusion by suggesting that *during the early stages of inclusion, the mainstream classrooms should be led by the special schools teachers, while the general education teachers observe and assist until they feel confident enough to take over* (Interview, 14 January 2008). Mohammed thought that improvements could also be made by adding an assistant teacher in the classroom, whose role was *to help out with the pupils with special needs and give them extra attention if they are having any problems with keeping up with the rest of the pupils* (Interview, 17 January 2008). Khaled had a similar idea, he thought *it would be a huge help for the main teacher and would keep the pupils with disabilities from distracting others as well as keeping mainstream*

*pupils from mistreating the pupils with disabilities* (Interview, 17 January 2008). In addition, Aisha thought that *the process should not be rushed and everyone should be properly adjusted to the current system before including more disabilities in mainstream classrooms* (Interview, 16 January 2008).

In terms of improving inclusion through internal support, Khalood suggested that *head teachers and teachers of mainstream schools should regularly meet to discuss the progress of the pupils and problems they are facing which require attention* (Interview, 15 January 2008). Zaid also felt that an open school culture should be created where they could discuss their observations with other teachers and come up with the best possible solutions between them for any situations they might find difficult. He also pointed out that head teachers and school administration had the responsibility to make teachers at the school feel comfortable enough to be able to talk to them and open up about any concerns or issues that inclusion faces them with. This, he believed, would help prevent teachers from becoming stressed and problems would be more easily solved (Interview, 17 January 2008).

Curriculum and facilities were again touched upon as ways of improving the current inclusion system. Khaled, like Sahar, believed that changes to the curriculum were necessary because he felt that teachers were not able to reach those with disabilities through the current curriculum, as it was *not created to reach them in the first place*. (Interview, 17 January 2008). Sahar also believed that changes to facilities were necessary and as well as *financial support from the Ministry of Education* (Interview, 14 January 2008). Mohammed thought that this would make pupils with disabilities feel very welcome (Interview, 17 January 2008).

Not all of the suggested improvements were to the current system were supportive of it. Nadia thought radical revision was necessary to improve inclusion: *the only way I can see inclusion being a success is if the pupils with disabilities are included in the mainstream schools but not in the actual classrooms with the other pupils. They should have their own classes*, something which does not exist currently in Kuwait. She believed that in this way *they would still be involved in all the school activities, which would benefit both kinds of pupils socially, without causing problems in the classroom* (Interview, 16 January 2008). Mohammed agreed but thought that only pupils with severe disabilities should but be taught in their own specialized classes within the mainstream school (Interview, 17 January 2008).

Aisha expressed similar ideas to the head teachers about improving inclusion. She felt that *is required parents to be in touch and involved with the school more than ever, to discuss their pupils' needs and monitor their progress* (Interview, 16 January 2008).

Salman expressed two interesting ideas. Firstly, he felt that teachers should be given higher wages as it is much more challenging and tiring to teach in inclusive classrooms (Interview, 16 January 2008). He also made a point about the future of pupils with disability: that they would be greatly motivated if the school provided a service where they guaranteed the pupils with disabilities a job when they feel that they are capable enough, or at any time that they request, and this service should definitely be supported by the Ministry of Education (Interview, 16 January 2008).

Overall, the mainstream teachers' recommendations were consistent with their head teachers. They did generate interesting new ideas about: ways to alter the public's perception of inclusion; ways to help make the pupils with disability feel welcome; further and existing training; teacher support systems within the school's culture; incremental implementation of inclusion; curriculum and facility alterations; the value of parent support; and the possibility of guaranteeing the pupils with disabilities opportunity to work once they had left the education system. More ideas were also expressed surrounding the issue of introducing varying degrees of separation of mainstream pupils and those with disability.

### ***7.10.3 The special school head teachers***

Both special schools head teachers thought training for teachers and head teachers was essential. Ali suggested that *teachers of mainstream schools should visit special schools regularly and attend the classes to gain confidence with pupils with disabilities* (Interview, 21 February 2008). Shekha felt that successful inclusion required not only teacher training but that the experts needed to highlight to teachers in particular the benefits of inclusion. She claimed that she has a couple of colleagues, now installed in mainstream schools, who complained about the mainstream teachers and their lack of even basic knowledge of pupils with disabilities. She also thought *specialized assistant teachers would help guide the mainstream teachers and give extra attention to the pupils with disabilities* (Interview, 20 February 2008).

Interestingly, Ali did not think it was a good idea for severely disabled to be included in mainstream classrooms, but felt, however, it was their *right*, just like the moderately disabled, to be part of mainstream schools. He suggested that special

classrooms be assigned for them exclusively within mainstream schools (Interview, 21 February 2008).

#### ***7.10.4 The special school teachers***

Public awareness was again addressed as a way to improve the current inclusion system. Saleh thought that there needed to be more awareness of the concept of inclusion and how it benefited all pupils and society in general; *this can be done through conferences, seminars, media and workshops* (Interview, 21 February 2008). Noura also thought *media could play a big part in educating the public about pupils with disabilities and their needs and can also emphasise the advantages of inclusive schools* (Interview, 20 February 2008).

A welcoming attitude was again considered a vital improvement, but with particular focus on special needs teachers. Noura believed that mainstream schools needed to have a welcoming attitude towards special schools teachers and *be willing to work with us to achieve successful inclusion* (Interview, 20 February 2008). Saleh furthered this by saying mainstream schools needed to *make the pupils with disabilities and their families feel welcome* (Interview, 21 February 2008).

This feeling of open-mindedness, it was hoped, would spill into a collaborative culture. Sara thought that to make inclusion a success, there had to be collaboration between four main groups, as follows: *the Ministry of Education, mainstream schools, special schools and parents all need to work as one unit to achieve the goal of inclusion. I think if one of these groups is not cooperative or does not believe in the concept of inclusion, it will be very difficult to achieve the desired effect in the near*



*future* (Interview, 20 February 2008). In addition, Saleh thought this culture was important amongst the staff and that the teachers and head teachers needed to share their experiences with each other, to discuss the difficulties that they have faced, and learn from them (Interview, 21 February 2008). Lastly, focusing on the classroom itself, Hussein felt that *teachers also have to work side by side to assist each other in the classroom* (Interview, 21 February 2008).

A sense of parents' involvement was also important to Fatma who thought that parents of both mainstream pupils and the pupils with disabilities should be significantly involved in the inclusion process in the role of social educator and monitor: *parents of mainstream schools pupils need to educate their kids about pupils with disabilities and their individual needs, and parents of pupils with disabilities should show support of inclusion and monitor any changes there may be in their child's behaviour* (Interview, 20 February 2008).

Training and support was again emphasized by the special schools teachers as a key area in which improvements to the current inclusive system could be made. Amel thought that universities should provide teachers with adequate classes about pupils with disabilities' needs and inclusion, and those already in the system would benefit from more training (Interview, 20 February 2008). Hussein thought that taking mainstream pupils on visits to special needs schools would be a good opportunity for mainstream teachers also to learn the teaching strategies of special school teachers (Interview, 21 February 2008). Fawaz felt that teachers needed to be well trained by experts in the field of inclusion. Moreover, he pointed out that *they should also get a salary raise to motivate them. Also, the teachers need to research about inclusion in*

*other countries which are ahead in this movement and learn from their mistakes* (Interview, 21 February 2008). In addition to training, Salem believed that *support from head teachers and anyone involved in school administration was vital* (Interview, 21 February 2008).

As with the mainstream teachers, the issue of educating mainstream pupils about disability was raised but the suggestion of how to do it was new: Hussein thought that before more types of pupils with disabilities are included in mainstream classrooms, *pupils should first visit each other's schools to get a feel for what they can expect*. In this way, Hussein said, *mainstream pupils can also observe the needs of the pupils with disabilities and be more sensitive towards them when it is time for them to join them in the classroom* (Interview, 21 February 2008).

Like their mainstream colleagues, Mona and Salem thought that a revision of curriculum was vital for the success of inclusion and Mona also thought *teaching strategy needs to be adjusted* (Interview, 20 February 2008). Fawaz felt it was very important for special schools teachers, who are experts, to participate along with general education experts to develop a new, more targeting curriculum (Interview, 21 February 2008). Salem also thought schools needed to be revamped in terms of *appropriate equipment and facilities* (Interview, 21 February 2008).

Finally, it was interesting to see the special schools teacher, Sultan support the idea of putting all pupils in the same school, but segregating classes, because in this way *pupils with disabilities can be included in the school's daily activities but have their own classrooms within the school. This will give them the best of both worlds* (Interview, 21 February 2008).

Overall, the special needs teachers and head teachers' recommendations are largely consistent with their mainstream colleagues. Several recommendations unique to the special needs teachers include: educating teachers and parents about the benefits of inclusion; having pupils and teachers from mainstream schools visit special schools; and the importance of collaboration between the ministry, educators, parents and pupils.

The need for training, which was communicated so insistently in the survey data as well as the literature, topped the list of recommendations in the interviews as well. The interviews revealed that many teachers and head teachers feared including pupils who they were not trained to teach, particularly those with severe impairments. Some teachers recommended separating the pupils with disability and mainstream pupils by having different classes but within the same school, and others recommended separating only pupils with severe disabilities from the mainstream pupils

The following chart is a summary of recommendations from all interviewed teachers and head teachers from both special and mainstream schools on how to improve inclusion in Kuwait.

### 7.10.5 Summary

**Table 27: What can be done to improve inclusion?**

Issue	Frequency (number of participants)
Training, seminars, conferences for teachers	17
Train mainstream pupils about pupils with disabilities	7
Adapt curriculum to include pupils with disabilities and mainstream pupils	6
Proper facilities and equipment for use in an inclusive classroom	5
Public awareness of inclusion	4
Provide assistants to aid teachers	4
Involve parents get support for teachers and pupils	3
Universities require special education courses for teachers in training	3
Special education teachers help mainstream teachers to create an inclusive environment	3
Increase salary for teachers	3
Separate pupils with severe disabilities to cater all pupils needs (schools/classes)	3
Have open discussions between head teachers and teachers about their concerns	3
Welcome pupils with disabilities to mainstream schools	2
Job placement for special education teachers so they don't face losses	1
Mainstream pupils visit special schools to gain understanding	1
Mainstream teachers visit special schools to gain understanding	1
Collaboration between Ministry of Education, schools and parents to ensure successful inclusion	1
Teachers must be willing to include pupils with disabilities in mainstream schools	1
Make changes toward inclusion slowly	1

## 7.11 The Interviews with the Decision Makers

### *What would you say about inclusion in Kuwait?*

As it has been stated in the introduction of this chapter, the interviews with the decision makers was a necessity to collect data regarding current plan for mainstreaming. I interviewed Dr. Issa Al-Jassem, the head of Mubarak Al-Kabeer Inclusion Project. I asked him what he thinks about inclusion in Kuwaiti public schools and he said:

*With inclusive education for pupils with disabilities, Kuwait's public schools have progressed at a much slower rate than other educational institutions around the world. The public schools in Kuwait even lag behind the many privately run educational programmes. He also went beyond that by saying, The previous Minister of Education, Mr. Musad Al Haroon, actually sent his daughter who has a disability to be educated in Canada because of the lack of suitable programmes. (Interview, 11 July 2011).*

To meet the demand of the national institutes to serve pupils with special needs, Dr. Al-Jassem says that many private institutions have been founded and developed with funding from Kuwaiti parents. They felt that their children's needs, as disabled learners, were not being adequately met, so they established The Kuwait Centre for Autism, The Down Syndrome Centre, The Down Syndrome Society, The Kuwait Disabled Sports Club, and The Learning Difficulties Professional Association, among others, which have sought out to act as advocates and to provide services for those in need. Within the last decade especially, numerous *specialized* schools and programmes have started up:

1. Fawzia Sultan School.
2. Dasman Model School,

3. Hope School.
4. Creative Children International School.
5. Ideal Education School.

These are examples of schools which are designed for young people with learning difficulties, hearing and sight impairments, physical disabilities, multiple disabilities as well as others special educational needs. The government of Kuwait has been, at last, influenced by the progress made by private schools and programmes designed for pupils with disabilities and they have committed themselves to changes to benefit this section of society. Adherence to international law, which proposes *equal educational opportunities for all*, is also a factor in their support of more inclusive education. (Interview, 11 July 2011).

When discussing the need for support from the wider community, outside of legislators and educators, Dr. Issa Al-Jassem argues that an advocacy campaign is needed to educate the public to explain the educational inclusion programmes and the importance for them to be adopted, not just out of choice but also through *legal necessity*.

Dr. Al-Jassem added that Kuwait recently signed an agreement with UNESCO, committing them to move towards more inclusive practices within their public school system. He also said that an initial step for the Ministry of Education was in 1994 and lately, on a bigger scale, in 2010 for conducting the Mubarak Al-Kabeer Inclusion Project. This is the government's 3-years initiative, on a trial basis, towards inclusive education for pupils with disabilities within mainstream public schools. Twenty-eight primary schools in Mubarak Al-Kabeer, a Kuwaiti province, were the main part of the project and they work with professionals provided in cooperation with the Centre for Child Teaching and Evaluation to bring in specialized training for school

administrations and teachers. Alan Hunter, a UK-based specialist on child inclusion and education, was hired by the Centre to help train the educators in their home country (Interview, 11 July 2011).

Dr. Issa Al-Jassem described how teachers learned the best way to prepare for classes as well as how to develop skills to identify pupils already within their public school who may have undiagnosed learning difficulties. *Administrators were also provided with guidance on the adjustment of the school layout to meet the potential needs of pupils. A noticeable shift in attitudes, as well as in teaching practices, was evident upon completion of the Mubrak Al Kabeer training*, Dr. Al-Jassem concluded (Interview, 11 July 2011).

However, he also conceded that more awareness of and pressure for inclusive practices is needed, encompassing all of Kuwait's public schools; he explained that *International law states that pupils with disabilities should be included in society and should be given the proper education, care, protection and should be merged with mainstream pupils and allowed to socialize and play with them* (Interview, 11 July 2011).

Dr. Al-Jassem pointed out that there are difficulties facing inclusion not only regarding the procedures but also the meanings and understanding of terms between the West and the Arab world. He stated that the distinction of terms has been an ongoing problem especially in identifying the type of disability. He carried on by saying; *This problem has to be approached by better training professionals to internationally agreed standards*. He continued by saying that educators in Kuwait still group different disabilities into one general category, such as calling an emotional behavioural disorder, *mental handicap*, and in Arabic *shaytan* (Interview, 11 July 2011). Also, Dr. Bader Al-Barak, in his interview, supported the idea of greater levels

of training for teachers on the categorization and diagnostic methods for disabilities. For example, in the case of Down's syndrome, it is misnamed by many teachers as *mental retardation*, or in Arabic *majnon*. Similarly, learning difficulties are translated as *gabi* which literally means *dumb* (Interview, 24 July 2011).

According to Dr. Issa Al-Jassem, *Families have been embarrassed if they have a relative with a pronounced disability, for fear that members of their community would judge the condition as a punishment from God, therefore tarnishing the family's name and standing*. On the other hand, Dr. Al-Jassem states, *Recently families have been more accepting of disabilities and often are happy to enhance the family's reputation by public involvement in charities assisting the person with the disability*. Sometimes family members even start a particular charity, as was the case with the families who established The Centre for Child Teaching and Evaluation (CCET). (Interview, 11 July 2011).

In response to the same question, Dr. Bader Al-Barak reflects on the fact that inclusion in Kuwait is still in need of improved teacher and head teacher training. He added, *unfortunately many teachers share the same belief that pupils with disabilities hinder the teacher's classroom management*. Dr. Al-Barak, believes that this hindrance is due to the fact that teachers are not prepared in advance for this. He argues that not only are teachers not prepared, but also schools are not adapted to meet the needs of pupils with disabilities. He said that *the Ministry of Education should cooperate with the international experts for training teachers on how to include pupils with disabilities into mainstream classrooms*. Dr. Al-Barak pointed out the Ministry of Education's Mubarak Al-Kabeer Inclusion Project as an example of international cooperation within Kuwait. In addition, Al-Barak went on, *The Mubarak*



*Al-Kabeer Inclusion Project has been acting as a reference for future comprehensive inclusion in Kuwait* (Interview, 24 July 2011).

In interviewing Dr. Hamad Al- Ajmi, I found that he was in an agreement with Dr. Al-Barak about the importance of the role that teachers and head teachers play in the success of the inclusion approach. Dr. Al-Ajmi, said that *teachers and head teachers have a fundamental role to bring success to the process of inclusion*. He also stated that the cooperation between teachers and head teachers is a focal point for successful practices of inclusion. He also described the weaknesses of inclusion in Kuwait by commenting on the contribution of the Ministry of Education having an unclear tendency towards inclusion (Interview, 16 July 2011).

According to her experience, Maha Al-Mutairi shares the same views with Dr. Al-Ajmi and Dr. Al-Barak regarding the need of training for the teachers and head teachers. Al-Mutairi's ideas go hand in hand with Dr. Al-Jassem's regarding the lack of identifying and understanding the differences between the types of disabilities. She suggested that more training and support are required. Al-Mutairi, referred to the Islamic impact on the process of inclusion as a main factor that should influence the relationship between pupils with disabilities and teachers. She stated that the *feeling of tolerance towards people with disabilities is a must when being Muslim* (Interview, 20 July 2011).

The decision makers' responses were based on their experiences with inclusion resulting in them sharing the demand for more training for teachers and head teachers. Al- Mutari and Dr. Al- Barack raised the issue of the lack of school facilities. All of the interviewees who are decision makers have not mentioned any financial difficulties or complaints about the Mubarak Al- Kabeer Inclusion Project.

Dr. Al-Jassem referred to the fact that inclusion in Kuwait involves more pupils with disabilities to become active members in the Kuwaiti society. He also said that *in applying inclusion, pupils with disabilities get their rights of education that is sponsored by Kuwaiti Law*. From his own experience in the Mubarak Al-Kabeer Inclusion Project, Dr. Al-Jassem described the positive interactions between pupils with disabilities and their peers in mainstream schools. He has noticed that the trained teachers have more skills than before to engage the pupils with disabilities in classroom environment (Interview, 11 July 2011). Dr. Al-Barak added that not only has the training of teachers helped, but also the modifying of classrooms has improved the implementation of inclusion (Interview, 24 July 2011).

Through his regular meetings with teachers, Dr. Al-Ajmi has encountered fewer complaints among trained teachers regarding including pupils with disabilities in mainstream schools. Dr. Al-Ajmi said, *I would not be surprised that there are fewer complaints from trained teachers because they are aware of pupils with disabilities needs compared to non-trained teachers* (Interview, 16 July 2011). Moreover, Maha Almutairi added that parents of the pupils with disabilities have positive feedback about the role of trained teachers regarding their children's interactions with the members of their family and society in general (Interview, 20 July 2011).

At the time, Dr. Al-Ajmi did not speak a lot about the areas of strength since he insisted that there are still many issues related to the current status of inclusion that need to be improved. He commented, *We are still in the initiative stages of inclusion and we should involve more official sectors to contribute towards successful inclusion such as the Ministry of Media to shed light on the importance of inclusion* (Interview, 16 July 2011). Dr. Al-Barak argued that there are laws in Kuwait that already exist when it comes to catering for the disabled but these laws have not been drawn upon

very effectively but should be (Interview, 24 July 2011). All things considered, the interviewed decision makers feel that one of the delaying reasons is the instability of the Kuwaiti government, which has resulted in seven governments in less than five years. Furthermore, Dr. Al-Jassem and Al-Mutairi believe that the cooperation with advanced countries in inclusion is necessary to learn from their experiences, such as the United Kingdom. Dr. Al-Jassem claimed that most of the international inclusion studies are written in English so they must be translated into Arabic to be useful resources for Kuwaiti teachers and head teachers (Interview, 11 July 2011).

## **7.12 Conclusion**

This chapter reviewed the responses gathered from interviews with teachers, head teachers, and decision makers in the State of Kuwait. Their responses provide new insights about inclusion in terms of their opinions, attitudes and experience. The importance of participants' support for inclusion initiatives emerged from the interview transcripts. Furthermore, the interview data coincided with the abundance of research, which has found training and resources for inclusion severely lacking. The interview data brought to light specific areas of training, preferred delivery methods, and the importance of human resources in the form of aides and knowledgeable mentors, which would facilitate successful implementation of inclusion.

The interviews themselves were insightful and identified areas of key importance for teachers and head teachers, including those who had previous experience with inclusion and those who had not. While considerable nuances of opinion were displayed above, teachers and head teachers who supported inclusion did so from two

main positions: the first approach deemed that it was an ethically sound movement; and the second that it would be beneficial to society and all of the pupils' development. Of those who were against it, criticisms of inclusion were mostly based on the idea that while there were likely to be social and affective benefits of inclusion, these benefits were not significant enough to justify placing the academic achievement of mainstream pupils at risk.

Interestingly, the interviews provided insight into some higher-level issues. Mainstream teachers and head teachers appeared to be more concerned with factors that would directly affect them, and their daily work. However, special needs school teachers and head teachers generally provided positive ethical and social results for the pupils with special needs, rather than elements that could potentially be positive for themselves and their work.

Several findings came out of the research that will be valuable as Kuwait develops and implements approaches to include more pupils with various disabilities into mainstream schools. In general, most of the findings were consistent with research reported in the literature review, which was predominantly based on experiences of inclusion in Western countries.

In this chapter, light was shed on the details of the interview fieldwork procedures. Further interpretation will follow in the next chapter where a combination of the quantitative and qualitative findings is presented. A great deal of the results support the concepts discussed in the literature review. The links among what other researchers have found, the quantitative results and the interview results of this study

will be made evident in chapter eight. Conclusions are formulated regarding the relationship between teachers, head teachers, and decision makers' experience and attitudes. Child and environmental related variables, which can affect inclusion and educators' attitudes about pupils with disabilities, will be discussed in light of the existing literature and the findings of this study as well as a general summary of findings and recommendations.

## **CHAPTER EIGHT: DISCUSSION, CONCLUSION, AND RECOMMENDATION**

### **8.1 Introduction**

The main purpose of this study was to inquire about the attitudes of teachers and head teachers in Kuwaiti special and mainstream primary schools towards the inclusion approach. In continuation of the analysis of the quantitative and qualitative findings, here the findings from the special and mainstream primary schools teachers and head teachers' questionnaires are examined and the interviews with teachers and head teachers in both types of schools are discussed as well as decision makers. The data presented in this chapter was gathered from teachers, head teachers and decision makers in the Ministry of Education in Kuwait.

From the present research came several findings which may be useful for Kuwait as it goes about its programme of inclusion of pupils with various disabilities into mainstream classrooms. In general, some of the findings were consistent with what was reported in the literature review, which was predominantly based on the experience of using inclusion in Western countries. However, the findings have its own Kuwaiti identity that might not be applied in other countries.

### **8.2 Teacher Experience and Attitude**

The results from the survey indicated that teachers and head teachers at mainstream schools had significantly more positive attitudes toward including pupils with all types of disability than did teachers and head teachers in special schools. Conceivably

teachers and head teachers at mainstream schools had significantly better attitudes toward inclusion as some of them had experienced inclusion and found it to be not as difficult as they had expected. A fairly small proportion of the teachers interviewed had first-hand experience of inclusion. This is not surprising, because Kuwait has not standardized the practice of inclusion in its schools, so inclusion goes against what is generally practised in most mainstream schools. The teachers and head teachers who were involved, however, had a wide range of knowledge and information on inclusion. Some teachers and head teachers who did not have first hand experience with inclusion had attended conferences and were knowledgeable on the subject, including its goals and purposes. At the other end of the spectrum, some teachers and head teachers had no knowledge about inclusion and what its advantages or goals might be. Thus, their mindset was to ask, *Why are we doing this?* Other teachers and head teachers were familiar with the basic concept of inclusion but did not have enough knowledge about it to form a strong personal opinion either for or against it.

In addition to the teachers and head teachers who had no detailed information on inclusion, a significant proportion of the sample based their information and their attitudes on second-hand information derived from colleagues' experience of inclusion or their school's general experience with it. This is often undesirable, because a teacher could have developed a generally negative attitude towards inclusion unduly influenced by extraneous factors such as the failure of the school to plan proper support for its new pupils with disability or their colleagues' lack of training on inclusion. For example, Head teacher Fahad mentioned: *I have heard several complaints from teachers about this practice, that they are finding it difficult to teach.* This endorses the results of Dockrell and Lindsay (2001), that poor

implementation of inclusion, due to a lack of resources and skills, led to teachers' having negative feelings towards inclusion. Alternatively, if a particular teacher with no first-hand experience had come in contact with a colleague whose previous experience of inclusion had been very positive, it would probably have made their attitude positive likewise.

The implication of these findings is that the Ministry of Education needs to allow adequate time and provide adequate resources to improve the teaching population's overall level of understanding of inclusion. This is needed to convey what the purpose and goals are of changing from a segregated school system to a school system based on inclusion. Such a recommendation is based on best practices in change management, where the first step in effective change management is to communicate the need for change. It is important that teachers and head teachers internalize the need for change, because they will be on the 'front line' of implementing it. It is the teachers and head teachers who will have the greatest impact on whether inclusion can be successful in Kuwait. Currently, most teachers and head teachers in mainstream schools would be unable to explain why the country's education system should be changed to an inclusive one. If the teachers and head teachers cannot be advocates for inclusion before the greater community, the implementation of inclusion will be unsuccessful.

Another finding on teachers and head teachers' attitudes is that, even though inclusion is idealistic as a principle, the teachers and head teachers who supported inclusion, including those who were very enthusiastic about it, acknowledged the challenges of implementing it. For instance, Teacher Salman commented, *teaching pupils with*



*disabilities alongside pupils of mainstream schools is a difficult task for us teachers, especially when the curriculum has not been appropriately adapted to target both categories of pupils.* This corresponds well with the finding of Croll and Moses (2000) that educators often view inclusion as an ideal, but one with practical limitations. No teachers among the interviewees was deluded enough to think that inclusion could be implemented easily and quickly, with positive results to be immediately apparent. This agrees with the research of Shade and Stewart (2001) who found that, even with the best intentions, teachers need good tools and support in order to make inclusion successful, indicating that it takes much more than good intentions and attitudes from the teachers to implement inclusion effectively.

The implication of this finding is that the Ministry of Education should take time in their implementation of inclusion and would do well to focus on making small gains at first. It is important that the Ministry of Education convey to the public that building a successful inclusion programme is an extended endeavour, aware that developing an effective inclusion programme is challenging and difficult. The public should not have unrealistic expectations that inclusion can be implemented very quickly and produce positive results immediately. As Dr. Al-Ajmi commented that *we still in the initiative stages of inclusion and we should involve more official sector to contribute toward successful inclusion such as Ministry of Media to shed lights on the importance of inclusion.*

### **8.3 Teacher Related Variables**

One interesting finding of the research is that there were gender differences in teacher's attitudes towards inclusion. Both genders had strong proponents of inclusion and strong opponents. In the quantitative analysis of the MAS variables in the questionnaire, male teachers were more positive than female teachers towards teaching pupils with disabilities in mainstream classrooms. The population of male teachers had a consistently higher MAS mean score across each of the four types of disability (physical disability, emotional and behavioural disorders, mental disability, and learning difficulties). The general attitude towards inclusion among male teachers across all disabilities had a higher mean MAS score. This showed, at an aggregate level, that male teachers were more supportive of inclusion than female teachers. As mentioned previously, a potential reason for a more negative reaction in the MAS might be because many females have been moved to Primary levels where they are already coping with new assignments and additional work. Moreover, the real implications of inclusion are in sight in that it is more likely that they will be expected to implement new inclusion efforts which would begin at Primary Level. These factors could have significant impact on attitudes.

Another finding which was consistent with the published literature, such as Avramidis et al., (2000) and Norwich (2002) is that teachers with more inclusion experience were more comfortable with it and generally more supportive of it. Interestingly, teachers and head teachers who taught in special schools were less supportive of inclusion than teachers in mainstream schools, as they scored lower on the MAS variables in the questionnaire. The population of teachers from special schools had a consistently lower MAS mean score across each of the four types of disability

(physical disability, emotional and behavioural disorder, mental disability, and learning difficulty). The general attitude of teachers and head teachers from special schools towards inclusion across all disabilities had a lower mean MAS score. This showed, at an aggregate level, that teachers from special schools were less supportive of inclusion than teachers from mainstream schools. A possible reason for the fact that teachers and head teachers at mainstream schools had significantly better attitudes toward inclusion is that more of them have experienced inclusion and find it to be not as difficult as anticipated. Nevertheless, the attitudes of the respondents at the mainstream schools, though more positive than those of the respondents at the special schools, still had a small majority scoring in the “disagree” or “strongly disagree” categories reflecting a reluctance, shared with the special school respondents, to include pupils having any of the four types of disability. Nonetheless, perhaps it is the case that the mainstream teachers and head teachers, rather than already finding inclusion easier than anticipated to implement, overestimate their ability to adapt their teaching practices to the new challenges that inclusion presents. Respondents from special schools may therefore have been less agreeable than their mainstream school counterparts because they are more experienced with pupils with disabilities, and more accurately understand the increased demands on time and expertise that will inevitably accompany including pupils with disabilities in mainstream classrooms. Teachers from special schools may have had significantly less positive attitudes about expanding inclusion programs because they face the biggest disruption to their professional lives. They may worry about having to move from their present special schools to mainstream schools and may also be uneasy about a potential loss of status when they share a building with mainstream teachers. In an educator’s pecking order, special schools teachers may worry about being marginalised in mainstream school

settings. In this sense, special school teachers may also be concerned about being a “second teacher” in mainstream classrooms, or relegated the role of “helper” to mainstream teachers, a step down psychologically from their previous status as an independent teacher with their own domain. There is also the possibility that special school teachers fear expanding inclusion classrooms may result in the loss of their jobs as mainstream teachers simply add teaching pupils with disabilities to their job descriptions, leaving some teachers from special schools unemployed. Mainstream teachers and head teachers also had significantly more positive attitudes toward having more support for inclusion programs than their special school counterparts did, but the two groups did not significantly differ on their attitudes toward need for training, though respondents from both types of school scored in the “disagree” or “strongly disagree” range. Again, perhaps mainstream teachers miscalculate the additional work and stress involved in inclusion and do not know enough about the types and amount of support they will need to make their work in inclusive classrooms successful.

It was interesting to note that, through the interviews it became clear that mainstream teachers and head teachers were predominantly more conscious about factors that would, in practice, affect their working lives, whereas special schools teachers and head teachers were more concerned with ethical, social and general pupils based factors. One of the most noticeable factors is based on Qur’anic teachings, which guide life and law in Kuwait, insists God’s people deserve equal opportunities and acceptance (Guvercin, 2008). Special schools teachers and head teachers also appeared to have a higher level of awareness of the benefits of the inclusion for the pupils with disabilities rather than for themselves.

Experience had a significant impact on opinion: teachers and head teachers with inclusion experience were able to see its benefits, such as improvement in the pupils with disabilities' social and academic skills and also improvement in the mainstream pupils' mentoring skills. They also had a chance to see first-hand the positive impacts of the interactions between mainstream pupils and pupils with disabilities, which would lead to a more positive attitude towards inclusion. For instance Al-Ajmi claimed that *I would not be surprised that less complains come from trained teachers since they are aware of pupils with disabilities need compared with non trained teachers*. As was the case with Western teachers, a minority of teachers and head teachers interviewed had had a poor experience with inclusion in their classroom. This could have been caused by various factors such as a lack of training, support from administration or the pupils' disabilities.

The implication of this for the Ministry of Education is that it can deploy the teachers and head teachers who have positive experience as advocates or change agents to help support the country's movement towards inclusion. They can relate their experiences to other teachers, head teachers, parents and community members and thus help to generate an overall positive attitude towards the use of inclusion in the educational system. They can also share their experience on the positive aspects of the interaction which occurs between mainstream pupils and pupils with disabilities to build greater understanding of why inclusion should be implemented. Another implication for a programme is that inclusion is similar to any other 'process change' in a workplace, such as using computer-based technology in teaching general education subjects. As teachers and other stakeholders gain more experience of the process of inclusion they

will tend to be much more comfortable with it. Thus, it is important that schools provide the necessary support and resources so that teachers' initial experience with inclusion is mostly positive.

Another finding of the present research is that, amongst teachers and head teachers who had no previous experience with inclusion, those who had a positive outlook towards inclusion generally looked on it as a personal challenge and an opportunity to improve their skill set. Teachers considered having to teach both mainstream pupils and pupils with special needs simultaneously as a greater challenge than teaching mainstream pupils alone, which is an accurate perception. They realized that in order to teach an inclusive class they would need to obtain additional training. They looked forward to the opportunity to learn more about teaching pupils with disabilities and to apply their learning in a classroom setting. For example, Aisha stated: *I am willing to teach in inclusive classrooms, as I believe it would be a positive challenge for me.* Unfortunately, not all teachers have a positive attitude towards facing new challenges. Instead, some teachers look on inclusion as a further item to make their job, which is already sufficiently challenging, even harder.

The implication of this is that it may help teachers and head teachers to accept the transition from having separate schools to inclusion if they approach the introduction of inclusion as a career development activity. From the Ministry of Education's perspective, the challenge is how to effectively deal with teachers and head teachers who have no positive view of taking on additional challenges. In the future, all teachers entering the teaching field will go into it with the expectation that they will need to be able to teach both mainstream pupils and pupils with disabilities together in

an inclusive environment. However, it cannot be denied that most teachers and head teachers currently in mainstream schools in Kuwait entered the profession with the prospect of teaching mainstream pupils only and they now have to make the transition to teaching inclusive classes. In some cases, mainstream teachers are not interested in making this transition. For example, Jassim, a head teacher from Mubrarak Al-Kabeer School District, commented that one of his teachers complained about a potential transition to inclusion, saying: *If I wanted to teach pupils with disabilities I would have gone to teach at special schools.* The Ministry of Education therefore needs to set the expectation for new teachers that they will be expected to teach both mainstream pupils and pupils with disabilities effectively in an inclusive environment, and will need to utilize an effective change management process to enable teachers and head teachers currently in the educational system to effectively cater for both sets of pupils in their classes.

#### **8.4 Child-Related Variables**

An additional research finding which was aligned with the literature review is that most teachers' attitudes towards inclusion are affected by the types of disability that included pupils would have. The quantitative survey showed a general negative attitude towards mainstreaming of all four of the disability groups (physical disability, emotional and behavioural disorder, mental disability, and learning difficulty) of amongst all teacher groups. However, the survey was designed to determine if teachers and head teachers supported teaching one type of disability over another. Additionally, in the interviews, several teachers volunteered the information that the type and severity of disability in a pupil would have an impact on whether they should be included in mainstream classrooms.

Teachers and head teachers may have been generally more optimistic (less pessimistic in terms of the survey) about teaching pupils with physical disabilities, because they did not see themselves having to change their teaching methods significantly if these pupils were included. Teachers and head teachers were generally pessimistic towards teaching pupils with mental disabilities, because they thought that different methods would have to be used in teaching them. These findings matched those reported by Forlin (1995) describing the attitudes of teachers in Western Australia towards teaching pupils with different types of disability. The teachers interviewed thought that teaching pupils with mental or severe disabilities would be a time-intensive activity which would take time away from the other pupils in the classroom and slow down the overall academic progress of the class. In addition, some concern was expressed that pupils with these disabilities could be more disruptive to the actual learning process, as they make movements or display behaviours which could distract their classmates. This sentiment was noted in Fahad's comment: *Including more disabilities would just cause further chaos and instability for teachers and mainstream pupils*. It also echoes the finding of Avramidis et al (2000) that pupils with physical disabilities were much more manageable in a mainstream classroom environment than pupils with emotional and behavioural disabilities were.

The implication of this finding is that initial efforts with inclusion could focus on pupils with physical rather than mental disabilities in order to make the transition easier. Pupils with mental disabilities could then be included later in a second phase of inclusion. When pupils with mental disabilities are to be included, more teacher training and more resources, such as an assistant teacher to help with the pupils with



disabilities, will be required, because the challenge of teaching pupils with mental disabilities is generally perceived to be greater than the challenge of teaching pupils with physical disabilities. Similarly, pupils with mild disabilities could be included in mainstream classrooms first, followed by pupils with more severe disabilities later, when teachers and the whole educational system are more accustomed to managing the challenges of inclusion. Nevertheless of the definition and categorisation of these terms and pupils is challenging – for example, there are pupils who could be categorised into more than one disability group. This will need significant further consideration.

### **8.5 Educational-Environment Related Variables**

The research found that teachers and head teachers identified several factors in the educational environment which would impact on the success of an inclusion programme. One factor in the interviews that has been identified was the broad support for the programme. Teachers and head teachers felt that they first needed the support of special schools teachers, parents and the greater community in order to be able to implement an inclusion programme. For example, Manal commented: *Parents' support of both types of pupil is always necessary for successful inclusion.* Her reason for saying this is that it takes more than teachers' efforts alone to make inclusion effective. Parents of pupils are obviously a key group of stakeholders and if parents of either type of pupil complain about the inclusion process, it will work against the efforts of the teachers and the schools. As noted by one head teacher, if inclusion is imposed before most of the schools and the public support it, then it will fail.

The implication of this finding is that the Ministry of Education and the communities trying to implement inclusion need to develop widespread support for the programme. The support of parents of both mainstream pupils and pupils with disabilities is critical to the success of any inclusion approach. If parents of either group of pupils oppose it, their pupils will pick up on their dissent and disrupt the inclusion process. The Ministry of Education will need to allot time and resources to build broad-based support for an inclusion approach before implementing it.

Another important way of underpinning the success of inclusion is teacher training. Most of the teachers interviewed mentioned the need for additional training to prepare for teaching pupils with disabilities and for teaching in inclusive classes. This picks up Slee's (2001) finding that teacher training acts as a foundation to the successful implementation of inclusion and Snyder's (1999) finding that the lack of training was one of the greatest problems to overcome in implementing inclusion. Additionally, the two which had the lowest agreement scores in the MAS questionnaire were the statements that mainstream teachers had the necessary skills and sufficient training to teach pupils with disabilities, indicating that most teachers who filled out the questionnaire recognized the need for additional training. Most of the teachers completed their university training before special education had become part of the required curriculum. Additionally, even if teachers have had in training special education, teaching in an inclusive classroom is different from special schools teaching. This was noted by Khalood, a mainstream teacher from the Hawalli school district, who stated in the interview: *There must be better training for teachers in teaching pupils with disabilities, especially in regard to teaching them in inclusive classrooms.* Concerns were expressed that, without proper training, not only would

pupil performance be substandard, but teachers would experience stress and frustration.

The research indicated that mainstream teachers and head teachers wanted training in two particular areas. One area was in teaching pupils with disabilities. For instance, Khalood, who had started teaching pupils with disabilities for the first time this year in an inclusive environment, commented: *I sometimes find it frustrating not to have the proper training for teaching pupils with disabilities.* Obviously, teaching pupils with disabilities requires different methods and approaches from those for teaching mainstream pupils, consequently mainstream teachers need greater training on these different methods and approaches. The other area in which teachers sought additional training was in finding the balance between meeting the needs of the pupils with disabilities and the mainstream pupils within the classroom environment. For example, Fahed, a head teacher from the Hawalli School District, commented on this challenge of balancing the different pupils' needs: *I have taught for over five years in classes where pupils with disabilities were included in mainstream classrooms. I found it challenging to keep the right balance between not going at too slow a pace for the mainstream pupils and too fast for the disabled.*

The implication for the Ministry of Education is that a comprehensive teachers training programme needs to be developed and implemented. The programme should give mainstream teachers training in teaching pupils with disabilities, managing the balance between the needs of mainstream pupils and pupils with disabilities and showing them how to best utilize the expertise of special needs teachers in an inclusion-based environment. The training programme cannot be merely a one-off

training event. There must be a plan for ongoing training, since throughout Kuwait's experience with inclusion there is going to be systematic learning about which practices work well in the classroom. The interviewees offered suggestions such as bringing in outside experts on inclusion to give lectures and the use of conferences and workshops for the ongoing training of teachers.

Another finding from the research is that teachers consistently expressed the need for additional resources if inclusion was going to be implemented in Kuwait. These resources take various forms, including improved facilities, different teaching materials, items of educational technology, classroom assistants and special education teachers who could coach and share their expertise with mainstream teachers. The item which scored the highest of the MAS variables in the questionnaire was that mainstream classroom teachers would feel more comfortable teaching pupils with disabilities if special education teachers would provide assistance in the mainstream classroom, which clearly signifies a perceived need for this resource in an inclusion-based system. This need was voiced in several interviewees' comments, such as that of head teacher Nasser, who observed: *We will really need a lot of help from special schools and their teachers. Special school teachers should collaborated with mainstream teachers in adjusting the curriculum to meet the needs of all pupils. They will also need to assist our teachers in the classrooms.* This reflects the finding of Crowther et al (2001) that the support and collaboration of Special Needs Coordinators was essential for the effective implementation of inclusion. Cooke et al (1999) also cited the need for good support and positive attitudes from special education teachers as crucial to the success of inclusion. The value of the contribution from special teachers in an inclusive classroom is based not only on their direct work

with pupils with disabilities, but also in their interaction with the mainstream teacher in providing advice and mentoring. As stated by Zaid, who is teaching in inclusive classrooms in the Hawalli School District, *I usually feel confident teaching both groups of pupils together, since I have access to advice from special teachers*. Special needs teachers can be a great resource for mainstream teachers when they are puzzled or faced with a problem associated with pupils with disabilities.

It would also be helpful if special teachers assist in developing the curriculum for pupils with disabilities, based on each pupil's disability and needs. The statement which had the second-highest agreement score in the MAS questionnaire was that *Mainstream teachers need to be assisted in planning an individual programme for the pupils with disabilities in the mainstream classroom*. This represents an understanding amongst teachers that different teaching methods and different curricula must be chosen according to the pupil's disability. For example, a pupil with a speech disorder may be able to do mainstream mathematics, whereas a pupil who is mentally disabled would need to be given special mathematics instruction. There is also a significant amount of specialization required in special education in order to treat certain disabilities. Obviously, a mainstream teacher will not be able to obtain this level of specialization for speech therapy or many other specializations, so they will need to rely on the expertise of special teachers in compiling appropriate lesson plans for pupils with disabilities.

The importance of a well-designed curriculum for pupils with disabilities is a key factor in a successful inclusion programme. Obviously, if the curriculum is not appropriate to the pupil's disability, she or he will not learn effectively and may

become frustrated, which can also lead to teachers becoming frustrated. This was noted in the interview with Salem, who had extensive experience of teaching pupils with disabilities both in special schools and in inclusive mainstream schools. Salem commented: *I was not satisfied with teaching pupils with disabilities in mainstream schools, as I did not feel that the curriculum allowed me to teach the pupils with disabilities to the best of my abilities. It was not tailored appropriately for them.* The importance of a properly designed curriculum and teaching methods which are appropriate for each pupil's disability corresponds with Allan's (2003) research findings that pedagogy and curriculum are vital aspects of successful inclusion programmes.

The implication of this for the Ministry of Education is that it will have to budget for more resources per school as it plans its inclusion programme. It will need to ensure that each school can afford sufficient special teacher resources to properly develop curricula which meet the needs of the pupils with disabilities and also to support its mainstream teachers in their teaching of the pupils with disabilities. This is another reason why Kuwait should plan inclusion in phases, since it will need to fund additional resources upfront in order for inclusion to be successful. As Kuwait develops more experience with inclusion, it will learn how to use its resources to target for inclusion more efficiently. The Ministry of Education could bring in further specialists and experts to assist and advise mainstream school teachers on their inclusion process.

An additional finding from the research is that teacher status was not a significant variable in the support of inclusion. Furthermore, there was no statistically significant

difference between classroom teachers and head teachers in the mean MAS scores for the teachers' general attitudes towards inclusion. These findings all showed that, at an aggregate level, classroom teachers and head teachers had about the same overall level of support for inclusion.

The implication for the Ministry of Education is that it will need to put forth similar levels of effort to build support for inclusion amongst both groups of teachers. While there may be additional training for head teachers or different features in the training programmes for the two types of teachers, the overall effort to build support for inclusion appears to be needed for teachers. As stated by Dr. Al-Barak, *The Ministry of Education should cooperate with the international experts for training teachers on how to include pupils with disabilities in mainstream classrooms.*

## **8.6 Summary of the findings and discussion**

The quantitative and qualitative data analysis in this study clearly reveal the attitudes towards inclusion of the teachers and head teachers from special and mainstream primary schools who participated. This study shows that teachers and head teachers in mainstream schools expressed more positive attitudes than teachers and head teachers in special schools about including pupils with disabilities in mainstream schools. This finding is distinctly Kuwaiti related to mainstreaming since teachers and head teachers in mainstream schools are more for equity rather than excellence, whereas Lupart (2008) states that generally educators in mainstream schools have the primary goal of excellence in education. Also, in general, male teachers and head teachers were more positive than female teachers and head teachers about including pupils with disabilities in mainstream schools. Yet there was no significant effect of teachers'

status, i.e. no observed difference in attitude toward inclusion between head teachers and classroom teachers.

This study finds that teachers and head teachers in mainstreams and special schools in Kuwait are influenced by ethical and social factors. Both of these factors are instilled by the Islamic culture in Kuwait. The Ethics evokes tolerance and the social factor enhances the rights of pupils with disabilities in the Kuwaiti society. Therefore, teachers and head teachers in mainstream schools are proponents of equity. As a result, inclusion supporters in Kuwait have long pointed to principals within Islam which demand equal educational opportunity for individuals with disabilities. It has also been highlighted by Guvercin (2008) that Islam is giving everyone love, care and respect, also reiterating *equality and equal opportunity* and that *no one is superior to any other human (p.1)*.

Teachers and head teachers with negative attitudes towards inclusion, criticisms were based on the belief that social benefits are not significant enough to justify the placing of academic achievement.

## **8.7 General Conclusion of the study**

This investigation into the attitudes of teachers and head teachers towards inclusion in the state of Kuwait has brought out substantial information and answers to the questions of this research. This investigation enhances the existing body of knowledge regarding inclusion in the State of Kuwait.



It has been maintained that its teachers and head teachers must be prepared for the inclusion approach, and teachers should be trained to take ownership of the moves to include pupils with disabilities into mainstream classrooms. Throughout the studies referred to in this research, as stated earlier, there are factors which range from issues of teacher experience, resources and training to the type and severity of the disability and the classroom context. What can be interpreted from these anxieties and unresolved issues is that the experience of inclusion is very personal and its ultimate success is not a matter of chance but the result of the attitudes of all those involved, pupils, parents and teachers alike. Only by making inclusion an extensible and, multi-layered process, for which teachers and head teachers are adequately prepared, both pre-service and in-service, can the inclusion movement (which has now become established) have any hope of being justified. Teachers and head teachers who are exposed to inclusion early on in their careers are perhaps much less likely to raise barriers to its success. It is equally important for these early experiences to be positive ones and for teachers to feel as though they are being given the necessary resources and support to be successful.

Although this does not ensure success across the board, it is the foundation on which the future must be built. Extensive research has established the view that inclusion is a movement which should dominate all mainstream schools, not least those in the state of Kuwait.

During my interviews with the teachers and head teachers in special and mainstream primary schools, it became obvious to me that they are not fully aware of or prepared for the inclusion approach. Mainstream Schools in Kuwait are segregated on the basis

of gender due to Islamic and cultural factors. I have touched in interviewing with teachers and head teachers that there is an absence of exchanging experiences between male and female teachers and head teachers. This isolation and the lack of feedback results in a slow process for the inclusion approach.

These interviews and the questionnaires which many more answered have provided useful information as to the attitudes of teachers and head teachers towards including pupils with disabilities into mainstream schools, information which should be considered one of the main resources taken into account by the ministry of education before including more pupils with disabilities in mainstream schools. The ministry in Kuwait now have the possibility of examining all that has been accomplished through this study.

It is important that this information is taken into account and regarded when studies and surveys within the country's school system are undertaken. As this is a relatively new and foreign initiative for the country, collaboration with countries experienced in matters of inclusion will be invaluable

The implication of this for the Ministry of Education is that it will have to budget for additional resources per school as it plans its inclusion programme. It will need to guarantee that every school can afford adequate numbers of special teacher resources to properly develop curricula which meet the needs of the pupils with disabilities and also to support its mainstream teachers in their teaching of the pupils with disabilities. This is a further reason why Kuwait should plan inclusion in phases, since it will need to fund more resources upfront in order for inclusion to be successful. As Kuwait develops more experience with inclusion, it will learn how to use its resources to target for inclusion more efficiently.

## 8.8 Recommendations

Based on my own experience through this study, and its findings, I feel there are more efforts that must be undertaken to implement a successful inclusion in the State of Kuwait. This study aimed to gain better understanding of the attitudes of teachers and head teachers toward inclusion. In this section, I synthesize from the findings and literature review of the study to formulate recommendations regarding the implementation of inclusion for the Ministry of Education in the State of Kuwait.

*Public Information and Support:* In order for inclusion to be successful, the Ministry of Education in Kuwait needs to illustrate first, the teachers, head teachers and then the public about the goals and benefits of inclusion. Some teachers and head teachers are currently not knowledgeable in relation to inclusion and need to learn more about why it should be undertaken. With strong support from the Ministry of Education in Kuwait, it will be easier to build support from the public. In building this public support for inclusion, the Ministry can utilize teachers and parents who have had positive experiences with inclusion as advocates in the task. Highlighting the importance of awareness, Aldaihani (2010) refers to the lack of knowledge surrounding inclusion as one of the prime obstacles that face inclusion process. The Ministry should allow enough time to build this support before rushing into implementing the inclusion programme.

*Teacher Training:* Most mainstream teachers and head teachers in Kuwait have had little or no training in teaching pupils with disabilities in an inclusion-based classroom. Even teachers who are currently teaching in special needs schools or have

taught in special needs schools in the past need additional training on ways of providing classroom instruction which would meet the needs of both mainstream pupils and pupils with disabilities. The Ministry of Education needs to develop an initial training programme to provide teachers with training on teaching in an inclusion-based classroom, including training on the different teaching methods to use in an inclusive-based classroom, as opposed to a traditional classroom. According to his experience with the Mubarak Al-Kabeer Inclusion Project, Dr. Al-Jassem emphasized that the project has been tangible evidence of the effectiveness of teachers and head teachers being trained (Interview 11 June 2011). A part of the training should also focus on best practices in using the expertise of special teachers in inclusive classes. The Ministry also needs to develop a programme of ongoing training for teachers and head teachers because once they have some first-hand experience with inclusion, they will benefit from additional training in dealing with the greater challenges that they are about to face. In developing these training programmes, the Ministry should certainly call on outside experts who have had classroom experience with inclusion. This will provide a practical element to the training programme, rather than a purely theoretical approach, for dealing with the biggest classroom issues for teachers.

*Additional Resources:* As a fundamental step for more an inclusive approach in the State of Kuwait, the Ministry of Education must establish an information centre that provides international studies related to inclusion and translate them into Arabic, if required.

The Ministry of Education will also need to budget for and provide additional resources in order for inclusion to be successful. The most important resource is to

provide mainstream classroom teachers with assistance from teachers in special needs schools to help them meet the educational needs of the pupils with disabilities. Mainstream classroom teachers will need the special teachers' expertise in order to help them develop lesson plans which are appropriate for the pupils with disabilities and to work with the pupils with disabilities individually as required. Moreover, the Ministry of Education in the State of Kuwait should seek more support from the international experts in inclusion. Al-Mutairi mentioned that the cooperation with advanced countries in inclusion is necessary to learn from their experiences, such as the United Kingdom.

As mainstream classroom teachers and head teachers gain more experience with inclusion and with teaching pupils with disabilities, there will be less need for the resource of special schools teachers on a one to one basis. Other resources, such as different teaching materials and technology items to support the use of adaptive technologies, will also be required in order to meet the educational needs of pupils with disabilities. Some of these resources can probably be transferred from special needs schools into mainstream schools. Financial resources will have to be made available to fund all of the additional training required for teachers and head teachers, in order for them to successfully teach in an inclusion-based classroom environment. Additionally, financial resources will be needed to fund the development of appropriate curricula for pupils with various disabilities.

*Gradual and Phased Implementation:* There are a number of challenges associated with implementing inclusion in the State of Kuwait. One of which is that teachers and head teachers have not been taught how to teach pupils with disabilities at the University of Kuwait. Thus, the Ministry of Education should follow a gradual and

phased approach towards inclusion. Pupils with mild disabilities and with physical disabilities should be included in mainstream classrooms, before including pupils with more severe disabilities or significant mental disabilities. This will allow mainstream teachers and head teachers in Kuwait to *learn to walk before they have to run* with inclusion. It will allow the mainstream teachers and head teachers in Kuwait to develop some confidence in teaching pupils with disabilities and to find approaches which work well with pupils with mild disabilities before having to take on pupils with more challenging disabilities. In the State of Kuwait, it will also allow the educational system as a whole, to develop and institutionalize some best practices with regard to inclusion, which will allow the overall transition to go more smoothly, as opposed to having to implement everything at once by including all pupils with disabilities in mainstream classrooms. Pilot approaches should be used in every school, to allow each school's administrators and teachers to gain some experience with inclusion before having to implement it on a school-wide basis.

## **8.9 Recommendations for Further Studies**

Researchers must take advantage of this study to rely on what will become the groundwork of inclusion in Kuwait by being open-minded and examining the many facets of this broad issue. The current study has focused on the teachers and head teachers from special and mainstream primary schools in the state of Kuwait. I believe there is a need for more investigation on the following issues to increase knowledge on the subject internationally and particularly in the State of Kuwait:

1. Since this study has covered all the elements of teachers and head teachers in special and mainstream primary schools in the state of Kuwait, an

investigation on pupils with disabilities and their parents toward inclusion are recommended. Pupils with disabilities and their parents are fundamental participants of the inclusion approach.

2. A study should investigate the interaction between pupils with disabilities and their peers at primary classroom environment and its effects on their academic achievement.
3. Further studies should investigate decision makers' attitudes toward inclusion. Such studies may lead to more clarifications and comprehension of the causes that slow the process of inclusion in the State of Kuwait.
4. A similar study should investigate the teachers and Head teachers' experiences and contacts with pupils with disabilities to determine if it affects their attitudes toward inclusion in the State of Kuwait.

## References

- Abu-Hamad, A.(1995) *The Bedoons of Kuwait “Citizens without Citizenship”*. New York: Human Rights Watch.
- Alataar, G. (2005) *The Kuwaiti Association for Handicap*. Kuwait: Publication of the Ministry of Education: Government Press.
- Ali, A (2006) *Makalat wa Abhath an Ijaz Al-Tashrei lil Islam*. Cairo: Al-Ahram Publishing
- Alseed, A. (2003) *Mainstreaming slow learning in Kuwait*. Kuwait: Ministry of Education. Special education Department.
- Ahmeed, S. (2003) ‘Inclusion of people with disabilities’, *My Son*, 4 (56), 32-34.
- Al-Albaan K. and Al-Mosalam R. (2001) *Special Education in Kuwait*. Kuwait: Ministry of Education.
- Al-Albaan K. and Al-Mosalam R. (2003) *Special Education in Kuwait*. Kuwait: Ministry of Education.
- Al- Albaan, K. and Al- Mosalam, R. (2001) *Special Education in Kuwait* (2<sup>nd</sup> ed.). Kuwait: Ministry of Education.
- Al-Albaan K. & Al-Mosalam R. (2001) *Special Education in Kuwait* (3<sup>rd</sup> ed.) Kuwait: Ministry of Education.
- Alexander C. & Strain P.S. (1978) 'A review of educators' attitudes toward handicapped children and the concept of mainstreaming', *Psychology in the Schools*, 15 (4), 390-396.



Alghazo E. (2000) *Jordanian teacher and administrators attitudes towards the inclusion of persons with disabilities in the regular classroom*. Unpublished doctorate dissertation. University of Illinois, Urban-Campaign.

Alghazo E.M., Hamzah, D. & Algaryouti, I.A. (2003) 'Attitudes of pre-service teachers towards persons with disabilities: predictions for the success of inclusion', *College Pupil Journal*, 5 (1), 23-26.

Alghazo, E. & Gaad, E. (2004) 'General education teachers in the United Arab Emirates and their acceptance of the inclusion of pupils with disabilities', *British Journal of Special Education*, 31 (2), 94-99.

Allan J. (2003) 'Policy futures in education', *Education World*, 1 (1), 22-24.

Almusa, A & Ferrell, K. (2004) BLINDNESS IN ISLAM. *CEC Conference* (pp 1-16). New Orleans, Louisiana: University of Northern Colorado

Alnsrawy, M. (2006) *Disability and Including Students with Disabilities in Daily Life*. Tunisia: Helping Disabled People.

Al-Muhareb, K. (2007) Characterizing the current state of education of individual with disabilities in Kuwait: developing a baseline for reflection and action. A dissertation submitted to the Faculty of the Graduate School of the State University of New York at Buffalo in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the degree of Doctor of Philosophy.

Al-Muslat, Z. (1987) *Educators attitudes toward the handicapped in Saudi Arabia*. Unpublished doctoral dissertation. Indiana University.

Antonak RF & Livneh H. (1988) *Measurement of attitudes toward people with disabilities: Methods, psychometrics and scale*. Illinois: Charles C Thomas.

Arafa, M. (2005) *The protection of handicapped rights in GCC*. Kuwait: Ministry of Education.

Armstrong, D. (2005) 'Voice, rituals and transition: what is inclusive education really about?' *Paper presented in International Special Education Congress, Glasgow, August 2005*.

Ary, D., Jacobs, L. & Razavieh, A. (1990) *Introduction to Research in Education*. New York: Holt, Rinehart and Winston.

Attfield, R. & Williams, C. (2003) 'Leadership and inclusion: a special school perspective', *British Journal of Special Education*, 30 (1), 28-33.

Avramidis E. & Norwich B. (2002) 'Teachers' attitudes towards integration/inclusion: a review of the literature', *European Journal of Special Needs Education*, 17 (2), 129-147.

Avramidis, E., Bayliss, P. & Burden, R. (2000) 'A survey into mainstream teachers' attitudes towards the inclusion of children with special educational needs in the ordinary school in one local education authority', *Educational Psychology*, 20 (2), 191-211.

Babbie, E. (1992) *The Practice of Social Research*, (6<sup>th</sup> ed.). California: Wadsworth Publishing.

Babbie, E. (1995) *The Practice of Social Research*, (7<sup>th</sup> ed.). California: Wadsworth Publishing.

Baguwemu, A. A. and Nabirye, A. (2002) 'Teachers' perception of inclusive education in Uganda'. In *African Journal of Special Needs Education*, 7(2), 83-93

Bartlett C.J. et al., (1960) *Measurement of attitudes toward people with disabilities: Methods, psychometrics and scale*. Springfield, IL: Charles C Thomas.

Becker, H.S. (1993) 'How I learned what a crock was', *Journal of Contemporary Ethnography*, 22 (3), 28-35.

Behling, J. B. (2002) *Guidelines for Preparing the Research Proposal*. Lanham, MD: University Press of America.

Bell, J. (1993) *Doing Your Research Project*. Philadelphia: Open University Press.

Bevan, R. (2003) 'Another way on? A search for an alternative path into learning for people with a learning difficulty or disability', *British Journal of Special Education*, 30 (2), 100-106.

Borg, W. & Gall, M. (1983) *Educational Research: An Introduction*. London: Longman Publishing Group.

Bowman I (1986) 'Teacher Training and the Integration of Handicapped Pupils: Some Findings from a Fourteen Nation UNESCO Study', *European Journal of Special Needs Education*, 1, 29-38.

Boxall, M. (2002) *Nurture Groups in Schools: principles and practice*. London: Paul Chapman Publishing.

Bradshaw, K., Tennant, L. & Lydiatt, S. (2004) 'Special Education in the United Arab Emirates: Anxieties, Attitudes and Aspirations', *International Journal of Special Education*, 19 (1), 49-56.

British Educational Research Association (2004) Revised Ethical Guidelines for Educational Research [online] available at: <http://www.bera.ac.uk/guidelines.html>, [accessed 10 October 2008].

Burke, K. & Sutherland, C. (2004) 'Attitudes Toward Inclusion: Knowledge vs. Experience', *Education*, 125, (2), 163-172.

Campbell M.J. & Machin D., (1999) *Medical Statistics: A Commonsense Approach* (3<sup>rd</sup> ed.). Chichester: John Wiley & Sons.

Carrington, S. & Robinson, R. (2004) 'A case study of inclusive school development: a journey of learning', *International Journal of Inclusive Education*, 8 (2), 141-153.

Cate, S. & Profanter, A (2009). REPULSIVE RECOGNITION OF THE LESS ACCEPTED OF THEIR OWN IN SOCIETY: ISSUES SURROUNDING CHILDREN AND YOUTH WITH SPECIAL . *the 3rd Redesigning Pedagogy International Conference* (pp. 1-18). Singapore: Redesigning Pedagogy.

Chireshe, R. & Ndlovu, S. (2002) 'Factors Affecting Teachers' Attitudes Towards the Placement of Slow Learners into Special Classes', *African Journal of Special Needs Education*, 7 (1), 13-20.

Cohen, L and Manion, L (1989) *Research Methods in Education* (3<sup>rd</sup> ed.). London: Routledge Falmer.

Cohen, L., Manion, L. & Morrison, K. (2003) *Research Methods in Education* (5<sup>th</sup> ed.). London: Routledge Falmer.

Cohen, L., Manion, L. & Morrison, K. (2007) *Research Methods in Education* (6<sup>th</sup> ed.). London: Routledge Falmer.

Cook, T.D., & Campbell, D.T. (1979) *Quasi-experimentation design and analysis issues for field settings*. Chicago: Rand McNally College.

Cook, B., Semmel, M. & Gerber, M. (1999) 'Attitudes of head teachers and special education teachers toward the inclusion of pupils with mild disabilities: Critical differences of opinion', *Remedial and Special Education*, 20 (4), 199-209.

Cowen E.L. et al. (1969) *Measurement of attitudes toward people with disabilities: Methods, psychometrics and scale*. Springfield, IL. Charles C Thomas.

Creswell, J; Goodchild, L & Turner, P. (1996) *Integrated qualitative and quantitative research: Epistemology, history and designs*. In Smart, J (ed.) *Higher education: Handbook of theory and research volume X1*. New York: Agathon Press.

Croll, P. & Moses, D. (2000) 'Ideologies and utopias: professionals' views of inclusion', *European Journal of Special Education*, 15 (1), 1-12.

Cromwell S., (2004). 'Inclusion: has it gone too far?' *Education World*; 23: 545-548.

Crowther, D., Dyson, A., & Millward, A. (2001) 'Supporting pupils with special educational needs: issues and dilemmas for special needs coordinators in English primary schools', *European Journal of Special Education*, 16 (2), 85-97.

De Vaus, D. A. (1986) *Surveys in social research*. London: George, Allen & Unwin.

Denzin, N. K. (1978) *The research act: A theoretical introduction to sociological methods*. New York: McGraw-Hill.

Department of Education and Skills (2001) *Inclusive Schooling*. London: DES.

Dickens-Smith, M. (1995) The Effect of Inclusion Training on Teacher Attitude towards Inclusion, *ERIC Document* No. ED 332802.

Dillman, D. A. (2000) *Mail and Internet surveys: The tailored design method* (2<sup>nd</sup> ed.). New York: John Wiley & Sons Inc.

Dockrell, J. & Lindsay, G. (2001) 'Children with Specific Speech and Language Difficulties: The Teachers' Perspective', *Oxford Review of Education*, 27 (3), 369-394.

Dougherty, K. (1996) 'Opportunity to Learn Standards: A sociological critique', *Sociology of Education*, 69 (1), 40-65.

Douglas, G., Corcoran, E., Pavey, S. (2007) 'The role of the WHO ICF as a framework to interpret barriers and to inclusion: visually impaired people's views and experiences of personal computers', *British Journal of Visual Impairment*, 25 (1), 32-50.

Doyle, R. (2004) 'A social development curriculum: applying nurture group principles and practices to support socially and emotionally vulnerable children within mainstream classrooms', *British Journal of Special Education*, 31 (1), 24-30.

Easterby-Smith, M., Thorpe, R. & Lowe, A. (2002) *Management Research: An introduction*. London: Sage Publications..

Edwards A. & Talbot R., (1999) *The Hard-Pressed Researcher: a researcher handbook for caring professions* (2<sup>nd</sup> ed.). London: Longman.

Farrell, M. (2000) 'Educational inclusion and raising standards', *British Journal of Special Education*. 27 (1), 35-38.

Fitch F (2003) 'Inclusion, exclusion and ideology: special education students' changing sense of self', *The Urban Review*, 20 (3), 233-252.

Forlin, C. (1995) 'Educators' beliefs about inclusive practices in Western Australia', *British Journal of Special Education*, 22 (3) 179-185.

Forlin, C., Cole, P. (1993) 'Attributions of social acceptance and integration of pupils with a mild intellectual disability', *Australia and New Zealand Journal of Developmental Disability*, 19 (1), 11-23.

Freitag, U., Fuhrman, M., Lafi, N., & Riedler, F. (2011) *The City in the Ottoman Empire*. New York: Routledge.

Gaad, E. (2001) 'Education children with Down's syndrome in the United Arab Emirates', *British Journal of Special Education*, 28 (4), 195-203.

Gaad, E, Arif, M., and Scott, F. (2006) 'Systems Analysis of UAE Education System,' *International Journal of Educational Management* 20 (4), 291-303

Gay, L.R. (1996) *Educational Research: Competencies for Analysis and Application* (5<sup>th</sup> ed.). New Jersey: Prentice-Hall.

Giannola, D. & Kamens, M. (2006) 'Inclusion at a University: Experiences of a Young Woman With Down Syndrome', *Mental Retardation* , 44 (5), 344-352.

Gorard S. (2001) *Quantitative methods in educational research: the role of numbers made easy*. London: Continuum.

Gow, L. (1988) 'Integration in Australia', *European Journal of Special Needs Education*, 3 (1), 1-12.

Guba, E. & Lincoln, Y. (1981) *Effective Evaluation*. San Francisco, California: Jossey-Bass.

Guvercin, K. (2008). *Hoquoq Al -Muaqeen fi Al-Islam* . Istanbul : Islamic Publication.

Hair, J. F. Jr., Bush, R. P., & Ortinau, D. J. (2000) *Marketing research: A practical approach for the new millennium*. Boston: McGraw Hill Co.

Hammersley, M. (1992) *What's wrong with ethnography?*. London: Routledge.

Hammersley, M. (1996). *Reviewing Sociology*. London: Routledge.

Hanko, G. (2003) 'Toward an inclusive school culture – but what happened to Elton's 'affective curriculum?', *British Journal of Special Education*, 30 (3), 125-130.

Hedeen, D. & Ayres, B. (2002) 'You want me to teach him to read? Fulfilling the intent of IDEA', *Journal of Disability Policy Studies*, 13 (3), 180-189.

Henerson, E, Lyons Morris, L, & Fitz-Gibbon, C. (1978) *How to Measure attitudes*. California, USA: Sage.

Henderson M.E. (1981) *How to Measure Attitudes*. California: Sage.

Hill, F. et al. (2003) 'The Use of Qualitative and Quantitative Methodologies in a Special Educational Needs Study', *International Journal of Special Education*, 18 (1) 62-71.

Holme, I.M & Solvang, B.K. (1997) *Research Methodology – on Qualitative and Quantitative Methods* (2<sup>nd</sup> Edition). Student literature. Lund.

Human Rights Watch, *Walls at Every Turn, Abuse of Migrant Domestic Workers through Kuwait's* , 6 October 2010, ISBN: 1-56432-693-4, available at: <http://www.unhcr.org/refworld/docid/4cad60742.html> [accessed 24 May 2012]

Joint Council for General Qualifications (2002) *GCE, VCE, GSCE and GVNQ: regulations and guidance relating to candidates with particular requirements*. Cambridge: The joint Council for General Qualifications.

Jones, M., Thorn, C., Chow, P., Thompson, I. & Wilde, C. (2002) 'Equifinality: Parents' and pupils' attitudes towards pupil-centered approach to integration', *Education*, 122 (3), 624-635.

Jordan, A., Lindsay, L. & Stanovich, P.J. (1997) 'Classroom teachers' instructional interactions with pupils who are exceptional, at risk and typically achieving', *Remedial and Special Education*, 18 (2) 82-93.



Kartzman, K. (2012) *Kuwait: Security, Reform, and U.S. Policy*. Congressional Research Service.

Kleck, A., William R. (1980) *Discriminate analysis. Quantitative Applications in the Social Sciences Series*: Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage Publications.

Krosnick, J.A. et al (2002) 'The impact of 'no opinion' response options on data quality: non attitude-reduction an invitation to satisfies?', *Public opinion quarterly*, 66, (3) 371-403.

Lampropoulou, V. & Padelliadu, S. (1997) 'Teachers of the deaf as compared with other groups of teachers: Attitudes toward people with disabilities and inclusion', *American Annals of the Deaf*, 142 (1), 26-33.

Lester, James D. (1984) *Writing Research Papers: A Complete Guide* (4<sup>th</sup> ed). Glenview: Scott, Foresman & Co.

Lewis, A. & Lewis, V. (1988) 'Young children 's' attitudes, after a period of integration, towards peers with severe learning difficulties', *European Journal of Special Needs Education*, 3 (3), 161-171.

Light, R., Singer, J.D. & Willet, J.B. (1990) *By Design: Planning Research on Higher Education*. Cambridge: Harvard University Press.

Lin, N. (1976) *Foundation of Social Research*. New York: McGraw-Hill.

Lindsay, G. (2003) 'Inclusive education: a critical perspective', *British Journal of Special Education*, 30 (1), 3-12.

Lloyd-Jones, G. (2003) 'Design and control issues in qualitative case study research', *International Journal of Qualitative Methods*; 2 (2), Article 4.

Lupart, J. L. (2008, February 18). Achieving Excellence and Equity in Canadian Schools: Can Inclusion Bridge the Gap? pp. 1-14.

Male, D. (2000) 'Target setting in schools for children with learning difficulties: Head teachers' perceptions', *British Journal of Special Education*, 27 (1), 15-21.

Malek, B. (1999). *Basic Concepts in Foundation of Education*. Kuwait, Al-Falah Press.

Mertens, D. (1998) *Research methods in education and psychology: integrating diversity with quantitative and qualitative approaches*. Thousand Oaks: CA, Sage.

Michael, C. (2007) *The History of Kuwait*. Westport: Greenwood Publishing Group.

Miller, C., Lacey, P., & Layton, L. (2003) 'Including children with special educational needs in the Literacy Hour: a continuing challenge', *British Journal of Special Education*, 30 (1), 34-38.

Ministry of Education (1962) *Department of special education*. Kuwait: The Government Press

Ministry of Education (1966) *Special schools* (7<sup>th</sup> ed.). Kuwait: The Government Press.

Ministry of Education (1971) *Special schools* (10<sup>th</sup> ed.). Kuwait: The Government Press.

Ministry of Education (1972) *Special schools* (11<sup>th</sup> ed.). Kuwait: The Government Press.

Ministry of Education (1982) *Department of special education*. Kuwait: The Government Press.

Ministry of Education (1990) *The administration of special schools*. Kuwait: Government Press.

Ministry of Education. (1994) *Quantitative Development of the Public Education in the State of Kuwait from the Beginning of Education Until the Academic Year 1993-1994*. Kuwait: Government Press.

Ministry of Education (1998) *General Statistical of Education in Kuwait*. Kuwait: Ministry of Education Press.

Ministry of Education (2000) *The National Report about the Development of Education in the State of Kuwait*. Kuwait: Government Press.

Ministry of Education (2002) *Departments of special school guidebook for the school year*. Kuwait: Government Press.

Ministry of Education (2002) *The administration of special schools*. Kuwait: Government Press.

Ministry of Education (2004) *The National Report about the Development of Education in the State of Kuwait*. Kuwait: Government Press.

Ministry of Education (2005) *Special Education rules*. Kuwait: Government Press.

Ministry of Education (2006) *Education Indicators in the State of Kuwait*. Kuwait: Government Press.

Ministry of Education, (2006) *Facts and Numbers: The administration and special schools*. Kuwait: Government Press.

Ministry of Education. (2010) *The National Report about the Development of Education in the State of Kuwait*. Kuwait: Government Press.

Ministry of Education (2011) *Education Indicators in the State of Kuwait*. Kuwait: Government Press.

Ministry of Labour (2011) *Expatriates in Kuwait*. Kuwait: Government Press.

Ministry of Planning (2000) *Annual Statistical Group of the Ministry of Planning*. Kuwait: Government Press.

Ministry of Planning (2005) *Annual Statistical Group of the Ministry of Planning*. Kuwait: Government Press.

Ministry of Planning (2008) *Annual Statistical Group of the Ministry of Planning*. Kuwait: Government Press.

Ministry of Social Affairs (2001) *Annual Report of the Social Information*. Kuwait: Government Press.

Moser, C.A. (1967) *Survey Methods in Social Investigation*. London, U.K: Heinemann Educational Books Ltd.

Mouly, G.J. (1978) *Educational Research: the Art and Science of Investigation*. Boston: Allyn & Bacon.

Nashif, H. (1985) *Pre-School Education In the Arab World*. Beckenham, Kent: Routledge.

Newell, R. (1993) *Researching Social Life in Questionnaires in Gilbert N (ed)*. London, Sage Publications.

Norwich, B. (2002) 'Education, inclusion and individual differences: Recognising and resolving dilemmas', *British Journal of Educational Studies* 50(4), 482-502.

Oppenheim, A.N. (1996) *Questionnaire design and attitude measurement*. London: Heinemann.

Papadopoulou, D., Kokaridas, D., Papanikolaou, Z., & Patsiaouras, A. (2004) 'Attitudes of Greek physical education teachers toward inclusion of students with disabilities', *International Journal of Special Education* 19 (2), 106-111.

Parasuram, K. (2006) 'Variables that affect teachers' attitudes towards disability and inclusive education in Mumbai, India', *Disability and Society*, 21 (3), 231-242.

Patton, M. (1990) 'Qualitative Evaluation and Research Methods', *International Journal of Special Education*, 19 (3) 104-110.

Patton, M. Q. (1987) *How to use qualitative methods in evaluation*. Newbury Park, CA: Sage.

Phillips, D. (1980) *Do It Yourself Social Survey*. London, U.K: Polytechnic of North London Press.

Praisner, C. (2003) 'Attitudes of elementary head teachers toward the inclusion of pupils with disabilities', *Exceptional Children*, 69 (2), 135-145.

Pring, R. (2000) *Philosophy of Educational Research*. London: Canonbury.

Reichardt, C., & Rallis, S. (1994) *The relationship between the qualitative and quantitative research traditions: In C.S. Reichardt (Ed), The Qualitative-Quantitative Debate: New Perspectives*. San Francisco, CA: Jossey Bass Publisher.

Robson, C. (2002) *Real World Research* (2<sup>nd</sup> ed.). Blackwell Publishing.

Salomon, G. (1991) 'Transcending the qualitative-quantitative debate: The analytic and systemic approaches to educational research', *Educational Researcher*, 21 (5), 10-17.

Saunders, M., Lewis, P., & Thornhill, A. (2003) *Research Methods For Business Pupils* (3<sup>rd</sup> ed.). Harlow: Pearson Education Limited.

Shade, R. & Stewart, R. (2001) 'General education and special education preservice teachers' attitudes toward inclusion', *Preventing School Failure*, 46 (1), 37-41.

Shanker, A. (1996) 'Full inclusion is neither free nor appropriate', *Educational Leadership*, 52 (4), 18-21.

Shevlin, M. & O'Moore, A. (2000) 'Creating opportunities for contact between mainstream pupils and their counterparts with learning difficulties', *British Journal of Special Education*, 27 (1), 29-34.

Shevlin, M. (2003) 'Preparing for contact between mainstream pupils and their counterparts who have severe and profound and multiple learning difficulties', *British Journal of Special Education*, 30 (2), 93-99.

Shumba, O. (2003) 'Positing an Inclusionary Paradigm for Teacher Education with Reference to Science Education and Special Needs Children ', *African Journal of Special Needs Education*, 7 (2), 115-125.

Slavin, R.E. (1992) *Research Methods in Education* (2<sup>nd</sup> ed.). Massachusetts: Allyn and Bacon. Inc.

Slee, R. (2001) 'Inclusion in Practice: does practice make perfect?', *Educational Review*, 53 (2), 112-123.

Smith, R. (2007) *International Human Rights* (3<sup>rd</sup> ed.) New York: Oxford University Press.

Snyder, R.F. (1999) 'Inclusion: A Qualitative study of in-service general education teachers' attitudes and concerns', *Education*, 120 (1), 173-180+.

Special schools (1998) *Facts and Numbers. The administration of special schools*. Kuwait: Government Press.

Spooncer F. (1992) *Behavioural Studies for Marketing and Business*. Leckampton: Stanley Thornes.

Strahle, R. (1981). *Planning of School Building*. UNESCO

Stanovich, P. & Jordan, A. (1998) 'Canadian Teachers' and Head teachers' Beliefs about Inclusive Education as Predictors of Effective Teaching in the Heterogeneous Classroom', *The Elementary School Journal*, 98 (3), 221-238.

Tall, G. (1994) *Introduction, Philosophy and Research*. Birmingham University

Timmons, V. & Alur, M. (2004) 'Transformational learning: A description of how inclusionary practice was accepted in India', *International Journal of Special Education*, 19, (1), 38-48.

Thomas, G., Walker, D., & Webb, J. (1998) *The making of the inclusive school*. London: Routledge.

Thomas, G. & Glenny, G. (2002) 'Thinking about inclusion, Whose reason? What evidence?', *International Journal of Inclusive Education*, 6 (4), pp. 345-369.

Trochim, W. (2000) *The Research Methods Knowledge Base*. (2<sup>nd</sup> ed.). Cincinnati, OH: Atomic Dog Publishing.

UNCHR. (2012) 'Guidlens on the Statelessness'

UNESCO. (1994) 'The Salamanca Statement and Framework for Action on Special Needs Education.'

UNESCO. (2010/11) 'World Data on Education in Kuwait.'

Voeltz, L.M., & Brennan, J.M. (1984) Analysis of interactions between none handicapped and severely handicapped peers using multiple measures. In J.M.

Wall, R. (2002) 'Teachers' exposure to people with visual impairments and the effect on attitudes toward inclusion', *RE:view*, 34 (3), 111-119.

Ward, J., Center, Y., and Bochner, S. (1994). 'A question of attitudes: integrating children with disabilities into regular classrooms?', *British Journal of Special Education*, 21, 34-39.

Walter R.B. & Meredith D.G. (1989) *Educational Research: An Introduction* (5<sup>th</sup> ed.) New York: Longman.

Wellington, J. (2000) *Educational Research: Contemporary issues in Practical Approaches*. London: Continuum.

Williams, M., & Gersch, I.S. (2004) 'Teaching in mainstream and special schools: are stresses similar or different?', *British Journal of Special Education*, 31(3), 157-162.

Wilson, J. (2000) 'Doing Justice to Inclusion', *European Journal of Special Needs Education*, 15 (3), 297-304.

Woods, K. (2004) 'Deciding to provide a 'reader' in examinations for the General Certificate of Secondary Education (GCSE): questions about validity and 'inclusion'', *British Journal of Special Education*, 31 (3), 122-127.

Yucker, H.E., & Block, J.R. (1960-1985). *Research with the attitudes towards disabled person scales*. (pp.14) (ERIC Document Reproduction Service No. ED 278195).

Zahrani, A. (1998). *Hoquok Muakeen fi Al-Tarbiya Islamia*. Alriyadh : Dar Bukhara for Puplishing .





## APPENDIX (A) – Demographic Questionnaire

Dear Participant,

You have been chosen from the teacher and head teacher population list at the Ministry of Education to respond to the enclosed questionnaires.

The data gathered through these questionnaires will be used in a study of the inclusion of pupils with disabilities in mainstream schools, as part of my doctoral thesis at the University of Birmingham in the United Kingdom. All data will be treated confidentially. The names of participants or schools will not be used in the completed study.

I appreciate your cooperation and your participation in this study.

Informed Consent

Investigator: Mishal Almotairi

University of Birmingham

College of Education

Birmingham, The United Kingdom

[M.aljnoobi@gmail.com](mailto:M.aljnoobi@gmail.com)

*Description:* The present study will research Kuwaiti teacher and head teacher attitudes, both male and female, toward pupils with disabilities and toward their presence in mainstream education schools and classrooms.

*Risks and Benefits:* The benefit of this study is better knowledge of the attitudes of Kuwaiti teachers and head teachers towards pupils with disabilities. There are no anticipated risks involved with participation.

*Voluntary Participation:* Your participation in the research is completely voluntary. There will be no payment or credits for participating.

*Confidentiality:* You will be assigned a code number, which will be used to identify your responses. All information will be recorded anonymously.

*Right to Withdraw:* You are free to refuse to participate in this research and to withdraw at any time without penalty.

*Informal Consent:* I \_\_\_\_\_ have read the researcher's description, including the purpose of this study, the procedures to be used and my option to withdraw at any time. I understand the purpose of the study and answered all the questions. My signature below indicates that I agree to participate in this study; and I will receive copies of this agreement and the results of the study from the researcher.

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

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

## Demographic Questionnaire

1. Please indicate your age

\_\_\_\_\_ years old

2. Gender:

\_\_\_\_\_ Male \_\_\_\_\_ Female

3. School district

1. Al-Asema

2. Al-Jahra

3. Hawalli

4. Mubarak Al-Kabeer

5. Al-Farwaniya

6. Al-Ahmadi

4. Are you a

1. Mainstream education teacher

2. Mainstream education head teacher

3. Special school teacher

4. Special school head teacher

5. If you are a special school teacher or head teacher,  
which type of disability does your school serve? (Please  
circle all that applies)

1. Emotional and behavioural disorder

2. Physical disability
3. Mental disability
4. Learning Difficulty

6. Please indicate the grade level you are currently in charge of (circle all that apply)

1. First grade
2. Second grade
3. Third grade
4. Fourth grade
5. Fifth grade

7. Please indicate your highest educational qualification

1. Diploma
2. Bachelor's degree
3. Master's degree
4. Other

8. What kind of professional experience have you had with persons with disabilities  
(Circle all that apply)

1. No information or contact
2. I have read or studied about them through reading, lectures, or observation
3. A friend or relative is disabled
4. I have worked with pupils with disabilities as a teacher, counsellor or volunteer.
5. I have a fairly serious disability.

9. How much contact do you normally have with physically pupils with disabilities?

1. At least once a day
2. At least once a week
3. At least once a month
4. Several times a year
5. No contact

**10.** How have you felt about your experience with physically pupils with disabilities?

1. I definitely enjoyed it
2. I definitely disliked it
3. I did not like it very much
4. I liked it somewhat
5. No experience

**11.** How much contact do you normally have with pupils with emotional and behavioural disorders?

1. At least once a day
2. At least once a week
3. At least once a month
4. Several times a year
5. No contact

**12.** How have you felt about your experience with the pupils with emotional and behavioural disorders?

1. I definitely enjoyed it
2. I definitely disliked it
3. I did not like it very much
4. I liked it somewhat

5. No experience

**13.** How much contact do you normally have with mentally pupils with disabilities?

1. At least once a day
2. At least once a week
3. At least once a month
4. Several times a year
5. No contact

**14.** How have you felt about your experience with mentally disabled pupils?

1. I definitely enjoyed it
2. I definitely disliked it
3. I did not like it very much
4. I liked it somewhat
5. No experience

**15.** How much contact do you normally have with learning-difficulty pupils?

1. At least once a day
2. At least once a week
3. At least once a month
4. Several times a year
5. No contact

**16.** How have you felt about your experience with the learning-difficulty?

1. I definitely enjoyed it
2. I definitely disliked it
3. I did not like it very much
4. I liked it somewhat
5. No experience



**العنوان :** رأي المدرسين والنظار في المدارس الحكومية و الخاصة عن دمج التلاميذ ذوي الإعاقات مع التلاميذ الأسوياء في المدارس العادية.

**الباحث :** مشعل المطيري : كلية التربية

**المخاطر والمزايا :** مميزات هذه الدراسة هو معرفة موقف المدرسين والنظار الكويتيين نحو التلاميذ ذوي الإعاقة .ليس هناك مخاطر متوقعة فيما يخص هذه المشاركة .

**المشاركة التطوعية :** إن مشاركتك في هذا البحث هي مشاركة تطوعية ولا يكون هناك أي ثمن او اجر للمشاركة.

**السرية التامة :** سوف يتم تحديدك برقم كودي يستخدم للتعرف علي الإجابات . إن كل المعلومات سوف يتم تسجيلها بطريق سرية .

**الحق في الانسحاب :** لديك الحرية في المشاركة في البحث والانسحاب منه في أي وقت ترغب فيه دون تطبيق العقاب عليك .

أنا صاحب الاستبيان \_\_\_\_\_ أنني قد قرأت ما هو موجود شاملا غرض الدراسة المستخدم . ووجهة نظري هو أن انسحب في أي وقت . إن الباحث قد شرح الدراسة وقام بالإجابة علي كل أسئلتي إن توقيعي أدناه يدل علي إنني أوافق علي المشاركة في هذه الدراسة , وأنني سوف استلم نسخ من هذه الدراسة ونتائج الدراسة من الباحث إذا أردت.

أسئلة ديموغرافية

1- الرجاء توضيح عمرك \_\_\_\_\_ سنة

2- النوع : \_\_\_\_\_ أنثى \_\_\_\_\_ ذكر

( الرجاء ضع دائر علي ما تراه ينطبق )

3- المنطقة التعليمية

1- العاصمة

2- الجبراء

3- حولى

4- مبارك الكبير

5 - الفروانيه

6- الاحمدى

4 - هل أنت ؟

1- مدرس تعليم حكومي

2 - مدير في التعليم الحكومي

3 - مدرس تعليم خاص

4 - مدير في التعليم الخاص

5- لو أنت مدرس تعليم خاص أو مدير فما نوع الإعاقة التي تخدمها مدرستك ؟

- 1- اضطرابات سلوكيه
- 2- الإعاقة الجسدية
- 3- المتخلفين عقليا
- 4- صعوبات التعلم

6- الرجاء توضيح المرحلة التي انت مسئول عنها

- 1- الصف الأول
- 2- الصف الثاني
- 3- الصف الثالث
- 4- الصف الرابع
- 5- الصف الخامس

7- الرجاء بيان اعلي مستوى تعليمي لك ؟

- 1- خريج معهد المعلمين
- 2- خريج كليه التربية جامعة الكويت
- 3- خريج كلية التربية الأساسية
- 4- أخرى

8- ما هو نوع الخبرة المهنية التي اكتسبتها فيما يتعلق بالأشخاص ذوي الإعاقة ؟

- 1- ليس لدي خبرة او اتصال
- 2- قرأت او درست عنها من خلال القراءة
- 3- لدي صديق او قريب معاق
- 4- إنني شخصيا عملت مع تلاميذ ذوي إعاقة كمدرس , كمستشار , كمتطوع
- 5- لدي أعاقه

9- كم من الاتصالات عادة تجريها مع التلاميذ ذوي الإعاقة الجسدية ؟

- 1- على الأقل مرة واحد في اليوم
- 2- على الأقل مرة واحد في الأسبوع
- 3- على الأقل مرة واحدة في الشهر

4- مرات عديدة في السنة

5- - لا يوجد اتصال

10- كيف كانت خبرتك مع المعاقين جسديا ؟

1- قطعاً استمتعت بها

2- انني قطعاً لا أحبها

3- انني لا أحبها كثيراً

4- أحبها قليلاً

5- ليس لدي خبرة

11- كم من الاتصالات أجريتها مع الطلبة ذوي الاضطرابات سلوكيه إن وجد ؟

1- على الأقل مرة واحد في اليوم

2- على الأقل مرة واحد في الأسبوع

3- على الأقل مرة واحدة في الشهر

4- مرات عديدة في السنة

5- - لا يوجد اتصال

12 - كيف شعرت بخبرتك مع الطلبة ذوي الاضطرابات سلوكيه إن وجد ؟

1- قطعاً استمتعت بها

2- إنني قطعاً لا أحبها

3- إنني لا أحبها كثيراً

4- أحبها قليلاً

5- ليس لدي خبرة

13- كم من الاتصالات عادة أجريتها مع المتخلفين عقليا ؟

1- على الأقل مرة واحد في اليوم

2- على الأقل مرة واحد في الأسبوع

3- على الأقل مرة واحدة في الشهر

4- مرات عديدة في السنة

5- لا يوجد اتصال

**14 - كيف شعرت بخبرتك مع ذوي الإعاقة العقلية ؟**

- 1- قطعاً استمتعت بها
- 2- إنني قطعاً لا أحبها
- 3- إنني لا أحبها كثيراً
- 4- أحبها قليلاً
- 5- ليس لدي خبرة

**15 - كم من الاتصالات عادة تجريها مع التلاميذ الذين لديهم صعوبات التعلم**

- 1- على الأقل مرة واحد في اليوم
- 2- على الأقل مرة واحد في الأسبوع
- 3- على الأقل مرة واحدة في الشهر
- 4- مرات عديدة في السنة
- 5- لا يوجد اتصال

**16 - كيف شعرت بخبرتك مع التلاميذ الذين لديهم صعوبات التعلم**

- 1- قطعاً استمتعت بها
- 2- إنني قطعاً لا أحبها
- 3- إنني لا أحبها كثيراً
- 4- أحبها قليلاً
- 5- ليس لدي خبرة

## **APPENDIX (B) – MAS Questionnaire**

-

### **Mainstreaming Attitude Scale (MAS)**

**1.** Pupils with physical disabilities should have the right to be in a mainstream classroom.

1. Strongly agree
2. Agree
3. Uncertain
4. Disagree
5. Strongly disagree

**2.** Pupils with physical disabilities should be in the mainstream classroom.

1. Strongly agree
2. Agree
3. Uncertain
4. Disagree
5. Strongly disagree

**3.** It is feasible to teach pupils with physical disabilities along with normal pupils in the same classroom.

1. Strongly agree
2. Agree
3. Uncertain
4. Disagree
5. Strongly disagree

**4.** In general, mainstreaming pupils with physical disabilities would be a

desirable education practice.

1. Strongly agree
2. Agree
3. Uncertain
4. Disagree
5. Strongly disagree

**5.** Pupils with physical disabilities would be happier in mainstream classrooms.

1. Strongly agree
2. Agree
3. Uncertain
4. Disagree
5. Strongly disagree

**6.** Pupils with physical disability will learn how to cope with the real world better if they are in a mainstream school setting.

1. Strongly agree
2. Agree
3. Uncertain
4. Disagree
5. Strongly disagree

**7.** Pupils with emotional and behavioural disorders should have the right to be in a mainstream classroom.

1. Strongly agree
2. Agree
3. Uncertain

4. Disagree
5. Strongly disagree

**8.** Pupils with emotional and behavioural disorders should be in a mainstream classroom.

1. Strongly agree
2. Agree
3. Uncertain
4. Disagree
5. Strongly disagree

**9.** It is feasible to teach pupils with emotional and behavioural disorders alongside normal pupils in the same classroom.

1. Strongly agree
2. Agree
3. Uncertain
4. Disagree
5. Strongly disagree

**10.** In general, mainstreaming pupils with emotional and behavioural disorders would be a desirable education practice.

1. Strongly agree
2. Agree
3. Uncertain
4. Disagree
5. Strongly disagree

**11.** Pupils with emotional and behavioural disorders would be happier in a mainstream classroom.



1. Strongly agree
2. Agree
3. Uncertain
4. Disagree
5. Strongly disagree

**12.** Pupils with emotional and behavioural disorders will learn how to cope with the real world better if they are in a mainstream school setting.

1. Strongly agree
2. Agree
3. Uncertain
4. Disagree
5. Strongly disagree

**13.** Mentally pupils with disabilities should have the right to be in a mainstream classroom.

1. Strongly agree
2. Agree
3. Uncertain
4. Disagree
5. Strongly disagree

**14.** Mentally pupils with disabilities should be in the mainstream classroom.

1. Strongly agree
2. Agree
3. Uncertain
4. Disagree

5. Strongly disagree

**15.** It is feasible to teach mentally pupils with disabilities alongside normal pupils in the same classroom.

1. Strongly agree

2. Agree

3. Uncertain

4. Disagree

5. Strongly disagree

**16.** In general, mainstreaming mentally pupils with disabilities would be a desirable practice.

1. Strongly agree

2. Agree

3. Uncertain

4. Disagree

5. Strongly disagree

**17.** Mentally pupils with disabilities would be happier in a mainstream classroom.

1. Strongly agree

2. Agree

3. Uncertain

4. Disagree

5. Strongly disagree

**18.** Mentally pupils with disabilities will learn how to cope with the real world better if they are in a mainstream school setting.

1. Strongly agree
2. Agree
3. Uncertain
4. Disagree
5. Strongly disagree

**19.** Pupils with learning difficulties should have the right to be in a mainstream classroom.

1. Strongly agree
2. Agree
3. Uncertain
4. Disagree
5. Strongly disagree

**20.** Pupils with learning difficulties should be in the mainstream classroom.

1. Strongly agree
2. Agree
3. Uncertain
4. Disagree
5. Strongly disagree

**21.** It is feasible to teach pupils with learning difficulties along with normal pupils in the same classroom.

1. Strongly agree
2. Agree
3. Uncertain
4. Disagree

5. Strongly disagree

**22.** In general, mainstreaming learning pupils with disabilities would be a desirable educational practice.

1. Strongly agree
2. Agree
3. Uncertain
4. Disagree
5. Strongly disagree

**23.** Pupils with learning difficulties would be happier in mainstream classrooms.

1. Strongly agree
2. Agree
3. Uncertain
4. Disagree
5. Strongly disagree

**24.** Pupils with learning difficulties will learn how to cope with the real world better if they are in a mainstream school setting.

1. Strongly agree
2. Agree
3. Uncertain
4. Disagree
5. Strongly disagree

**25.** Mainstream classroom teachers have the necessary skills to teach pupils with disabilities.

1. Strongly agree
2. Agree
3. Uncertain
4. Disagree
5. Strongly disagree

**26.** Mainstream classroom teachers have sufficient training and experience to teach pupils with disabilities.

1. Strongly agree
2. Agree
3. Uncertain
4. Disagree
5. Strongly disagree

**27.** Educating pupils with disabilities in the mainstream classroom will necessitate extensive training of mainstream teachers.

1. Strongly agree
2. Agree
3. Uncertain
4. Disagree
5. Strongly disagree

**28.** Mainstream classroom teachers need training in selecting and developing materials and activities appropriate for pupils with disabilities if they are to teach them in their classroom.

1. Strongly agree

2. Agree
3. Uncertain
4. Disagree
5. Strongly disagree

**29.** Mainstream classroom teachers need training in identifying pupils with disabilities who need special education services.

1. Strongly agree
2. Agree
3. Uncertain
4. Disagree
5. Strongly disagree

**30.** Mainstream classroom teachers would feel more comfortable teaching pupils with disabilities if special school teachers would assist in providing services in the mainstream classroom.

1. Strongly agree
2. Agree
3. Uncertain
4. Disagree
5. Strongly disagree

**31.** Mainstream classroom teachers need to be assisted in planning an individual programme for the disabled pupil in the mainstream classroom.

1. Strongly agree
2. Agree
3. Uncertain
4. Disagree

5. Strongly disagree

**32.** Mainstream classroom teachers need to be provided with special materials designed to meet the educational need of pupils with disabilities if they are to teach them in their classrooms.

1. Strongly agree

2. Agree

3. Uncertain

4. Disagree

5. Strongly disagree

## معادلة الرأي السائد

.

1- يجب على التلاميذ ذوي الإعاقة الجسدية أن يكون لهم الحق أن يتعلموا في فصل عادي؟

1- أوافق بشده

2- أوافق

3- غير متأكد

لاوافق

5- لاوافق بشده

2- يجب أن يكون التلاميذ ذوي الإعاقة الجسدية في فصول عادية ؟

1- أوافق بشده

2- أوافق

3- غير متأكد

4- لاوافق

5- لاوافق بشده

3- من الممكن تعليم التلاميذ ذوي الإعاقة الجسدية مع التلاميذ الأسوياء ؟

1- أوافق بشده

2- أوافق

3- غير متأكد

4- لاوافق

5- لاوافق بشده



4- بوجه عام الاتجاه نحو التلاميذ ذوي الإعاقة الجسدية سيكون تعليم يستحق الممارسة ؟

1- أوافق بشده

2- أوافق

3- غير متأكد

4- لاوافق

5- لاوافق بشده

5- سيشعر التلاميذ ذوي الإعاقة الجسدية بسعادة اكبر إن كانوا في فصول الأسوياء ؟

1- أوافق بشده

2- أوافق

3- غير متأكد

4- لاوافق

5- لاوافق بشده

6 - سوف يتعلم التلاميذ ذوي الإعاقة الجسدية ان يتكيفوا مع العالم الواقعي بطريقة أفضل إن كانوا في مدارس لتعليم التلاميذ الأسوياء ؟

1- أوافق بشده

2- أوافق

3- غير متأكد

4- لاوافق

5- لاوافق بشده

7- التلاميذ ذوي اضطرابات سلوكيه يجب أن يحق لهم أن يكونوا في فصول التلاميذ الأسوياء ؟

1- أوافق بشده

- 2- أوافق
- 3- غير متأكد
- 4- لاوافق
- 5- لاوافق بشده

8- التلاميذ ذوى اضطرابات سلوكيه يجب ان يكونوا فى فصول التلاميذ الأسوياء ؟

- 1- أوافق بشده
- 2- أوافق
- 3- غير متأكد
- 4- لاوافق
- 5- لاوافق بشده

9- من المناسب تعليم التلاميذ ذوى اضطرابات سلوكيه مع التلاميذ الأسوياء في نفس الفصل ؟

- 1- أوافق بشده
- 2- أوافق
- 3- غير متأكد
- 4- لاوافق
- 5- لاوافق بشده

10- بوجه عام الاتجاه السائد تعليم التلاميذ ذوى اضطرابات سلوكيه سوف يكون تعليم يستحق التدريب

للمدرسين؟

- 1- أوافق بشده
- 2- أوافق
- 3- غير متأكد
- 4- لاوافق
- 5- لاوافق بشده

11 - سوف يشعر التلاميذ ذوى اضطرابات سلوكيه بسعادة اكبر في فصول التلاميذ الأسوياء ؟

- 1- أوافق بشده
- 2- أوافق
- 3- غير متأكد
- 4- لاوافق
- 5- لاوافق بشده

12- سوف يتعلم التلاميذ ذوى اضطرابات سلوكيه كيف يتكيفوا العالم الواقعي بطريقة أفضل ان كانوا في مدرسة التلاميذ الأسوياء ؟

- 1- أوافق بشده
- 2- أوافق
- 3- غير متأكد
- 4- لاوافق
- 5- لاوافق بشده

13 - التلاميذ ذوى التخلف العقلي يحق لهم ان يكونوا في فصول الأسوياء ؟

- 1- أوافق بشده
- 2- أوافق
- 3- غير متأكد
- 4- لاوافق
- 5- لاوافق بشده

14 - التلاميذ ذوى التخلف العقلي يجب أن يكونوا في فصول الأسوياء ؟

- 1- أوافق بشده
- 2- أوافق
- 3- غير متأكد
- 4- لاوافق

5- لاوافق بشده

15 - من الاتجاه السائد تعليم التلاميذ ذوى التخلف العقلي مع التلاميذ الأسوياء في فصل واحد ؟

1- أوافق بشده

2- أوافق

3- غير متأكد

4- لاوافق

5- لاوافق بشده

16 - بوجه عام فان الاتجاه السائد نحو التلاميذ ذوى التخلف العقلي يستحقوا تعليم مرغوب فيه ؟

1- أوافق بشده

2- أوافق

3- غير متأكد

4- لاوافق

5- لاوافق بشده

17

- سوف يشعر التلاميذ ذوى التخلف العقلي بسعادة أكثر فى فصول الأسوياء ؟

1- أوافق بشده

2- أوافق

3- غير متأكد

4- لاوافق

5- لاوافق بشده

18- التلاميذ المتخلفين عقليا سوف يتعلمون كيف يتكيفوا العالم الخارجي بطريقة افضل لو كانوا في فصول التلاميذ الأسوياء ؟

- 1- أوافق بشده
- 2- أوافق
- 3- غير متأكد
- 4- لاوافق
- 5- لاوافق بشده

19- التلاميذ ذوي صعوبات التعلم يجب ان يحق لهم التعليم في فصول عادية ؟

- 1- أوافق بشده
- 2- أوافق
- 3- غير متأكد
- 4- لاوافق
- 5- لاوافق بشده

20- التلاميذ ذوي صعوبات التعلم يجب ان يكون تعليمهم في فصول عادية ؟

- 1- أوافق بشده
- 2- أوافق
- 3- غير متأكد
- 4- لاوافق
- 5- لاوافق بشده

21- من المتعارف عليه تعليم التلاميذ ذوي صعوبات التعلم مع التلاميذ الأسوياء في فصل واحد ؟

- 1- أوافق بشده
- 2- أوافق

3- غير متأكد

4- لاوافق

5- لاوافق بشده

22- بوجه عام ان تعليم التلاميذ ذوي صعوبات التعلم سيكون تعليم مرغوب فيه ؟

1- أوافق بشده

2- أوافق

3- غير متأكد

4- لاوافق

5- لاوافق بشده

23-التلاميذ ذوي صعوبات التعلم سوف يشعروا بسعادة اكبر عند تعليمهم في فصول عادية ؟

1- أوافق بشده

2- أوافق

3- غير متأكد

4- لاوافق

5- لاوافق بشده

24- التلاميذ ذوي صعوبات التعلم سوف يتعلمون كيف يتكيفوا مع العالم الخارجي بطريقة أفضل ان كانوا يتعلمون في الفصول العادية ؟

1- أوافق بشده

2- أوافق

3- غير متأكد

4- لاوافق

5- لاوافق بشده

25-مدرسين الفصول العادية لديهم المهارات لتعليم التلاميذ المعاقين ؟

- 1- أوافق بشده
- 2- أوافق
- 3- غير متأكد
- 4- لاوافق
- 5- لاوافق بشده

26 -مدرسين الفصول العادية لديهم التدريب الكافي والخبرة لتعليم التلاميذ ذوي الإعاقة ؟

- 1- أوافق بشده
- 2- أوافق
- 3- غير متأكد
- 4- لاوافق
- 5- لاوافق بشده

27- تعليم التلاميذ ذوي الإعاقة في فصول عادية يلزم تدريب كبير لمدرسين الفصل العادي ؟

- 1- أوافق بشده
- 2- أوافق
- 3- غير متأكد
- 4- لاوافق
- 5- لاوافق بشده

28-مدرسين الفصل العادي يحتاجوا إلي تدريب في اختيار المواد والأنشطة المناسبة للتلاميذ ذوي الإعاقة لو

قاموا بتعليمهم في فصولهم ؟

- 1- أوافق بشده
- 2- أوافق
- 3- غير متأكد

4- لاوافق

5- لاوافق بشده

29-يحتاج مدرسون الفصل العادي الي تدريب في تعريف التلاميذ ذوي الإعاقة في الحاجة الي خدمات فصول خاصة ؟

1- أوافق بشده

2- أوافق

3- غير متأكد

4- لاوافق

5- لاوافق بشده

30-سوف يشعر مدرسين الفصول العادية براحة اكبر عند تعليم التلاميذ ذوي الإعاقة لو ان مدرسي التعليم الخاص ساعدوهم في تقديم خدمات الفصل العادي ؟

1- أوافق بشده

2- أوافق

3- غير متأكد

4- لاوافق

5- لاوافق بشده

31-يحتاج مدرسي الفصل العادي إلي مساعدة في تخطيط البرنامج الفردي للتلميذ صاحب الإعاقة الذي يتعلم في فصل عادي ؟

1- أوافق بشده

2- أوافق

3- غير متأكد

4- لاوافق

5- لاوافق بشده



32-يحتاج مدرسين الفصول العادية إلي تزويدهم بمواد خاصة أعدت لمقابلة تعليم التلاميذ ذوي الإعاقات لو قاموا بتدريسهم في فصولهم ؟

1- أوافق بشده

2- أوافق

3- غير متأكد

4- لاوافق

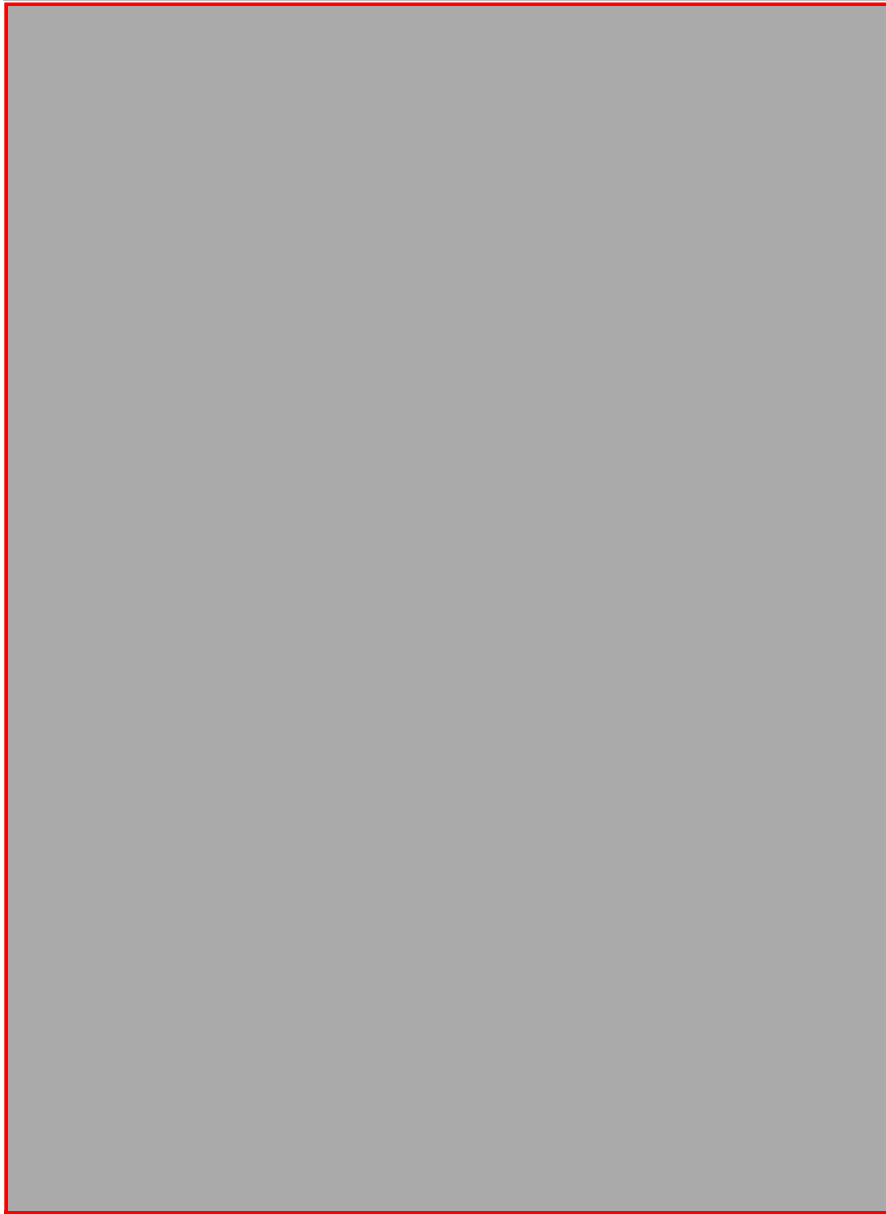
5- لاوافق بشده

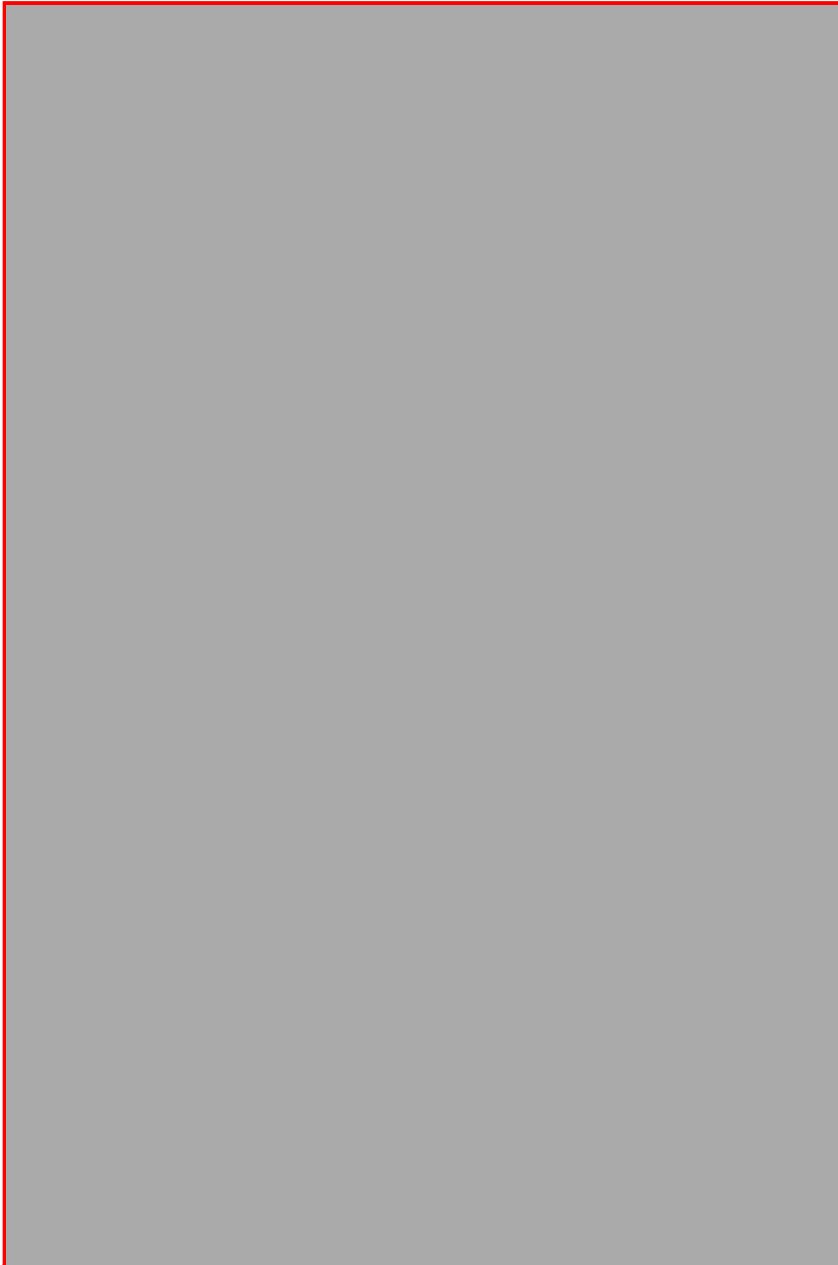
## **APPENDIX (C) – Salamanca Conference**

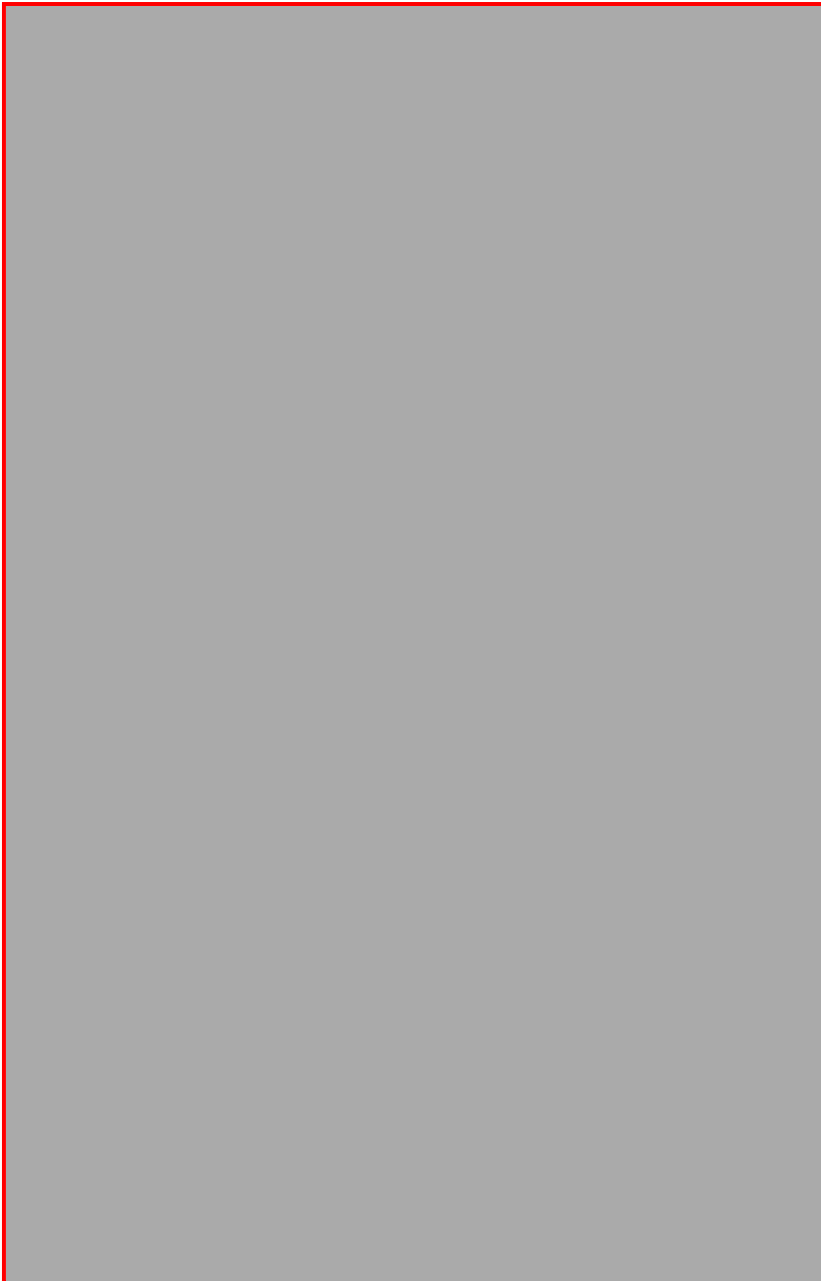
The World Conference went on to call upon all governments to:

- Give the ‘highest policy and budgetary priority’ to improve education services so that all pupils could be included, regardless of differences or difficulties.
- ‘Adopt as a matter of law or policy the principle of inclusive education’ and enrol all pupils in ordinary schools unless there were compelling reasons for doing otherwise.
- Develop demonstration projects and encourage exchanges with countries with inclusive schools.
- Ensure that organizations of disabled people, along with parents and community bodies, are involved in planning decision-making.
- Put greater effort into pre-school strategies as well as vocational aspects of inclusive education.
- Ensure that both initial and in-service teacher training address the provision of inclusive education.

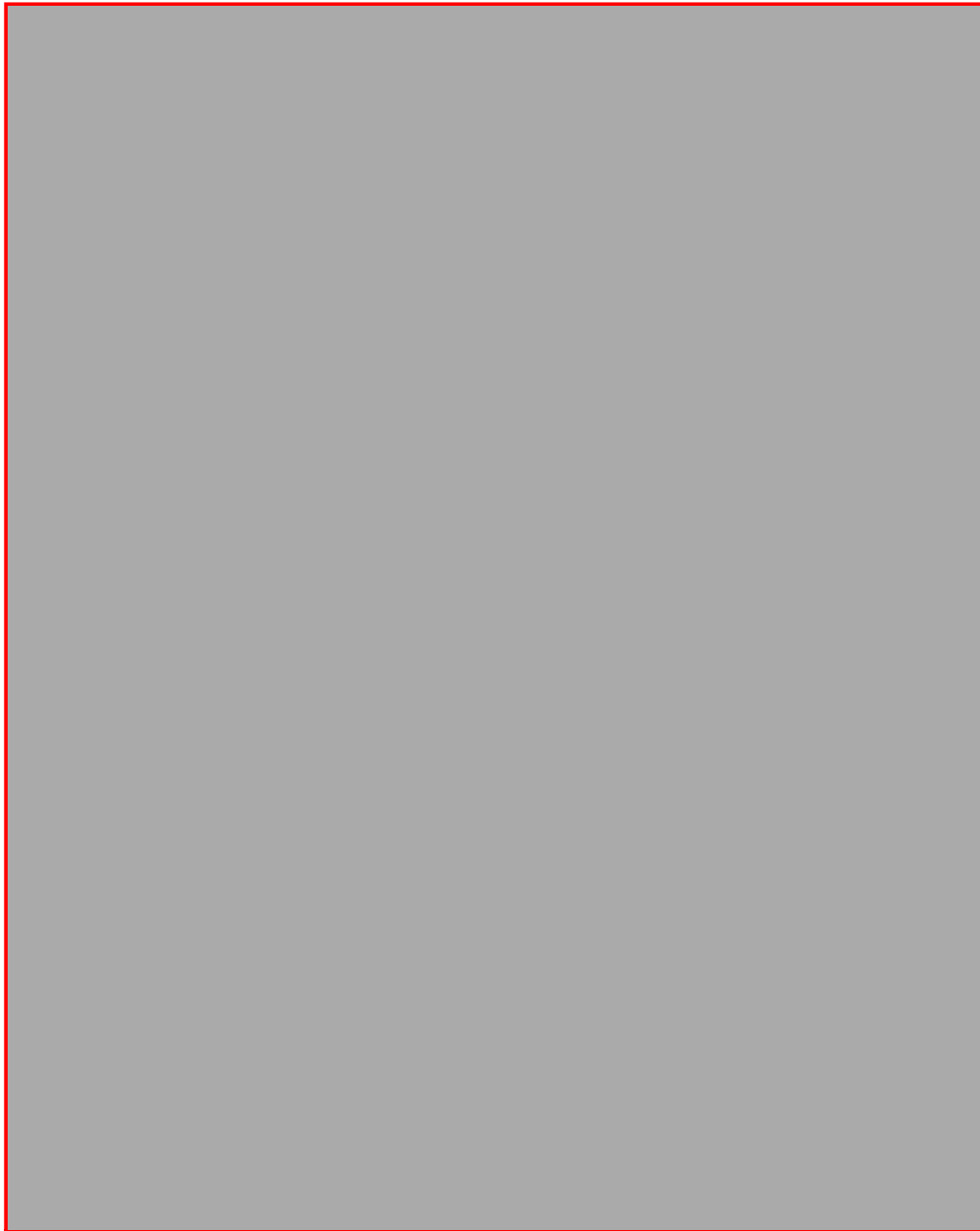
## **APPENDIX (D) – Countries Supports**



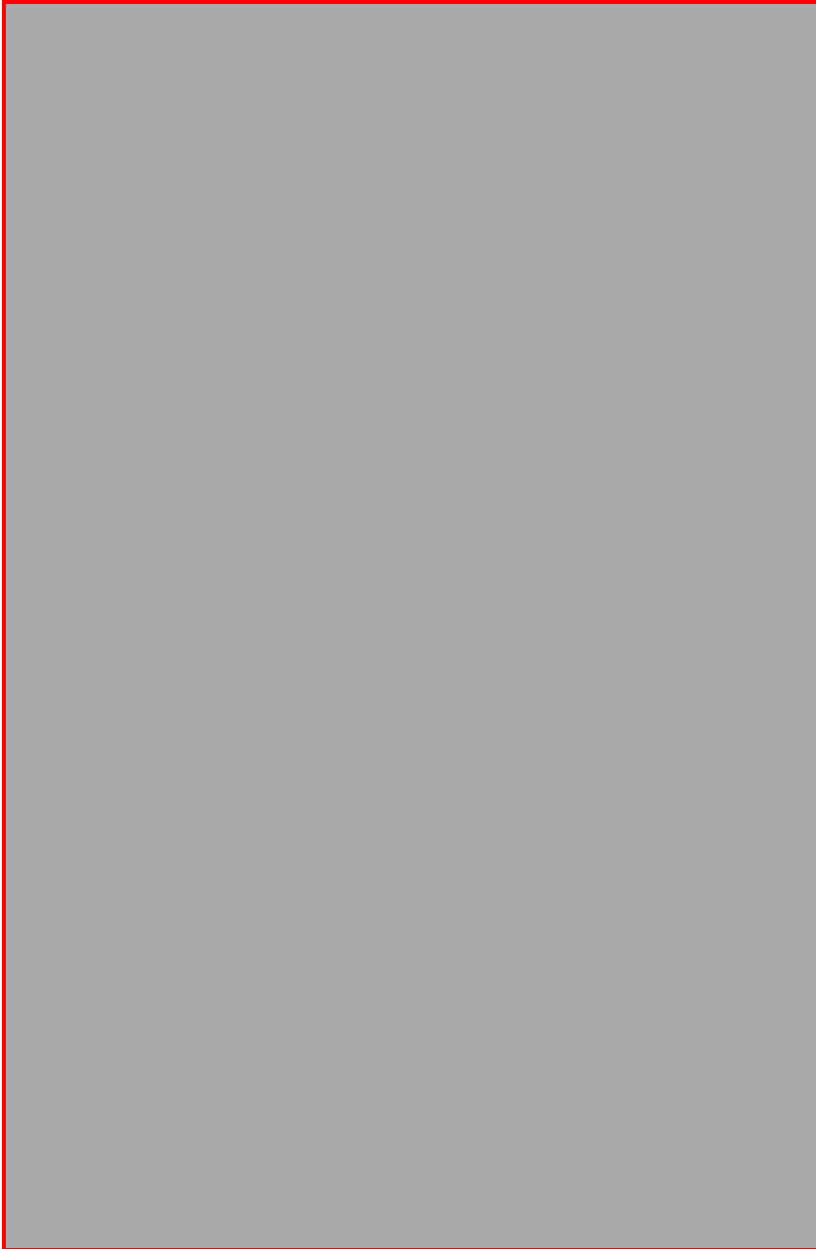




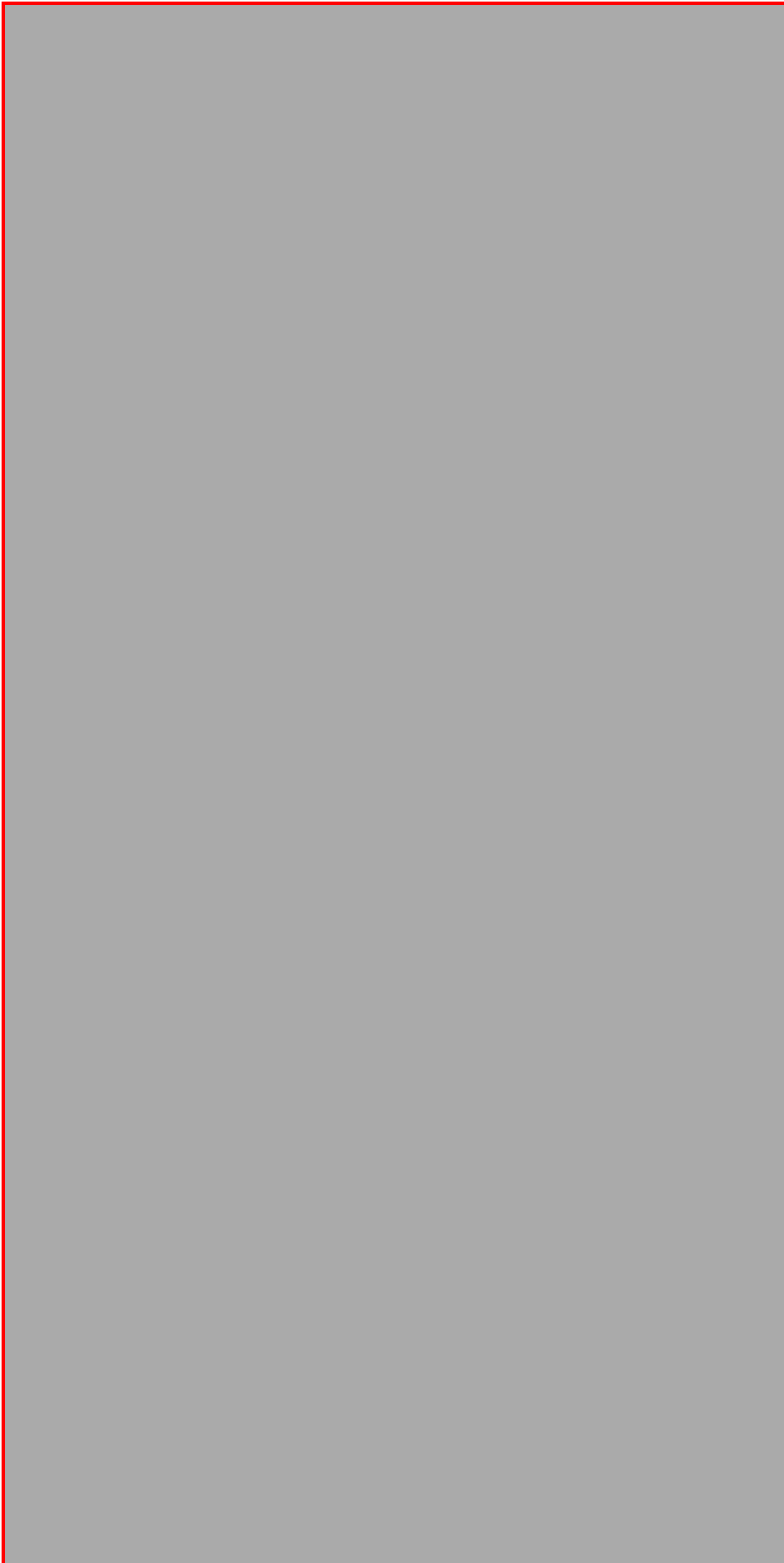
## **APPENDIX (E) – SPECIAL SCHOOLS EQUIPMENTS**



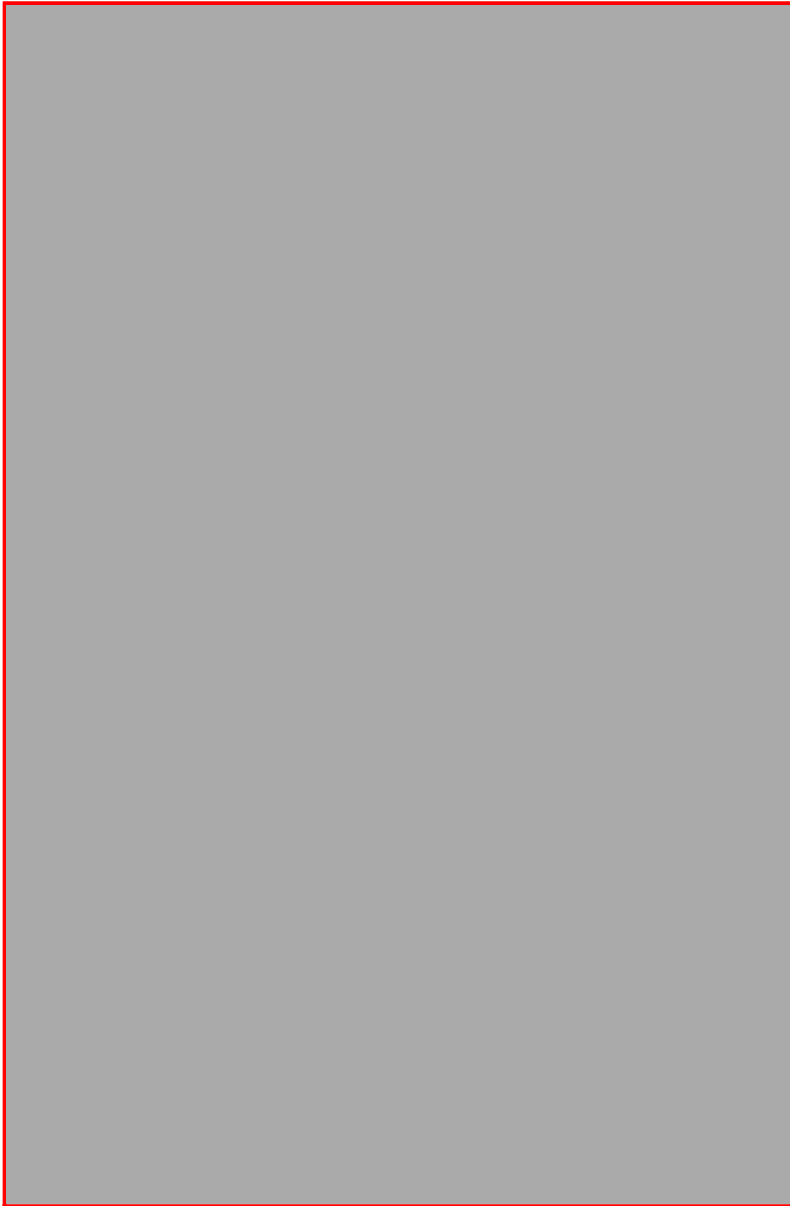


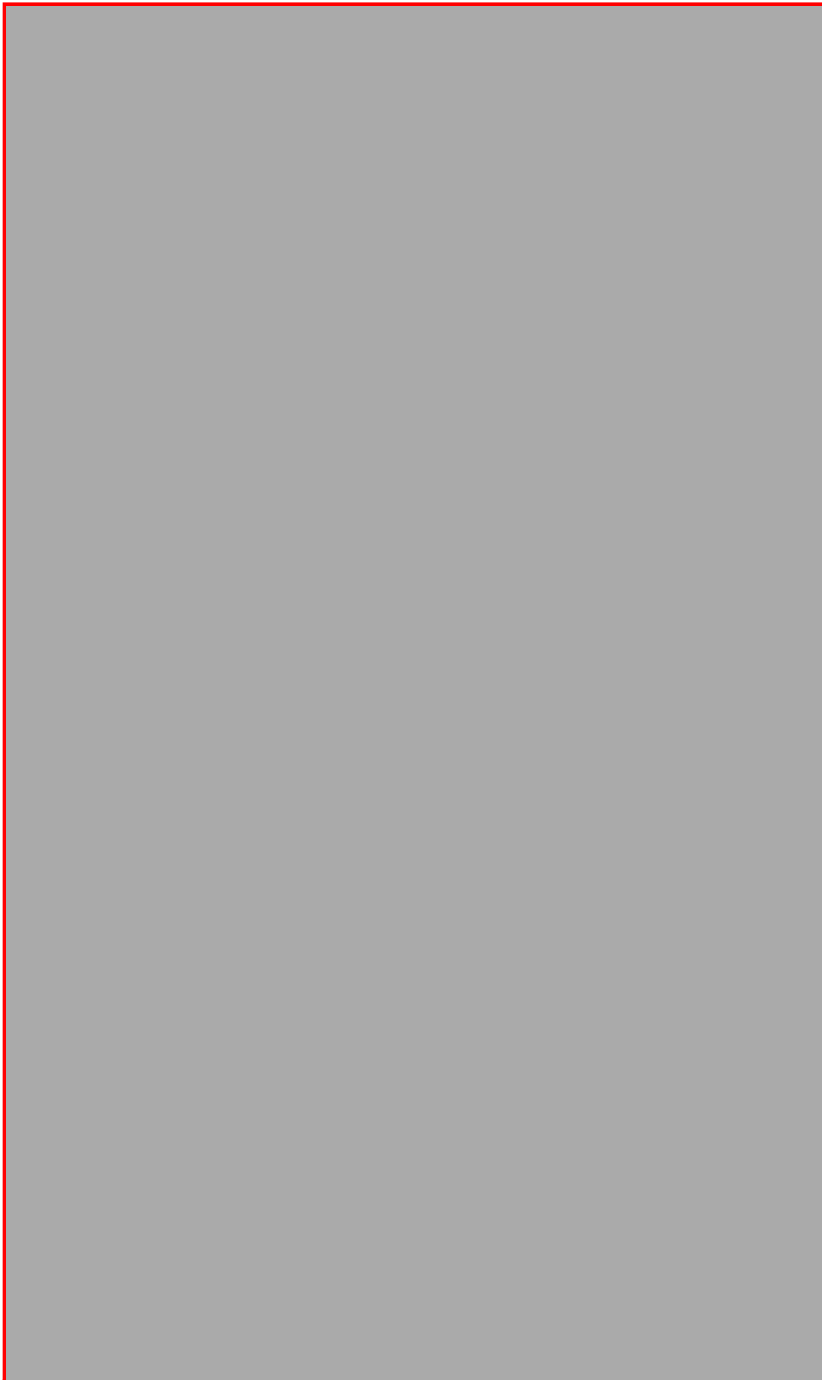




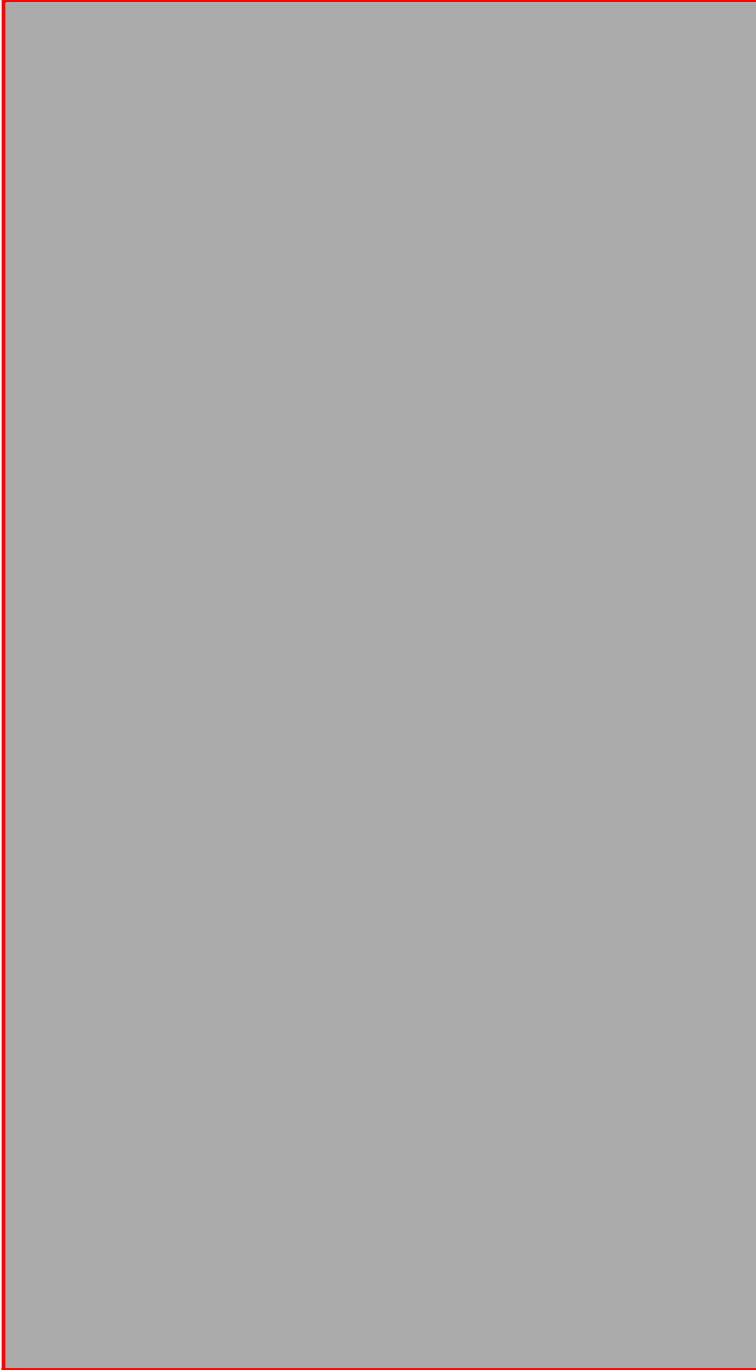


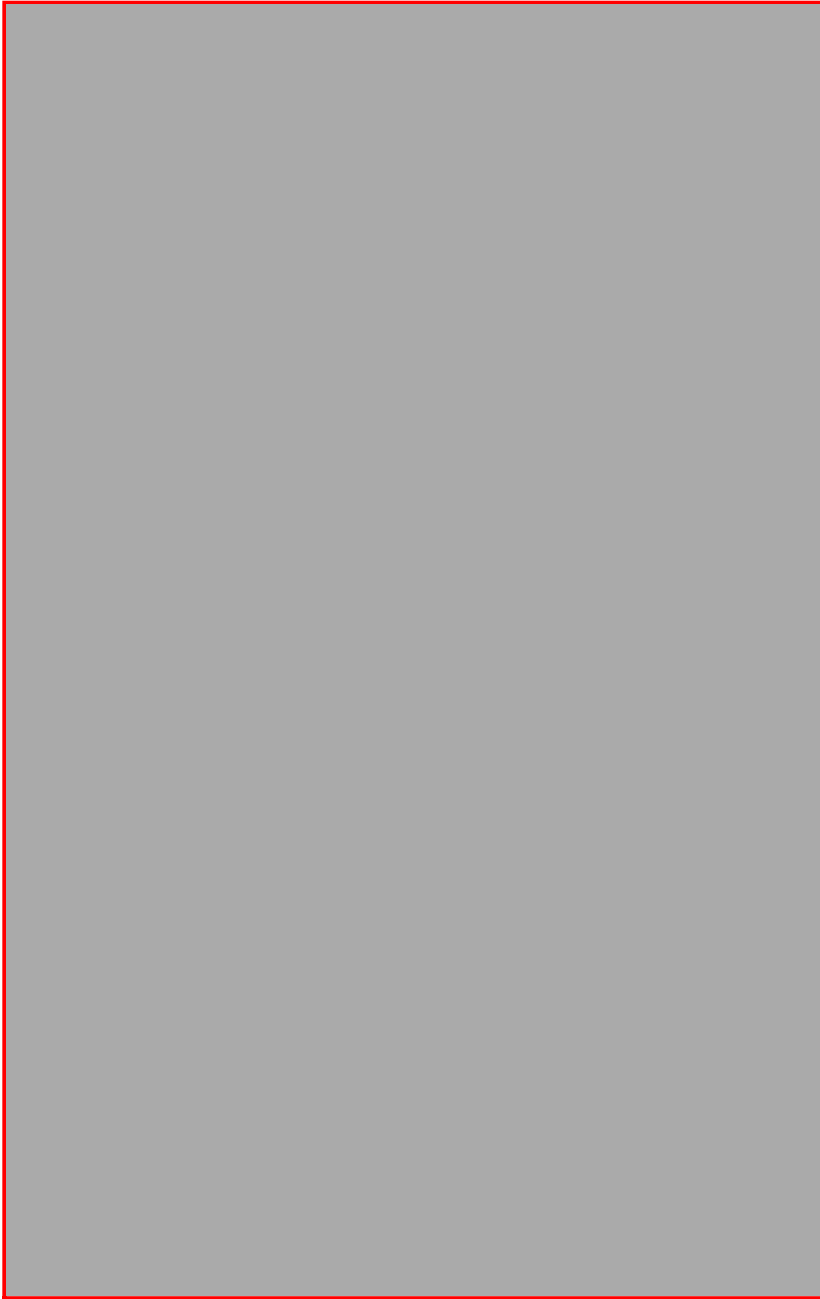
## **APPENDIX (F) – Special Schools training**





## **APPENDIX (G) – Special Schools after the Invasion**





## APPENDIX (H) - Post-1991/2 reconstruction

