

**AN INVESTIGATION INTO A LOCAL EDUCATION AUTHORITY'S INCLUSION  
STRATEGY  
: THE CONSTRUCTION AND MANAGEMENT OF CHANGE**

by

SIMON JENNER

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The University of Birmingham

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## **ABSTRACT**

The research investigated how various people, such as Local Education Authority officers, teachers and parents, represented change (defined as becoming different from a previous state) concerning an inclusion strategy. The investigation used a case study approach and methodology based upon grounded theory (Glaser and Strauss, 1967) and heuristic research (Moustakas, 1990).

Several different case studies within the LEA were used, a formal consultation concerning the change of specialist provision, staff views in a “MLD” school and LEA officer views. Data used was discourse, written and spoken, semi-structured interviews, public meetings and media publications.

NVivo, a computer programme, was used to analyse the discourse, relating this to different theoretical orientations, cognitive psychology, social psychology, management theory and school improvement. Foucault (1977), especially the concept of episteme/paradigms, provided the most useful theoretical framework for analysing data. It is argued that inclusion within the case study LEA was not a paradigm shift, but change around the edge of a paradigm with a stable core, which related to groups of pupils being seen as different. Comparison has been made with Kuhn (1996) on how scientific paradigms are modelled, linking together the research methodology and findings.

## **DEDICATION**

I wish to dedicate the following work to my wife, Julia, who had to take a great deal of the burden of child care during the past four years and my sons Luke, born just before and Jacob, born during the research. You will now see far more of your Dad. I promise!

Lastly to my Mother, Jean, who did not live to see myself commence the work, but whose dedication towards education in all its formats left a legacy of lifelong learning in myself.

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Due to confidentiality issues, I cannot name the individuals and schools with whom I shared the journey, still continuing, along the inclusion route in the Local Education Authority within which the research took place. Just to say that your dedication to the education of children within the borough and schools shone through.

## TABLE OF CONTENTS

<b>1. Background to the Research</b>	<b>page 1</b>
1.1 Why Carry Out a Study into Peoples' Representations of a Local Educational Authority's Inclusion Strategy?	page 1
1.2 The Context of the Study	page 2
1.3 Research Questions	page 5
1.4 Contributions to Knowledge	page 7
1.5 A Brief Description of Events During the Research	page 8
1.6 Outline of the Following Chapters	page 11
<b>2. Literature Review</b>	<b>page 13</b>
2.1 Introduction	page 13
2.2 Inclusion	page 13
• 2.2.1 History of Inclusion	page 13
• 2.2.2 Definitions of, and Philosophical Orientations Behind, the Concept of Inclusion	page 16
• 2.2.3 Other Orientations	page 22
• 2.2.4 Legal Frameworks	page 26
• 2.2.5 Social Inclusion	page 28
• 2.2.6 Precursors to an Inclusion Policy	page 30
• 2.2.7 Power Relationships within Special Education	page 32
• 2.2.8 Foucault's Work in Relation to Special Education	page 34
• 2.2.9 The Role of Special Schools	page 36

• 2.2.10 Local Education Authority Inclusion Policy Structure	page 40
• 2.2.11 Financial Issues	page 42
• 2.2.12 Effects of Inclusion	page 43
• 2.2.13 Inclusion Areas	page 45
• 2.2.14 The Empowerment of Mainstream Schools	page 46
• 2.2.15 Some Last Views on Inclusion	page 48
• 2.2.16 The Role of Educational Psychology	page 49
2.3 Cognitive Models	page 51
• 2.3.1 Cognitive Psychology/ Artificial Intelligence	Page 51
2.4 Language	Page 54
2.5 Social Psychology	page 56
2.6 The Management of Educational Change	page 58
• 2.6.1 Definitions of Change, Change Management and Some of the Complexities Involved	page 58
• 2.6.2 School Improvement Based Work Regarding Change	page 65
• Definitions	page 65
• Factors for School Improvement	page 66
• Criticisms of the School Improvement Movement	page 68
• 2.6.3 Management Theory	page 70
• 2.6.4 Pre-requisites for Change	page 71
• 2.6.5 The Process of Change	page 72
• 2.6.6 Factors Helping Change	page 72

• 2.6.8 Factors Hindering Change	page 73
• 2.6.9 A Model to Describe Complex Educational Change	page 73
2.7 Conclusion	page 76
<b>3. Research Methodology- Background</b>	<b>Page 77</b>
3.1 Introduction	page 77
3.2 Philosophy of Science	page 78
• 3.2.1 Kuhn	page 81
• 3.2.2 Lakotas	page 81
• 3.2.3 Feyerabend	page 82
• 3.2.4 Further Criticisms of Positivist Theory	page 82
• 3.2.5 Conclusions	page 83
3.3 A Model Demonstrating the Influence of Realism and Relativism	page 85
3.4 Case Study Research Methodology	page 87
• 3.4.1 The Rationale for Case Study Research	page 87
• 3.4.2 Pre-existing Theory in Case Study Research	page 90
• 3.4.3 Comparisons Between Ideas in Case Study Methodology	page 91
• 3.4.4 Further Problems with Case Study Research	page 93
• 3.4.5 The Role of the Researcher in Case Studies	page 93
3.5 Grounded Theory	page 95
3.6 Social Constructionism	page 99
3.7 Socio-cultural Psychology and Social Activity Theory	page 105
3.8 The Deconstructionist Movement/ Post Modernism	page 105
3.9 Discourse Analysis	page 106

3.10 Participatory Research	page 107
3.11 Heuristic Research	page 108
3.12 The Construction of Good Case Study	page 110
3.13 Validity and Reliability/Generalisation	page 110
3.14 A Methodological Approach	page 113
3.15 Conclusion	page 119
<b>4. Description of The Methodology in Action</b>	<b>page 121</b>
4.1 Ethical Issues and Guidelines	page 132
<b>5. Analysis of Results</b>	<b>page 135</b>
<b>6. Results</b>	<b>page 139</b>
6.1 Examples of Discourse Categorised at Level i Codes	page 146
• 6.1.1 Consultation Case Study	page 146
• 6.1.2 LEA Case Study	page 150
• 6.1.3 School Case Study	page 152
6.2 Later Data Analysis	page 154
6.3 Some of the Major Differences Between the Projects/ Case Studies	page 163
• Definitions of Inclusion	page 163
• Funds	page 165
• Mainstream Schools' Ability to Cater for Needs	page 166
• Interpretation of the Central Government Agenda / the OfSTED Report	page 169
• Parental Choice	page 170
• Categories of Need	page 171

• Us Vs Them /The Decisions Have Already Been Made	page 172
• Attributions	page 173
6.5 Scripts, Plans and Schemata	page 175
• 6.5.1 LEA Case Study Scripts, Plans and Schemata	page 175
• 6.5.2 Consultation Case Study Scripts, Plans and Schemata	page 178
• 6.5.3 School Case Study Scripts, Plans and Schemata	page 182
6.6 Similarities Between the Case Studies	page 184
• Some Pupils Being Significantly Different From Others	page 185
• Pupils Belonging to Clearly Identifiable, Labelled groups	page 185
• Specialist Skills Being in Specialist Settings	page 186
• No One Opposed the Idea of Inclusion, but Defined it Within Their Own Terms	page 188
• Many Different Directions Taken Concerning Inclusion Within the LEA Due to Frequent Changes in Management	page 188
• Changes Around Inclusion are Due to Central Government Imposed Ideas	page 189
• Little Discussion of Human Rights in Relation to Inclusion	page 189
• Efficacy	page 189
• The Issues Were Often Building Led	page 190
6.7 Factors Seen As Being For and Against Change	page 191
6.8 The Description of Change as Complex	page 192
6.9 Conclusions	page 194
<b>7. Discussion</b>	<b>page 195</b>

7.1 Format of Chapter	page 195
7.2 Why the Change Studied was Complicated	page 198
7.3 Management Theory / School Improvement	page 202
7.4 How People Represented Change on an Individual Level	page 203
• 7.4.1 Models Originating from Cognitive Psychology	page 204
• 7.4.2 Attribution Theory	page 210
7.5 Modelling Change at an Institutional Level	page 216
7.6 Inclusion and Change	page 222
7.7 Theories Originating from Foucault	page 225
7.8 Implications for Cognitive Psychology	page 247
7.9 Implications for School Improvement	page 248
7.10 Critique of the Methodology Used in the Study	page 248
7.11 The Impact of the Research on The Local Authority	page 257
7.12` .Implications for Educational Psychology	page 258
7.13 Implications for Further Research/ Alternative Explanations of the Data	page 259
<b>8. Conclusions and Contributions to Knowledge</b>	<b>page 261</b>

## APPENDICES

1. Diary of Events Relating to the Inclusion Strategy and the Research Study 1999- January 2004	page i
2. Example of the Letter to Gain Permission from Research Participants	page xii
3. Semi Structured Interview Format for the Case Study School and LEA (Group for school 3i, Individual for school 3ii, Individual for LEA 3iii)	page xiii
4. Interpretation of Text from Fairclough (2001)	page xxv
5. Examples of Discourse in Each of the Free Codes in the NVivo Analysis	page xxvii
6. The Full Data, listed by category (the data is on a CD ROM, the use of NVivo 2.0 is required to access the data)	page xlvi
References	Page lv

## FIGURES

2.1 Ainscow's (2003) Model of the Processes Needed for Change in Inclusion.	page 61
2.2 Relationship Between Characteristics, Management Themes and Stages of Complex Change from Wallace and Pocklington (2002)	page 75
3.1 The Relativist- Realist Split	page 86
3.2 A Visual Analogue of the Grounded Theory Process from Hutchinson (1988)	page 96
3.3 A Model of Contradictions within an Extreme Social Constructionist Position	page 103
3.4 A Model for the Implementation of Case Study Research, based on Hutchinson (1988) and Moustakas (1990)	page 116
4.1 Identification of the Relationship Between the Different Case Studies	page 122
6.1 A Model of the LEA Case Study Schemata	page 178
6.2 A Model of the Consultation Case Study Schemata	page 181
6.3 A Model of the School Case Study Schemata	page 184
6.4 A Representation of Routes of Developing Theory Around Discourse and Paradigms	page 187
7.1 A Route of Difference for Pupils in Special Schools	page 233
7.2 A Model of the Relationship between Discourse and Paradigms	page 241

7.3 A Second Model of Relationship between Discourse and Paradigms page 242

## TABLES

1.1 A Summary of the Special Schools in Hibbing in May 2002	page 4
3.1 The Main Theoretical Frameworks for Case Study Research	page 92
3.2 Moustakas's (1990) Theory of Heuristic Research - with My Research Mapped onto it	page 109
3.3 Elements of Rigorous Case Study Planning from Robson (2002)	page 110
4.1 Miles and Huberman's (1994) Data Quality Criteria	page 131
4.2 Robson's (2002 p 100-105) Tests of Validity	page 132
6.1 Codes and Nodes for the Consultation Case Study	page 142
6.2 Codes and Nodes for the Local Education Authority Case Study	page 144
6.3 Codes and Nodes for the School Case Study	page 145
6.4 Main Themes, and Exemplars from the Consultation Case Study by Parent, School Staff and Senior Management Team	page 157
6.5 Main Themes, and Exemplars from the Consultation Case Study - by Type of School	page 159
6.6 Main Themes, and Exemplars from Individual Interviews in the Case Study "MLD" School	page 160

6.7 Main Themes, and Exemplars from Individual Interviews with Local Education Authority Officers	page 161
6.8 The Main Differences Between the Case Studies	page 162
6.9 The Main Similarities Between the Case Studies	page 162
6.10 Attributions Made During the Consultation	page 173
6.11 Attributions Made by the Case Study “MLD” School	page 174
6.12 Attributions Made by the LEA Officers	page 174
7.1 Categories Relating to the Lack of a Strategy	page 201
7.2 Dyson’s (1999) Four Categories of Arguments Concerning Inclusion Relating to the Research	page 222
7.3 Ways of Ensuring “Goodness of Data” from Miles and Huberman (1994)	page 250
7.4 How to Ensure Quality of Data from Miles and Huberman (1994)	page 251
7.5 Examples of Possible Alternative Theoretical Orientations	page 260

## **ABBREVIATIONS USED THROUGHOUT THE DISSERTATION**

DfES: Department for Education and Science, a central government department

EBD: Emotional and Behavioural Difficulties

ESRC: Economic and Social Research Council, a funding body for academic research related to, among others, education.

HMI: Her Majesty's Inspector of Schools, a central government agency

LEA: Local Educational Authority. The organisers of schools within a particular region.

MLD: Moderate Learning Difficulties

OfSTED: Office for Standards in Education. A central government department in England and Wales, which inspects schools and local education authorities.

PD: Physical Disabilities

SEN: Special Educational Needs

SLD: Severe Learning Difficulties

Please note that the Case Study LEA has been given the fictional name of Hibbing. All individuals and institutions have been referred to by role rather than name to avoid being identified. Therefore a school will be referred in such terms as "MLD school" and an individual as "Senior LEA Officer". The terms "MLD school", "PD school", "EBD school" and "SLD school" have been used because that is how they were referred to within the case study LEA..

## **CHAPTER ONE**

### **BACKGROUND TO THE RESEARCH**

#### **1.1 Why Carry Out A Study into Peoples' Representations of a Local Education Authority's Inclusion Strategy?**

The investigation arose from several different orientations. On an individual level, my previous academic work had theoretical foundations in cognitive psychology with undergraduate work involving language and artificial intelligence and my masters dissertation (Jenner, 1987) being based on the work of Rosch (1978). Professional life as an educational psychologist had led me into working with schools undergoing a transformation as a result of them going into special measures. I had also been heavily involved in work around inclusion. Within the taught elements of the Doctoral course my theoretical orientations were challenged by work concerning research methodology, discourse psychology and post modern theories, all explored further in the dissertation. Part way through the second year of the course, I moved to work within another local authority, with a brief to help move the inclusion strategy forward. This enabled an opportunity to explore further the process of change with in the Local Education Authority (LEA).

## **1.2 The Context of the Study**

The study took place in a local authority, a borough council, called Hibbing for the purpose of this study due to reasons of confidentiality. The following description gives a broad description of the borough for the case study context, but not exact details in order that it cannot be identified from the description. Hibbing is in the North of England and has a history based on heavy industry. Unemployment levels are around the national average, but average wages are low and there are pockets of deprivation in a scattered pattern, rather than in large concentrated areas. Take up of free school meals is around the national average, but other indicators, such as life expectancy indicate the relative economic poverty in the borough. The local authority has a relatively small mix of cultures, being predominantly white.

The schools in the borough number around the one hundred and fifty mark, with a large proportion of denominational schools, mainly Church of England or Roman Catholic. At the commencement of the research there were eleven special schools, five schools with additional units attached to them and four pupil referral units. A pre school assessment unit was also attached to a hospital.

These are summarised in table 1.1.

Both the local authority and education department were given the top ratings for their work from central government in 2004. The LEA's OfSTED report in 2001 also gave high ratings but criticised the inclusion strategy as needing to:

*“develop clear timescales and plans for the achievement of the medium and long term objectives within Special Educational Needs (SEN) strategy, in particular, for the future pattern of provision in special and mainstream schools” .*

Criticism was also made by OfSTED of the large number of pupils with special educational needs who were educated either within borough special schools or out of borough in independent schools. Hibbing is one of the most segregated LEAs in the country in terms of pupils attending special schools for the period 1997- 2002 (Norwich, 2002 and DfES, 2003a). These figures have reduced proportionately over this period, but still reflect figures well above the national average of 1.1% (DfES, 2003a). The number of pupils who have a statement of special educational need (SEN) is also one of the highest in the country (DfES, 2003a).

**Table 1.1 A Summary of the Special Schools in Hibbing in May 2002**

Type of school or unit	Age Range Catered for (in school years from N to Y13)	Number of Planned Places at the School (rounded to nearest 10 to help confidentiality)	Percentage on role compared with the full role 9-2002	Trend for numbers of pupils over the last 5 years	OfSTED rating if an inspection occurred in past 2 years	Location in borough
Unit 1- speech and language	R to 6	40	90%	stable		centre
Unit 2- observation	N	20	75%	Falling but deliberate due to needs of pupils		south
Unit 3 observation	1-3	30	70%	stable		north
Unit 4- general learning difficulties	1-2	30	40%	falling		south
Unit 5 general learning difficulties	3-6	40	20%	falling		north
SLD School 1	N-13	110	115 %	rising	satisfactory	centre
SLD School 2	N-13	50	100%	stable	satisfactory	centre
SLD School 3	N-13	60	98%	stable	satisfactory	south
Physical Disabilities School	N-13	130	70%	falling	satisfactory	north
MLD School 1	3-11	110	75%	falling	satisfactory	north
MLD School 2	R-6	100	50%	falling	satisfactory	south
MLD School 3	6-11	120	80%	falling	satisfactory	centre
ASD School	R-9	20 plus (eventually)	New school	rising		centre
EBD School 1- not included in the review	7-11	50 (40 residential)	80%	stable	special measures	south
EBD School 2 -not included in the review	9-11	40	90%	stable		south
EBD School 3- not included in the review	R-6	50	100%	stable		

In addition there were three Pupil Referral Units, and an Early Years Unit attached to a hospital, not included in the review.

Within the above context the LEA produced an inclusion strategy to address the issues around the numbers of pupils both with statements and placed in special school/ special unit provision. The implementation of this strategy was investigated as part of this study.

In September 2003 the Audit Commission visited Hibbing and commented that, compared with statistical neighbours the borough spent the largest proportional amount per pupil on SEN, also having the largest proportional secondary, and the second highest primary, special school population.

### **1.3 Research Questions**

The initial research questions changed as the research occurred. In the methodology section of the dissertation it will be argued that an approach such as pure grounded theory (Glaser and Strauss, 1967), which argues that the questions arise out of the data is untenable. Such an approach ignores all of the researcher prejudices and discourses, reasons for the research and cognitive models of construing the world that they have when entering any investigation. Account in the developed research model was taken of the fact that I needed to reflect back both on my cognitive frameworks, and also upon the research questions. When initially entering the research I wished to look at how people represented the educational structure within the LEA, when undergoing

significant change. I also wanted to implement participatory based action research (Reason, 1988) with a school undergoing this change. The latter aim was abandoned early in the research, because of the hostility towards the inclusion strategy from many of the special schools and units, meaning that participatory work was unable to take place within the given time scale.

Before the data gathering the following questions arose, and drove forward the first part of the analysis of the data. As described in the results section, these questions themselves were modified into just one as new theory arose from the data, was analysed and was reflected upon.

1. How do people involved in the change situation construe the changing local education systems during the implementation of an inclusion strategy?
2. Do groups in an institution share common discourses around such change?
3. What are the relationships between individuals in different organisations (e.g. schools and the LEA) and their cognitive structures? Is there conflict between the structures and discourse?
4. Do cultural and historical elements influence the models?
5. What is the influence of the researcher in the process?

These questions, as described in the Discussion, were compressed, during the research, into one:

- What are the influence of paradigms and discourse in the representation of change, during the implementation of an inclusion policy in a LEA?

The process of how the five questions changed into one occurred during the analysis of the results, with the data driving the questions and theory. This is described further in the Results and Discussion chapters.

#### **1.4 Contributions to Knowledge**

The research aimed to contribute towards the knowledge of educational organisations and individuals undergoing change concerning inclusion in several ways. Much has been written in recent years around the issues involved in inclusion (e.g. Tilstone, 2003, Daniels, 2000, Mittler, 1998 and Ainscow, 1999) and school based organisational change (e.g. Morrison, 1998, James and Connolly, 2000 and Ferguson, Early, Fidler and Ouston, 2000). A few papers have investigated LEAs and change around inclusion, for instance Ainscow, Farrell and Tweddle (2000) and Croll and Moses (1998,2000a). Both studies looked at a cross section of views, but not in depth in one LEA. Croll and Moses, in an ESRC funded project, interviewed thirty eight LEA officers, special school and mainstream Head Teachers in eleven LEAs concerning inclusion. However, they used few other sources of information, and did not follow a process of inclusion across a time period.

Work in the power/ knowledge relations around special educational needs on an individual (Billington, 2000) and school based level (Corbett, 1996) has taken place, but not in relation to change around inclusion.

The situation of the local authority undergoing potentially significant change around its' special provision provided unique opportunities to study this, from my position of being at the heart of any potential changes.

Within the local authority itself there was a desire to see change as being driven by research and findings from other authorities and countries.

The potential of the Hibbing case study and findings being generalised into other areas will be discussed later in the dissertation, although some caution must be expressed about generalising any case study, (Gillham, 2000). Even if this were not possible, due to the “unique nature”, the study in Hibbing makes for interesting reading in itself, and Stake (1995) argues that case studies are valid for this reason alone. Within the LEA the research allowed change to be reflected upon , and allowed reflection over how it could be better achieved in the future.

### **1.5 A Brief Description of the Events During the Research**

The data gathering commenced in May 2002, although earlier documentation relating to the inclusion strategy was also used. In early 2002 a LEA produced inclusion consultation document, around the issues of definitions and philosophies of inclusion, went to schools. Feedback occurred from stakeholders, with general consensus, except from some special schools who were uneasy with the implications. Further planning occurred around the issues, and pupil projected numbers/ trends for parental preference for types of school were

calculated by the local authority in order to look at potential need for places in types of specialist schools. Places were funded by total numbers the schools and units catered for, rather than actual numbers of pupils. There was significant under use of resources in units, schools dedicated for moderate learning difficulties (MLD) and physical difficulties (PD), due to increased parental preferences for mainstream and a falling birth rate. Heads from the specialist sector were then asked to produce potential models for change.

From this a second consultation document was produced which put several options forward, from no change to the closure of several schools. Rationale for this was around giving pupils and parents as many inclusive options as possible, and trying to redirect some of the resources into supporting pupils in a mainstream school environment. The school for physical disabilities was proposed for closure, which caused opposition from parents, support groups and the local paper which had just made a major publicity campaign out of raising £20 000 for the school. Nearly a third of the parents in the school came from out of the borough, with local authorities that did not have similar provision. The LEA preferred option was to move to new units to be built onto a nursery, primary school and secondary school. Two of the schools for “SLD” and three for “MLD” were proposed to merge into three new schools on the sites of the “MLD” schools. These would provide for pupils with “complex learning difficulties”. Once again, some parents and school staff were unhappy with the proposal.

In early 2003, Local Authority Officers and the Chair of the Education Committee held thirty-eight public meetings in neutral venues and at each school with a unit or special school. Meetings also occurred with young people (from special schools and mainstream), with support services and other agencies. These meetings were transcribed, and the discourse provided some of the results described here.

Often the same people would go to several of the meetings. Campaigns organised by parents and school staff occurred with petitions (a 16 000 one to save the school for pupils with physical disabilities went to the Prime Minister in June 2003), a campaign involving yellow ribbons attached to cars and lampposts and web sites. Written reactions to the consultation paper were also submitted. These all went to the Lifelong Learning Panel, and Cabinet (where elected members made decisions and recommendations), in June 2003. They recommended accepting the proposals to close several of the units, close the school for physical disabilities and merge the five schools for pupils with moderate and severe learning difficulties into three. The next week a meeting passed all the proposals.

Following this formal notices were produced for all the schools affected, either in change of role or status. These notices were published in January 2004 (when the research data gathering ceased).

There was considerable parental anxiety, which led in May 2003 to an agreement by the LEA that no child currently in specialist/special school provision would move into mainstream should the parents want to maintain them in specialist provision. No promises were made as to the name of this provision. Parents of pupils attending unit provision were given a guarantee that they would not move until the end of the key stage phase that they were in. Some of the common agendas were that pupils would not cope with new provision, the present provision is very good, that no change should occur and that children would suffer. These are picked up in detail in the Discussion.

Appendix One lists all of the events within the case study within a timeline, in relation to my own involvement, local and national events relating to SEN/disability educational inclusion..

## **1.6 Outline of the Chapters**

Chapter two outlines the theoretical background to the research by looking at inclusion in respect of history, philosophical orientations, English/Welsh legal frameworks, and the role of special schools and power relations, especially in relation to the work of Foucault (1977). Cognitive and social psychology, management theory and school improvement will be briefly reviewed since these were the initial theoretical orientations of myself. All these four approaches could be paradigms to interpret the data, and will be discussed in more detail later.

A new research model will be introduced in chapter three, based on heuristic research (Moustakas, 1990) and grounded theory (Glaser and Strauss, 1977). The philosophical orientations of research in relation to the data and human modelling of the world will underpin this chapter. Chapters four, five and six describe the methodology in action and the results.

Chapter seven discusses the data, especially in relation to Foucauldian theory.

The contribution to knowledge is outlined at the end of chapter seven and in the conclusion. In brief, it relates to exploring discourse and narratives around inclusion in a LEA case study. It explores the paradigms underpinning these discourses.

## **CHAPTER TWO LITERATURE REVIEW**

### **2.1 Introduction**

Within the chapter literature will be reviewed in several areas, in respect to both the research questions posed earlier, and the questions that developed during the course of the investigation. The areas will be:

- Inclusion, including definitions, philosophical orientations and recent research, with an emphasis on the role of the Local Education Authority (LEA).
- Models of cognitive representation. This is a vast area and therefore the review will only cover a selection of approaches, based on those felt to be most useful in building theory based on the gathered data.
- Models of power/knowledge from a Foucauldian perspective.
- Models of educational change, from a school improvement orientation, from highlighted management theory, especially where this relates to psychology.
- 

The above areas will be built upon and discussed in relation to the data analysis in the discussion section of the dissertation.

#### **2.1.2 Inclusion**

##### ***2.2.1 History of Inclusion***

An excellent summary of the history of the inclusion movement, and the legislation surrounding it, has been provided by Mittler (1999). This history is an international one, although much of the literature review enclosed here will have a focus on England and Wales, with some international perspectives. Due to

inclusion being a process rather than a fixed event (Sebba and Ainscow, 1996) there is difficulty in giving any one fixed starting point in the development of the philosophy, approaches and legislation concerning the area. However, within England and Wales there were seeds within the 1944 Education Act, which defined clear categories of need, the 1974 Act, which stated that all pupils were educable, and The Warnock Report (DES, 1978), which underpinned the 1981 Education Act. This Act brought in Statements of SEN and argued that for many pupils formally educated in special school a mainstream school placement was appropriate. Internationally inclusion initiatives occurred in many areas e.g. Ontario (Shaw, 1990), Italy (Meijer, 2001), Australia (Slee, 1998) and Eire (Shelvin, 2003). In 1994 ninety-four governmental representatives plus others attended a UNESCO conference. Out of the conference came the highly influential Salamanca Statement (UNESCO, 1994). The statement argued for inclusive education as a human right, which included children with SEN, as well as other groups such as street children. The 1997 British government Green Paper on education (DfES, 1997) committed itself to the Salamanca Statement, being one of the first British governmental commitments towards inclusion in education.

Other developments also had an influence upon inclusion. During the 1980s and 1990s the relationship between schools and local authorities changed in England and Wales, as schools became more independent from local control and more answerable to central government. Local authorities took on a role of co-

ordination, strategy development and special educational needs provision (OfSTED, 2000). Schools were driven by targets relating to SATs and exam results, the National Curriculum and inspections from OfSTED, a central government agency. An example of the legislation driving these changes was the Education Reform Act of 1993. Within this context the Code of Practice on the Identification and Assessment of Special Educational Needs (DFE, 1994), provided a within child model of Special Needs (Mittler, 1999). The Code has been revised (DfES, 2002), to one where individual needs are highlighted less, with a greater emphasis on the influence, and role of, school provision. The second code has been driven by the Special Educational Needs and Disability Act 2001 (Disability Rights Commission, 2002), an inclusive piece of legislation, which placed the emphasis on keeping pupils within a mainstream environment. Previously LEAs had three caveats against educating a pupil with a statement within a mainstream environment. These were that their needs could not be met within this environment, that it was an inefficient use of resources and that it was against the efficient education of other pupils. Under the 2001 Special Educational Needs and Disability Act only the last of these remains, and then only when all reasonable steps have been taken (DfES, 2001b). All of these central government initiatives have had an influence upon Hibbing, as explained in the Discussion chapter.

The term inclusion is also wider than one just relating to special needs (Porter and Lacey, 2002 p23), and now includes social inclusion. The issues of this

definition, and the consequent confusion felt by LEAs were highlighted in the 2002 audit commission and OfSTED report into inclusion policies in LEAs. Routes for social inclusion, from a political need to control disaffected groups, and SEN/disability inclusion, from a human rights perspective may be different (Dyson, 2003). This distinction may be simplistic in that there are elements of human rights in social inclusion, but will be explored further in the Discussion. The concept of social inclusion will be explored later in the chapter but is the main element of OfSTED's 2003 framework for the inspection of schools in regard to inclusive practice. This framework from September 2003 includes inclusion as one of the three main inspection foci for schools. Much research has gone into how schools have become more inclusive (Rose, 2003; Wolgar, 2003) but what is often lacking is a clear rationale for what is actually meant by inclusion as a term. The definitions appear to shift according to researcher's philosophical orientations and the government agenda at the time, and will be explored further in the next section.

### ***2.2.2 Definitions of and Philosophical Orientations Behind the Concept of Inclusion***

As noted above, inclusion has come to mean many things. It is a dynamic term, and as such will be explored within the dissertation. Hegarty (2001) argues that there is a current pre-occupation with inclusion, which needs to be set-aside in order to explore core educational values since people understand inclusion as a term, but it has varied meanings. Within the past decade the language of Special

Needs has changed (Mittler, 1999, p8), away from discussions of individual need to integration and then onto the concept of inclusion. Integration meant the placement of a pupil into the same classroom (Lacey, 2001, p41) whilst inclusion means the adaptation of a barrier free curriculum and environment to accept all pupils (Rieser, 2002). Many authors (e.g. Sebba and Ainscow, 1996, Booth, Ainscow and Dyson, 1997) view inclusion as a process, rather than a fixed state which is static and easily achieved. In this way an easy definition of inclusion is difficult to produce.

Definitions of inclusion vary according to the theoretical orientations of writers. It is argued by Lindsay (1997) that this causes problems in terms of both research and policy. Unless organisations and individuals are clear about what they mean confusion can arise, especially concerning questions of efficacy. Several definitions have been gathered by Florian (1998) from being together, being a full member of age- appropriate classes, looking towards greater diversity, principles where individuals are valued and greater participation. From a more philosophical orientation, Dyson (1999) categorises four main areas within which discussions concerning inclusion fall. These are; human rights and ethics (Rieser and Mason, 1992), the efficacy of education (Florian and Rouse, 2001, Lindsay, 2003), as part of the school improvement strategy, termed by Dyson as the pragmatic approach (Ainscow, 1998, 1999) and in terms of political change (Slee, 2001, Loxley and Thomas, 2001). The human rights approach taken by Rieser and Mason (1992) is one that all schools should be inclusive in that they

promote the diversity of human existence, with no distinction concerning disability in terms of rights and access. An inclusive school and education system is one in which the structures change to accommodate all people, rather than students having to adapt to the structures. This needs to be an important value in schools (Howes, Ainscow, Farrell and Frankhan, 2002).

Florian and Rouse (2001) argue that school education needs to be inclusive to be effective. In regard to the second approach, relating to the efficacy of education, there is a debate concerning how far the school improvement/effectiveness movement can be linked with inclusion. Ainscow (1999) argues that there are close links, with good inclusive curricula and pedagogy being good for all pupils, whilst Thomas (1997) sees the concepts around school effectiveness as being too general to help inclusion. Robertson (1999) looked at initial teacher training in regard to inclusion, arguing that pedagogy and the psychology of learning are important. Efficacy can be seen as more important than the human rights perspective (Lindsay, 2003), in that educational outcomes are the most important thing that schools should concentrate on.

It is sometimes difficult to balance the individual rights of children in respect to their placement and their views of education Lewis (2002). Various United Nations charters have put the views of the child at a central position (Lewis, 2004). However, there are issues that children may respond to what they want

the adult to hear, different people putting the questions to them may come from different value positions, and therefore may interpret responses in a different way, and different positions on the young people being full partners, or participants may also be taken (Lewis and Porter, 2004). Pupil responses may also be influenced by friendship groups and who else is present when their views are sought (Lewis, 2002).

A decade ago a survey of pupils who attended a MLD school found that most wanted to remain within the school (Lewis, 1995). Pupils who had moved to mainstream schools with learning disabilities reported lower levels of satisfaction than other pupils in the mainstream school, with this figure being better for those pupils who were in resourced provision. Lewis gives a caveat to these findings, due to pupils in previous research tending to state a preference for the provision that they are educated within. The results may also be different if pupils were surveyed now. More strategies have been put into mainstream schools to help pupils with learning difficulties, far more disabled pupils have had their total school life in mainstream, and the National Curriculum is now differentiated to a greater extent, and less rigorous than it was in 1995.

Lindsay (2003) views efficacy and rights as being issues that should not be viewed separately, with a right to a good education being important. If a pupil is socially included, but makes no academic progress this is seen as being detrimental to this right according to Lindsay's view. The human rights argument

is seen as concentrating on the social model of disability (Lindsay and Thompson, 1997) which can ignore within child or interactional factors to the detriment of educational progress. Lindsay and Thompson view this interactional perspective, where the within child and environmental factors are both important, and work together, as an important consideration to make in any pedagogical approach. This perspective is also taken by Lewis (1995, p2-6), who however suggests that environmental factors are the most easy to modify, making differentiation one of the most important pedagogical factors in improving pupil attainment.

Within the USA, there is little evidence to suggest that the setting makes a difference to academic outcomes, with the significant variable being what occurs within a setting (Zigmond, 2003). Zigmond also argues that the question of “where is the best place?” is the wrong one to ask, since SEN is based on individual needs, not generalisations and the correct one is “best for whom?” I would take issue with this argument in that individual agency is controversial within social constructionist thought (Wandrei, 2003), with the power/ knowledge paradigm becoming an important determining factor in human agency via the discourse we engage in (Foucault, 1977). The very act of being called “special” sets pupils aside, creating a different educational environment for them (Thomas and Loxley, 2001).

Within special education we also need to look at outcomes post school to investigate efficacy arguments. Pupils within one English “EBD” school setting were found to appreciate the schooling they received, but to have serious concerns about how well this prepared them for adult life (Farrell and Polat, 2003).

Authors from the political change perspective often appear to be saying that school systems reflect wider societal changes, with segregated schooling reflecting a discriminatory school system. This approach (Thomas and Loxley, 2001) may divide people by political orientation, rather than being a focus for change, so would need careful introduction in any systemic change. Dyson recognises that many of the above discourses do not remain as separate entities, but cut across real life discourses on inclusion. Thomas and Loxley (2001) go further than Dyson’s approach, in deconstructing special education, and looking on it as part of the controlling mechanisms in society. Segregation is seen as a form of control based on a discourse around “normal” and “special”. This discourse still is prevalent (Riddell, 2003) with parental choice from 1989 making little difference to eventual mainstream school choice (Taylor, 2003). The view has been expanded by Thomas and Glenny (2002) who argue that there is no rational, informed body of knowledge to argue for either inclusion or segregation, but that belief and human rights should be the driving forces for inclusive policies. The political arguments can also be seen in how organisations such as LEAs are

fulfilling their role in respect to inclusion. Robertson (2002) points out that many LEAs are lacking in their development of provision.

One of the pioneering LEAs in regard to writing an inclusive strategy in Britain was Newham (Newham, 1996). They define inclusion as an extension of the idea of comprehensive education, and have remodelled the education system in the borough so that only 0.1% of the pupils attended within borough segregated provision (DfES, 2002), the lowest figures in England or Wales, with the national LEA average being 1.1%. Hibbing was one of the most segregated authorities.

### **2.2.3 Other Orientations**

The human rights angle is expanded by Thomas (1997) who argues that inclusion does not set parameters, but is about a philosophy of acceptance, around valued equity for all. This is taken further by Rustemier (2002), who argues that human rights should over ride all other rights such as parental rights to choose schools. Lipskey and Gartner (1999) look on inclusion as everyone being a full member of society, and Slee (2001) takes this approach on by in arguing that there can be no democracy without recognising inclusion. Thomas and Loxley (2001), in describing provision for pupils with a behavioural need, argue that an inclusive school is one producing a humane environment for all pupils. However, Porter and Lacey (2002, p4) point out that the human rights approach has some difficulties:

*“Although much of the evidence based literature contains (often implicit) references to values and rights this is rarely*

*developed and there is no exploration of values and rights in empirical research”*

When investigating special provision in the Netherlands Pijl and Pijl (1998) found that those arguing for special provision saw cognitive differences as more significant than those arguing for inclusion who looked more towards human rights. Both parties, to argue for their position, often used the same evidence. This was within the context of moves towards inclusion from the government (Van der Aalsvoort and Van Tol, 2002), for instance inclusion being more than just placement (Miller, Lacey and Layton, 2003).

In an argument from a human rights argument Rustemeir (2002, p3) states:

*“There are special schools that paradoxically describe themselves as inclusive”*  
and (p6):

*“ adopting the social model of disability and difficulties in learning lie in the social interaction between the learner and the learning environment. The way to address that is through adapting the environment- the physical environment, policies, practices and culture of schools- to enable education providers to respond appropriately and constructively to individual learners.... However, real inclusion would result in fewer learners being identified as having SEN because increasingly more pupils would relatively be provided for within their local mainstream schools.”*

SEN can develop from schools doing inappropriate things (Clark, Dyson, Millward and Robson, 1999), and therefore is set within the context of failure by schools, not by individual pupils. Disability/SEN can be seen to be not due to

“deficiencies” from the individuals but a social construction of difference by institutions, done in order to deflect from their own failure (Rieser, 2002).

Another view on inclusion, separate from Dyson’s (1999) four categories can be seen in the work of Farrell (2002), who views inclusion as being along a continuum;

- Integrating/ mainstreaming pupils with SEN (a population change)
- Improving SEN services through inclusion
- Inclusion for all those disenfranchised (a wider social inclusion framework).

He also looks at inclusion along the lines of presence, acceptance, participation and achievement, with inclusion being an ongoing process. Howes, Ainscow, Farrell and Frankhan’s (2002) starting point is schools seeing inclusion as an important value, which is not always easy to measure.

Internationally one of the main critics of inclusion has been Wilson (1999, 2000) who argues that a community exists for something and that means that people must be left out of it. To include he argues we must also exclude, especially in a society where we have perceptions of what is best and worst, especially in the education system. The argument continues there is a tension between schools being a community for social or a community for learning, and that inclusion can be achieved by other means other than academic tasks. Not all pupils can play Beethoven in the school orchestra or do quadratic equations. There are also confusions in terms according to Wilson, meaning that concepts around inclusion are poorly defined.

Barrow (2001) takes a similar line concerning social inclusion, stating that inclusion is fashionable and education needs to be tough and not involved in sorting social problems. The arguments made by Barrow are that we have to exclude in some situations, for instance due to age. Other authors, for instance Low (2001) argues that disability rights have gone too far and distract away from the mainstream low also makes the case for needing clearly defined terms. This is difficult in many aspects of education, with education itself meaning different things to different people. Central government in the United Kingdom attempted to give an overall sense of meaning from the National curriculum (for instance see Lewis, 1995) but the curriculum itself has changed radically in emphasis over the past decade. Discussions concerning language and meaning are expanded within the Discussion section.

None of the above authors would appear to be arguing for the discrimination against disabled people, only that the concepts around inclusion are ill defined and that discrimination in certain circumstances is required. However, taking perspectives around discrimination are dangerous in terms of the slippery slope that could then be entered into. By arguing that disabled people are less valued members of society it is only a short step towards discriminating against them, and going down the route taken by regimes such as Nazi Germany.

A different perspective is taken by Forlin (2004), in that peoples' views on inclusion are seen as being a continuum, with most educators somewhere in the

middle, wanting to see more pupils included, but also feeling that this would not be ideal for all.

Croll and Moses (1998,2000a,2000b) try to distinguish between what they view as an ideological and pragmatic view of inclusion. The ideological one was held by some of the LEA officers that they interviewed, whilst Head Teachers tended to be more pragmatic. Thomas and Tarr (1999) have challenged this view in relation to the narrow definition of the terms inclusion and ideology. Later in the dissertation it will be argued that all views come from underlying paradigms, making a distinction between ideology and pragmatism less clear cut than Croll and Moses make it appear.

The voice of young people in the research is an important one and has been explored by both emancipatory research (Oliver, 1992), and in action by researchers like Preece and Timmins (2004).

#### **2.2.4 Legal Frameworks**

Within England and Wales, the 2001 SEN and Disability Act (Disability Rights Commission 2001), SEN Code of Practice on SEN (DfES, 2001a) and Inclusive Schooling Guidance (DfES, 2001b) all place a duty on schools and LEAs to place pupils in a mainstream setting, where parents wish this, unless it would have a detrimental (and by this it means more than minor) effect upon the education of other pupils within the setting. This reflects similar legislation in other parts of the

world. Examples can be seen in Austria, Greece, Italy and Portugal (Meijer, 2002), Canada (Shaw, 1990) and Australia (Carroll, 2002), where central government has reinforced an inclusive message.

Foucault (e.g. 1977) describes the importance of looking at the history of the development of concepts, which are important in education (Attfield and Williams, 2003). The work of Poplin (1988a) is useful in defining the various paradigms that disability/ SEN/ special education has gone through from 1940 to the 1980s. These are the medical model of disability from the 1940s and 50s where tools such as psychometric assessments were used to define people, the psychological process model of the 1960s based on cognitive/ information processing psychology that did the same, the behavioural model of the 1970s, which reduced everything to that which is observable and the cognitive learning strategies model of the 1980s which looked towards the learning styles used by the learners. I would expand this model to include the inclusion/learning environment approaches of the 1990s, which moved the agenda away from individuals to their needs (pathologising a small part of the person rather than a more holistic approach again), then to the context within which learning occurs, and the social construction of disability influences of the twenty-first century (although it is too early to make accurate descriptions of a decade not half way into its life so far). Inclusion as a paradigm will be explored further in the Discussion.

Within the context of this research I will define SEN educational inclusion as “including of all pupils into their local mainstream educational community, where all young peoples’ rights, needs and contributions are accepted, met and valued.”

### **2.2.5 Social Inclusion**

Much of the debate in education has centred on the inclusion of pupils who are deemed to have SEN. In Farrell’s (2002) look at inclusion he sees the far end of the continuum as being the inclusion of all marginalized groups. However he also admits that this makes the issues far more complex to deal with. Porter and Lacey (2002, p25) say that disability is only one part of identity positions, with gender, sexuality, social class and ethnicity being important. LEAs often have two inclusion strategies, social inclusion for all disenfranchised pupils and SEN inclusion for those with Special Needs and/or a disability (Fagg, 2003). In addition to the categories listed by Porter and Lacey (2002), new ones of, gifted and talented, looked after, sick/carers/pregnant and socially excluded/disaffected are added by Fagg (2003). The argument is that to include all of the above, schools have to be flexible and barrier free. Inclusion here means the same as for SEN e.g. to value differences and modify organisations to cater for all needs. Dyson, Gallannaugh and Millward (2002) do not disagree that social inclusion ought to be included with SEN/ disability inclusion, but feel that this wider definition makes the situation even more complex for schools and policy makers.

Booth and Smith (2002, p2) incorporate both SEN/disability inclusion and social inclusion in their definition;

*“no simple one-line definition of inclusion is adequate. In our view inclusion covers a philosophy and politics of education and society”*

They then go on to describe how inclusion in a school can only exist in relation to the rest of the community. The concept also includes reducing inequality, participation and entitlement occurring, an end to discrimination on grounds of gender, class, disability, sexual orientation, ethnicity, or family background, schools and communities being mutually supportive and the concepts permeating all curricula and learning.

Within Peter Mittler's (1999) view of social inclusion, he includes most of the above groups, but concentrates to a larger extent upon those young people from poor socio-economic backgrounds. Despite considerable work to alleviate these educational differences they still exist (Abrams, 2003).

In regard to disaffection from school, Riley (2003) investigated pupil attitude in some secondary schools and found that 33% of pupils find school meaningful in a positive way, 33% tolerable and 33% as disappointing and/or unhappy. This is seen to be a social inclusion concern, resolved by pedagogy, structures to communicate openly, multi-agency collaboration, improved training and responsibility being taken by all.

The social inclusion agenda has clear links with the inclusion of pupils deemed to have SEN, in that it is about schools adapting curricula approaches and being barrier free to all, and the attitude of staff and the school ethos to include all. The links, and differences, between the two strands around inclusion are explored in the Discussion, within a Foucauldian framework.

### **2.2.6 Precursors to an Inclusion Policy**

No inclusion policy or philosophy comes out of a vacuum, and approaches such as socio-cultural theory (Engestrom, Miettinen and Punamaki, 1999), or Foucault (Billington, 2000) are useful in setting the context. Both writers argue that our human interactions and systems are developed within the social parameters set by historical, cultural and political factors. Thomas and Loxley (2001), in deconstructing special education, set the discourse around special education as defining self-perpetuating cultures which maintain the wider social order. These are backed up by theories, often psychological in nature. For instance, the popular behavioural approaches of the 1980s within educational psychology reduced individuals into discrete behaviours to be moulded into the educational and social milieu (Corbett, 1996). Educational theory, which is argued as being at best a temporary measure, was transferred into explanatory frameworks, pathologising behaviours and individuals out of the wider social context. Often individuals were reduced to a single measurable behaviour, with little regard to the social context and historical/cultural elements making up the learning situation, and therefore often reinforcing underlying paradigms by only

concentrating on a small part of the wider picture. Other historical roles of educational psychologists have been criticised, for instance in stigmatising pupils by the use of one-off psychometric assessments, and labels (Billington, 2000, Thomas and Loxley, 2001, Sanderson, 2003 and Corbett, 1996). Later I will expand on the more positive role that the profession can play. Ainscow, Farrell and Tweddle (2000) described how many LEAs still operate a deficit model in regard to SEN, whilst Thomas and Loxley (2001, p76) state:

*“ To be called special is to be given a new identity within the education system”*

SEN/ disability is a category, placing the individuals apart from mainstream society. The arguments surrounding power/knowledge in relation to inclusion strategies will be explored in the next section and Discussion.

Conflicts exist in England and Wales between inclusion and school/LEA targets towards improved SAT/GCSE results. These are driven by the DfES's move to improve standards, including the introduction of the market economy into schools and the contrasting policy initiative to include pupils who may bring down SAT and GCSE results. Lankshear (1997), Loxley and Thomas (2001), Florian and Rouse (2001), Norwich (2000), Slee and Weiner (2001), Dyson, Gallannaugh and Millward (2003) and Eggleston (2001) have all commented on how the two approaches provide many contradictions. Warnock (2000, p181-183) views Statements of SEN as the “last gasp of welfarism” in the political climate around education following the election victory of Margaret Thatcher in 1979.

More recent recognition from the United Kingdom government concerning these conflicts has occurred and the Audit Commission (2002a) has recommended that schools and LEAs be set inclusion targets, alongside academic attainment ones. Despite this, Newham, the most inclusive LEA in England and Wales (Norwich, 2001) also has significantly improved GCSE results (Rieser, 2002).

### **2.2.7 Power Relationships within Special Education**

In order to define inclusion you also have to look at the concept of exclusion, groups and individuals being excluded from the mainstream of society. Billington (2000), developing the work of Foucault (1980a), argues that the discourses are used to maintain the status quo, and power relations within it. Foucault described this process as “governmentality”. Governmentality is the process of institutions, procedures and tactics (discourses) that exercise power on populations, through historical development so that they are part of societies and individuals being, termed by Foucault (1979) as “*a whole complex of savoir*”.

Thomas and Loxley (2001, p89) state:

*“Policy is not neutral. It is very much a signifier for underlying social relationships of power”*

The views of disabled pupils in the process of research (Oliver, 1992) and inclusive policy frameworks (Hayhoe, 2002) are important due to specific understandings and activities provided from the perspective of being disabled.

Both authors argue that most research and policy regarding disability/SEN is from a power base not shared by disabled people.

Therefore, labelling a set of pupils as being “different” from the norm by the process of issuing statements delineates them as being quantitatively separate from the majority of pupils. An argument could be made that statements of SEN aid inclusion by allowing the resources to be targeted to allow this to occur for certain groups. However, I would take the opposite position in that by making an artificial cut off point in the continuum of pupil learning, attitudes change towards pupils with statements, viewing them as different, and therefore not encouraging a move towards an inclusive educational system (Booth, 1994). The Audit Commission (2002b) also argue that there is an artificial cut off point for the issuing of a Statement of SEN along a continuum of need which leads to inequitable use of resources.

Power relationships within the system of schooling can be very important. Account has also to be taken of how non school based factors, such as socio-economic factors and the views of the local community, can make a big difference towards successful inclusion occurring (Aronson, 2001). Within schools Ainscow (1999) argues that ownership of issues by teachers using a problem solving approach is the crucial factor in making inclusion a success. Evans (2000) and Dyson, Gallannaugh and Millward (2002) make a similar point to Ainscow in that schools need to problem solve their own difficulties, rather

than relying upon others to do it for them. Croll (1996), describes teachers as playing one of four roles in change, that of partner, implementers of centrally driven policy, opponents of the change or policy makers in practice. Historically, research has been carried out on disabled groups, disempowering them from the research process (Oliver, 1992). What Oliver feels is required is co-operative research, on the issues identified by the disabled as important, rather than research emanating from those in power. SEN systems in education frequently do things to pupils rather than with them.

Therefore the power situation, within “special education”, often in terms of a pervasive nature, reduces people with disabilities or additional needs to categories, disenfranchising them from decision making and being part of the mainstream, and often takes decision making away from teachers into the hands of “experts”, be it special schools or support staff. The very terms, “special”/ “specialist” move these pupils into a view that they are different, segregated and need extra support that is away from the mainstream.

### **2.2.8 Foucault’s Work in Relation to Inclusion**

Foucault (1969) makes no distinction between knowledge and power. Power is seen as part of the discourses of people, which form paradigms, with the paradigms in turn influencing the discourse. These paradigms are referred to as epistemes, within which all discourse falls. Historically, periods of discontinuity for

paradigms lead to change. Power can also be viewed as a positive influence for continuity, as well as a negative one.

Foucault's theory developed during his lifetime but he was mainly interested in the acquisition of knowledge, and how power is expressed in relationships, studied from a historical perspective. For instance he looked at the history of sexuality (1980b, 1985, 1986), the punishment of criminals (1977) and the treatment of those categorised as insane (1967). One of the central themes of Foucault's thinking is why humans become the subject of public knowledge (Roth, 1992). The "disciplinary gaze" used to control and maintain power is seen as important. Archaeology is the study into how statements become seen as being the truth once the discourse occurs frequently enough (Foucault, 1975). The criticism of this approach is that it does not look at the economic and class factors that play a part in power in western society (Haber, 1994). Later theory (Prado, 2000, Smart, 1985, Foucault, 2003b) looked at genealogy as a complementary method by investigating epistemes in relation to knowledge.

Strathern (2001) describes discourse as the accumulation of concepts, practice, statements and beliefs produced by the episteme, which are in themselves an accumulation of discourses over time (Davidson, 1997).

Within the theory education policy is not neutral but a function of the paradigms/episteme surrounding it (Tikly, 2003) and is embedded within educational discourse.

The implications for SEN are that such an approach has no absolute, universal truths to underpin theory, other than the discourses surrounding it (Leonardo, 2003, Olsen, 2003). Educational research as well can not remain neutral (Humes and Bryce, 2003).

Within this context policy is a text represented differently by different actions and interests (Ball, 1994) and underpinned by discourses that are “regimes of truth” which may be against “reason” (Veyne, 1997a, 1997b). The above theoretical orientations will be further explored in the Results and Discussion.

### **2.2.9 The Role of Special Schools**

There has been discussion around issues concerning the future roles of special schools from that of no role (Kenworthy and Whittaker, 2000) to that of being central to any successful future inclusion strategy (Education and Skills, 2003). The Audit Commission (2002) report that there has been a reduction in special school numbers in England and Wales, but not a dramatic one. Increases are seen in certain ages such as eleven, which marks the transition to the Key Stage Three curriculum and secondary education. However the Commission also report that mainstream schools are catering for wider student needs, than they used to. A great variation is also seen between numbers in special schools in different LEAs with, for instance, at the extremes Newham having figures of 0.1% and Halton 2.2% in January 2002 (DfES, 2002). Boroughs, which are statistical and/or geographical neighbours, have vastly different proportions of pupils within segregated provision (Norwich, 2001, DfES, 2002).

A recent paper from the British government (Education and Skills, 2003) continues the government commitment to special schools, for instance as stated in the Green Paper (DfEE, 1997). The 2003 report outlines a possible future role for special schools including teacher training, developing networks with other schools, developing inclusion markers and standards, having a flexible use of staff, developing provision for low incidence and complex SEN and promoting collaborative working with mainstream schools. In the Foreword to the report Baroness Ashton states (p2):

*“ The special school sector enjoys the Government’s full support. In taking forward this programme of work, our aim will be to ensure that the unique contribution of the sector is valued, the achievements of special schools and their pupils are recognised and celebrated, and that the provision made available for children and young people with special educational needs is a paradigm of best practice wherever it exists.”*

What the report fails to do is to put the concepts of disability or special educational need within any political or social context, treating these as clear categories for something to be done to, despite consulting with young people as part of the process. The tone is that segregated schooling has a part to play, but that clear links with mainstream to improve inclusion should also occur, special schools take a more severe clientele, and a role as regional centres of excellence. At the launch of the most recent government strategy document on SEN (DfES, 2004) Baroness Ashton (Ashton, 2004) modified the definition of inclusion away from an educational one, into a social one. She stated:

*“It is not the placement of a pupil that is important, but their inclusion within the local community”.*

Work has occurred with specific LEA special schools as they move towards inclusion as demonstrated in one LEA by Rose and Coles (2001). The role of helping schools develop strategies was seen as a vital role for LEAs in the study. The Audit Commission and OfSTED (2002a) in a report on LEA inclusion policies reflected that most policies typically, but not inevitably, lead to a reduction in the number of maintained statements, in the numbers educated in special schools and out of borough schools (paragraph 25). There was also the need to redefine the role of special schools (paragraph 13).

The Education and Skills 2003 report commissioned a review of the literature from Porter and Lacey (2002). They recommended a role for outreach support, from special school staff into mainstream, but found that many special schools are not ready for this. Therefore recommendations were made concerning specific special school staff development, especially in relation to outreach work.

Mainstream staff development for inclusion also needs to occur as highlighted by Tilstone (2003), and Crockett (2002). Crockett wishes this training to include elements of disability awareness, concerning how the concept of disability arises, which moves the agenda of inclusion into an arena, of human rights and the historical development of the concept of disability (Rieser, 2002).

Special Head Teachers can be also unsure of their future role (Male and Male 2001). Their survey of Heads found that they felt under prepared in skills, attitudes and knowledge in regard to possible new roles. However, the impact of the P Scales, has helped with planning (Male, 2000, Education and Skills, 2003), although they can also assume a type of “normality” (Stanlan, Parry, Whittaker, Mason, McCollum and Walker, 2003), that does not correspond to the development of disabled pupils. Special Head Teachers also feel that mainstream school support can be less effective than a special school placement (Allan and Brown, 2001), in a report which was a survey of opinion rather than what was occurring in terms of efficacy, so must be treated with some caution. Croll and Moses (1998) found general support for inclusion from their small sample of special school Head Teachers. There was, however, frequently a “*but...*” statement attached to the end of the supportive comment. The lack of skills concerning criteria to pass OfSTED inspections has been commented on by Thomas, Yee and Lee (2000) who found that special schools are four times more likely to go into special measures than mainstream schools, especially those special schools catering for emotional and behavioural difficulties.

The advantage of special schools has been challenged from other perspectives, for instance in relation to pupils with autism (Alderson and Goody, 1999). A more general criticism comes from Kenworthy and Whittaker (2000 p 219) from a political and human rights perspective:

*“If special schools have one clear function, it is this, they define the limit of adult societies tolerance for children. These “special”*

*places have become the twentieth centuries gulags, where the collective fear of children who are seen as being different as arranged and their segregation from other children is reconstructed as “special” treatment in a “safe” environment.”*

Rustemier (2003) argues that the continuation of a segregated special school system is a breach of childrens' rights and that in an inclusive society there is no room for them. Therefore there are clear differences of opinion into the future role, or even the continuation of, special schools in an inclusive education system. Variations can be seen between LEAs, authors, and government policy. Some of these differences will be picked up in the next section.

#### **2.2.10 Local Education Authority Inclusion Policy Structure**

Palmer, Redfern and Smith (1994) describe four processes needed for a policy; philosophy, principle, procedure and performance. Ainscow, Farrell and Tweddle (2000) found that most LEA policies lacked clear philosophies and principles, and could be confused, whilst Croll and Moses (1998) found differences between those working towards an ideal, and those working with day to day issues.

Central government reports (Audit Commission, 2002, paragraph 55) wish LEA inclusion strategies to be needs based, predictive for five to ten years, setting a time-table to develop mainstream schools and to be consistent with other policies. The report (paragraph 85) also argues for appropriate clear funding to mainstream schools since they do not always understand this. Guidance from the DfES (2001b), on the roles of LEAs in inclusion says LEAs have to plan strategically and adopt an integrated approach to increase inclusion. The

importance of LEA policy can be seen in the work of Dyson, Gallannaugh and Millward (2002) who contrast two local authorities, one with a clear inclusion policy and definitions, one with it subsumed under their education development plan. In the latter authority schools found both school and LEA inclusion policies far more difficult to implement.

A case study investigation (Wolgar, 2002), described how LEAs need greater flexibility to improve schools capabilities, transparent and equitable resources, measurable impacts, parent/pupil partnerships, an ethos that all teachers are teachers of SEN and enhanced staff skills. The move towards inclusion is seen as being unending in the context of policy development (Carrington and Robinson, 2002), with no such thing as a fully inclusive school.

Within a policy, common visions, resources and co-ordination are important (Corbett, 2001). Moss (2002) took a different slant in investigating policy. She looked at Tasmanian inclusion policies in light of the discourse surrounding the policy in regard to historical factors. Policies reflected underlying discourses of difference and segregation. This view looks at inclusion as part of the discourse of power, using Foucault's (1977) terms of reference, which will be explored in depth later. Ainscow, Farrell and Twedde (2000) list the consensus of the LEAs they surveyed as to what should be the structure of a good inclusion policy. This was that it should be short, have a vision, values, be stable, relate to other

planning, reflect the diversity of opinion within stakeholders, be led by the LEA under central government regulations and to be systematically managed.

Within the Australian state of Victoria, an inclusion strategy was implemented a decade ago. Despite clear intentions, it was not as successful as first envisaged, with numbers in special school remaining static (Slee, 1998). Slee identified two main reasons as to why he felt this to be the case. The discussion of who was to be included, had poorly defined definitions, being open to different interpretations, leading the administrators becoming malleable concerning which pupils to include. The second reason was a failure to address deep-seated power relations around exclusion and inclusion, and the language within which these were bound.

### **2.2.11 Financial Issues**

These are crucial in any inclusion strategy as the relationships between schools and LEAs change. Rouse and Florian (1997) discuss how in the SEN market place there is an undignified scramble for resources, whilst Booth, Ainscow and Dyson (1997) discuss how the apparent choice over schools in education does not in reality occur. Recent descriptions of how LEAs have monitored resources and decreased the amount of pupils getting funding via statements (Beek, 2002, Kahn, 2002, Marks, 1997) provide models for other LEAs to develop within a local context. Gray (2002) however urges caution in that too rapid change towards increased delegation of SEN finances can lead to increased demands

for statements from schools and parents. This is due to a possible lack of understanding of the vision towards greater delegation, with people being still tied into old systems in their views.

The Audit Commission (2002b) has criticised the use of Statements of SEN within England and Wales as a way of accessing funds due to the bureaucratic process, waste of resources, the focus on the individual rather than the process, and artificial cut off points. 69% of SEN funds go towards Statements of SEN, with big differences between schools and also between LEAs, in how they use funds, and statements of SEN as a way of accessing them.

### **2.2.12 Effects of Inclusion**

In respect of the relative academic effects of mainstream or special school provision there appears to be no conclusive evidence either way (Meijer 2002, Florian, 1998, Farrell, 2000). Socially positive effects of a mainstream environment are clearer, especially for girls of both disabled and able-bodied pupils (Farrell, 2002). However, in a small-scale study involving only three pupils Hall and McGregor (2001) found that full social inclusion did not always occur. This study highlights many of the potential concerns over research into inclusion, which are beset by methodological problems due to being small scale case studies which are difficult to generalise, with no control groups (Farrell, 2000).

Some of the authors on inclusion, coming from a human rights perspective, argue that discussions about efficacy are irrelevant since the over-riding concern should be for the rights of the pupils (Mittler, 1999).

Mainstream staff and pupils can also benefit from inclusion if the ethos is right and teachers involve themselves in problem solving which benefits all pupils (Ainscow, 1999).

Effects on parents are varied. Many parents of pupils in special schools may still be undergoing a bereavement process (Connor, 1997). Parental choice appears to be important with most parents wishing to continue with whatever they have chosen, be it mainstream or special school (Farrell, 2002, Porter and Lacey, 2002, Jenkinson, 1998).

Most arguments for and against inclusion are often not based on research but other factors. Anti- inclusion arguments can centre on perceptions of the limitations of mainstream, other legislative demands, the need for exclusive knowledge and the need to centralise resources. Pro- inclusion arguments centre on the social construction of disability, an ineffective special school system and human rights issues (Florian, 1998).

### **2.2.13 Inclusion Areas**

These are briefly reviewed in light of the proposals made by Hibbing LEA to move to three inclusion areas to deliver services, including specialist school provision. Evans, Lunt, Wedell and Dyson (1999) investigated collaborative approaches in meeting special needs. They found that collaboration between, at most, ten schools as a cluster group improved the performance of the schools and increased ownership by the schools as their own problem solvers. The role of LEA support services in this process was found to be very important, in that they could act as good facilitators of the process, and could encourage the sharing of resources, be it knowledge or material. The work that was carried out by the authors could provide a good model to be developed locally by Hibbing. Beare (2001) views the process from a less pragmatic angle. He places the idea of the interdependent academic institutions and support services within the model of Gaia, the living interdependent planet Earth. Within this model the various elements of the locally managed centres (for instance, schools, special provision, support services, local community, parents, pupils, teachers, LEA, voluntary groups and so on) will all have a relationship in which they form a coherent whole, that is interrelated, being reliant upon each independent part. Therefore to influence one part of the structure needs compensatory action on other parts.

Lacey (2001, 2003) discusses collaborative work between services arguing (2001, p39) that physical proximity, similar work and management need to be

present to develop close working relationships. Fleming and Manda-Amaya (2001) have a similar list of common purpose, goals, roles and good communication links. Fletcher-Campbell (2001) highlights how interagency work can fail if these are not present.

Therefore careful planning, clear objectives and co-operation between services has to occur in order that area inclusion teams succeed.

### **2.2.14 The Empowerment of Mainstream Schools**

In order for successful inclusion to occur mainstream schools will have to be viewed as owners and solvers of their own issues, without relying on the LEA or others to solve them for them, either by statementing a large number of pupils and labelling them as qualitatively different, or by removing them into segregated provision. The LEA role is one of policy planner, facilitator and monitor of provision. Porter and Lacey (2002) highlight the concerns of some mainstream staff:

*“teachers in mainstream schools do not explicitly suggest that pupils with SEN should remain in special schools but they do express fear that they do not have the skills, knowledge or support to become more inclusive.”*

They also argue that “SLD”/“PMLD” pupils and those on the autistic spectrum have proved the hardest to include but that it is:

*“important to make a distinction between those who challenge mainstream provision and those who have distinct pedagogical needs” (p11).*

Forlin, Dogher and Halter (1996) look on pupils with a physical disability as being easier to include than those with intellectual disabilities.

In a survey of European research concerning teacher attitudes, perceived expertise, collaborative planning, co-operative teaching and time were found to be important (Meijer 2001, p31-32). Examples of good practice are quoted from Austria where two teachers and four to six disabled pupils in one mainstream class was found to be the most effective. In order for inclusion to succeed, forms of instruction are important (Rouse and Florian, 1996, Daniels and Garner, 1999, Visser, Cole and Daniels, 2002, Daniels, 2000 and Hargreaves, 2001). Ainscow (2000) views good SEN pedagogy as being good pedagogy for all pupils, which was taken further in the work of Ainscow, Booth and Dyson (2004). They challenged views that a different sort of teaching is required for pupils deemed to have SEN. Norwich and Lewis (2001) also question the existence of such a thing as a separate pedagogy for SEN. Vaughn and Linan-Thompson (2003) investigated the programmes for pupil with learning disabilities in the USA and found that the curriculum was not necessarily different, and little evidence based practice occurred to improve curricula approaches.

Inclusive schools need to develop their organisation (Slee, 2001) The encouragement of problem solving, enabling conditions for risk taking and developing a language of practice, all found to be important elements in inclusive

schools from the work of Ainscow (1999), could also be encouraged. Ainscow views the role of LEA support services, in encouraging this is important.

Peer support (Booth, Ainscow and Dyson, 1997, Thomas, Walker and Webb, 1998) is another important element to be developed to encourage inclusive schools. A role of educational psychologists could be to develop the use of tools such as Circle of Friends (Newton, Taylor and Wilson, 1996).

Care must be taken not to fall into the trap of assimilation, where institutions do not change to incorporate disabled pupils (Slee, 2001), which is in contradiction to inclusion, or that mainstream schools do not reproduce segregation within their institutions (Lloyd, 2000). Training of staff, organisational changes, a review of pedagogical approaches and clearly stated LEA and school philosophies/mission statements all could help to stop assimilation rather than inclusion occurring.

### **2.2.15 Some Last Views on Inclusion**

Inclusion is a process, a way of being, a world view that argues that groups of people are not quantitatively different, that everyone has the right to be included with their peer group and that models of disability often arise from a social construction of people, rather than differences in a positivist way (see Rieser and Mason, 1992 for arguments along these lines).

Rouse and Florian (1996) suggest that the very presence of segregated provision is a barrier when moving towards inclusion, in that teachers will always feel that the expertise lies within this provision, instead of within their own resources.

It may be that inclusion strategies are political documents, to serve a purpose of moving school, LEA and other stakeholder opinion towards inclusive thinking. However, as such there appears to be confusion over both inclusion and integration, a fault in many LEAs inclusion policies according to Ainscow, Farrell and Tweddle (2000).

The criteria set by Ainscow, Farrell and Tweddle (2000) appears to be lacking the important element of an actual firm definition of inclusion, although later unpublished work by the authors has done this.

### **2.2.16 The Role of Educational Psychology**

The 2001 OfSTED inspection of Hibbing highlighted how educational psychologists and others were tied up with the statutory process of producing reports for statements of SEN, a highly restrictive role. Hibbing has very high levels of statements according to 2002 DfES figures. The different approaches towards support for inclusion can occur from individual, through class and school and LEA (Wedell, 2000), and the role in Hibbing has historically been merely on the individual level, and then only to a limited extent.

Within Hibbing the plan was for educational psychologists, along with other LEA support services, to develop inclusion strategies, by direct work with schools, pupils, parents, the LEA, councillors and disabled groups.

School based systems, such as organisational factors and policy statements can be developed, especially if educational psychologists form part of the support networks at a local level with other support services.

Farrell (2000) expands on potential roles, highlighting the role that research has to play in developing pedagogy. With their background in both academic psychology and education the ideal group to be involved in this are educational psychologists. In a later paper Farrell (2001) says that the move away from testing and a within child focus towards development work has allowed the profession to become far more inclusive. Sanderson (2003) and Aubrey (2002) make a similar point from a United Kingdom perspective, Van Kraayenoord (2002) from a Dutch one and Muthurishna and Baez (2002) from a South African one. All of these approaches could be further developed in order to aid inclusive practice.

There is a history of support for inclusion from educational psychology, along a continuum of support for individuals (Billington, 2000) to group (Newton, Taylor and Wilson, 1996) and systems based work (Jenner and Gravenstede, 1998).

## **2.3 Cognitive Models**

The initial starting point of the research was to investigate cognitive models, but as it progressed they became less relevant. The reasons for this will be developed in the Results and Discussion. The section here will give a selective overview of some of the main theories of cognitive representation, from cognitive psychology/artificial intelligence, language and social psychology orientation. Models deemed to not relate to the research will not be expanded upon, (for instance cognitive models relating to working memory/ long-term storage.)

The reason that there is a brief mention of the models is that there is some reference to cognitive models during the Results and Discussion sections of the dissertation.. This is because it is argued that discourse, by itself, does not give a full enough picture of representations of concepts, and I wanted to reflect the full analysis of the data, which included consideration of models of cognition.

### ***2.3.1 Cognitive Psychology/ Artificial Intelligence***

Much of the research in this area has come from laboratory-based studies, often involving university students and/ or computer based simulations. They can therefore be limited in scope, and to appear cold and not meaningful to everyday experience. However, as Davidson (1994) points out, a fish will not report the water that is all around it because it is part of its existence. In the same way the cognitive structures surround human existence are not reported on by the participants because they are so part of their being that it is hard for them to be

recognised. For a fuller introduction to the range of cognitive psychology refer to Eysenck (2001) and Stenborg (2002). For a fuller description of artificial intelligence refer to Cawsey (1998).

Schemas, plans and scripts and heuristics have been influential models to represent human modelling of the world. Eysenck (2001, p229) defines schemas as:

*“well integrated packages of information that allow us to form expectations and to draw inferences”*

They arise from the work of Bartlett (1932) who looked on folk stories as being remembered from prior knowledge not just the stories themselves. Human beings put previous experience into recalled events, elaborating, ignoring what is unfamiliar, changing to fit in with the schema and putting meaning onto language. This has to be contrasted with Foucault’s view that discourse dominates representations (Davidson, 1997). Schema, once established, often by past experience and learning, are often difficult to change, especially if they are of a social nature (Augoustinos and Walker, 1998).

One criticism is that although there has been some work into the structure of schema, they are often fuzzy and ill defined, or described in an artificial way involving nodes and linkages (see Bransford, 1979, p183 for an example of this). They do not represent day to day existence but are an artificial construct placed on it, coming from existing positivist paradigms, meaning that human

representations/constructions of meaning is often neglected in preference to a mechanical representation.

Rosch (1978) investigated concepts of colours and of birds, finding that people were far more likely to go for examples that fitted in with cultural expectations of a good example, termed a prototype. For colours, Rosch also argued that there was also a physiological element, with prime colours being more readily identified.

Schank and Ableson (1977) describe a theory of remembering actions they term plans and scripts. For regular and expected events, for instance a visit to a restaurant or a known bus journey, a script occurs, expectations are adhered to and acted upon. Events are remembered according to the script, which has predictive powers, unless the event is extraordinary such as the bus crashing. A computer model of the theory was developed where the computer remembered the script for the story and planned actions based on it. The theory has the advantage of predicting what humans are doing and has been backed up by research. Davidson (1994) found that people add to the script according to pre-existing knowledge and expectations. Bower, Black and Turner (1979) discuss how people will fail to report things that do not adhere to their scripts as well as things that do, and that meaning is added based upon previous knowledge rather than what was actually seen.

Heuristics are related to both schema and scripts and plans. They are rules of thumb based on past experience that are built into schema (Augoustinos and Innes, 1990).

Silvester, Anderson and Patterson (1999) used schemas and heuristics to model how individuals and groups were representing change in a large industrial organisation undergoing change. They interviewed different stakeholders, managers, quality controllers and shop floor operators. However, the research looked at cognitive models existing in isolation, without taking account of the social constructions/discourse/paradigms that help form the models.

There have been criticisms of schema based theory. Higgins and Bargh (1987) feel that there have been many dangers of psychologists donating heuristics and schema to people and modelling humans as working along the lines of faulty computers, a disciplinary discourse (Foucault, 2003a). Augoustinos and Walker (1995, p57) argue that schemata is such a general theory that it is adaptable to a wide range of interpretative power for different situations, often of an inconsistent nature. Another major criticism is that schema theory, as it stands, is very much an information-processing model based on individuals. It fails to take account of any social or political element to cognitive representations.

## **2.4 Language**

Language is one of the ways in which human beings model the world. Schema theory models the way in which cognition represents the world, with a variety of

alternative models, but it is language that acts as the representative medium, and, to a varying degree according to the theory applied, is the way humans model the world. Discourse Analysis (Edwards and Potter, 1992), which looks at how the world is construed by language, and Vygotsky (1978), where language is seen as the medium of thought, are central theories describing this process.

Discourse Analysis has been criticised for only looking at the micro elements of language, missing out the wider social and contextual elements (Fairclough, 2001). Fairclough's model of language looks at interpretation as being the meaning between the text (spoken or written words) and the understanding of it. Explanation is the relationship between interactions between the participants' interactions and the social context. Within his model awareness has to be made of the text, how it fits into the participant's world knowledge, and the power relationships in the social system. This model was used to initially interpret some of the texts used in the research (appendix four).

To explain the link between power and language, especially within the context of education, Fairclough (2001,p54) quotes the words of Foucault (no other reference was given by him other than to say, "*to quote the words of Foucault*"):

*"any system of education is a political way of maintaining or modifying the appropriateness of discourse, along with the knowledge and power"*

in the developing theory, described later, language and Foucauldian theory became significant ways of explaining the data, especially in the ways that participants represented inclusion.

## 2.5 Social Psychology

Social processes were also important explanatory tools for the data analysis.

Some of the more recent approaches in social psychology have looked towards integrating cognitive approaches with the influence of both the society and social influences (Augoustinos and Walker, 1995). These approaches have also been used in the context of the workplace and change. Fried, Ben-David Teigs, Avital and Yeverenchahu (2001) looked at the attributions used by people and found increases in the job complexity, and the amount of tasks, all led to more negative attributions. However this study, along with many more carried out in academic research, occurred with university students, albeit in their part-time jobs. Higgins and Bargh (1987) looked at prototype and schema theory and discuss how both of these influence the private self. They argue that beliefs are linked in with ways of representing knowledge and change best when they fit in with the schema. The schema can explain inconsistencies, and the cognitive outcomes. They state (p386):

*“the resolution must have involved both a change in the meaning of the inconsistency and an according change in the belief structure to encompass this exception.”*

However, what they fail to describe is the influence of language in the process. In regard to change, Anderson and Chen (2002) describe how significant others have a profound influence, with the importance of the transfer of ideas. However, in their analysis there are no mentions of wider societal influences, nor the power dimensions discussed by Foucault (1977). The assumption is that people exist in little pockets of social groups without any context within which these groups exist.

Social representations are thought to be important by Martha Augoustinos and her various co-authors. Augoustinos and Innes (1990) describe social representations as internalised social knowledge linked to schema. Therefore the person is seen in relation to others, as are their views. In Foucault's terms they share common discourses. In this article and a later book (Augoustinos and Walker, 1995) acknowledgement is made that there has been little research into social schema, with most of it occurring on the cognitive and language front, rather than how things are construed socially. This social construction fosters communication between members of a collective, as shared meaning occurs (Augoustinos, 1991).

Attribution theory is an influential theory from social psychology. Augoustinos and Walker (1995) go as far as to claim that it was the dominant approach in American social psychology in the 1980s. Theories around attributions investigate how people view the world around them, putting causal explanations onto others' behaviour. It is useful in relation to the context of motivation relating to an inclusion strategy, in the ways participants in the study attributed for the reasons events occurred. Heider (1958) initially developed the theory around attributions with Kelley (1967, 1972) putting some potential cognitive structures around them. These structures relate to people looking for consistency (the person attributed always acts in the same way to the same situation), distinctiveness (reaction to another), consensus (do people's views vary re the

attributed), discounting (are attributions right, and if not which ones are correct) and augmentation (how to we get evidence for the attribution chosen). In these ways cognitive structures are built up around attributing behaviour. However, what these theories lack is the cultural and social aspects of attributions, only touched briefly upon in the consensus part of Kelley's theory, viewing humans as almost passive construers of attributions, rather than as active members of social groups, which have unique interests produced by the situation and historical parameters within which they operate.

## **2.6 The Management of Educational Change**

The management of educational change has often come from either a perspective of school improvement / effectiveness or from work based on United States private industry, with all of the limitations that this imposes. Wallace and Pocklington (2001) feel that American based management theory is biased towards individual traits, lacking the complexity required for describing British educational change processes and Ailmo- Metcalfe (2003) argues that it is based on interviewing chief executives only, giving it a certain bias.

### ***2.6.1 Definitions of Change, Change Management and some of the Complexities Involved***

What is highlighted by some of the work on educational change is the complexity of it, especially where organisational change involves more than one stakeholder,

and where there are many different organisations with clashing cultures, as in the research described in the dissertation.

Change is described by The Pocket Oxford Dictionary (1978) as:

*“making or becoming different, difference from previous state, substitution of one for the other”*

All these elements were present in the case studies described in the research.

James and Connolly (2000, p16) when describing change say:

*“Change is an interesting notion. It is impossible to escape from it. Change is perpetual. We might like to think we have at some time a period of stability but change carries on none the less. Just by living we experience change, if only because we get older.....At one level (change) is simple. Change is simply a matter of learning to do things differently. But in reality it is extremely complex, especially if the change is significant.”*

From this passage it is highlighted how we are all constantly involved in change, especially in education, which is all about change by its very nature. However, James and Connolly later point out in their book that change in educational settings becomes complex due to many of the issues such as ownership and anxiety that give rise to an emotional involvement. However, they then do not go into great detail about how this varies from, for instance, change in a small family business with a history of family stake holding, both financial and emotional.

Morrison (1998, pxii) also takes the view that educational change is complex:

*“The management of change is a messy, untidy, complex and, importantly, human, enterprise that potentates individuals and organisations”*

He then places this in the context of a post modern world where there are no overall theories or world view, populist political policies take precedence, and a capital driven economy makes planned change difficult to achieve. Educational change is described as dynamic, structured, often non-linear, multi-dimensional coming from, and working with, a multitude of perspectives, practice being more important than beliefs and evolutionary (either by being incremental or continual) rather than revolutionary. One of the central themes of Morrison's 1998 book is that change is only meaningful in the context of the meaning maker.

*“Change is inescapably and intensely personal, because it requires people to do something different, to think something different, to feel something different” (p121)*

This theme is picked up in more detail by Wallace and Pocklington (2001) who state that “*making meaning lies at the heart of educational change*” (p21) and that “*history makes people*” (p44), a view that Foucault (1977) would endorse. The authors also point out that change is only made complicated by people, and the meaning they put onto it, often through the history they have gone through, and the work culture around them. However this complexity is not always deliberate, but a part of the process.

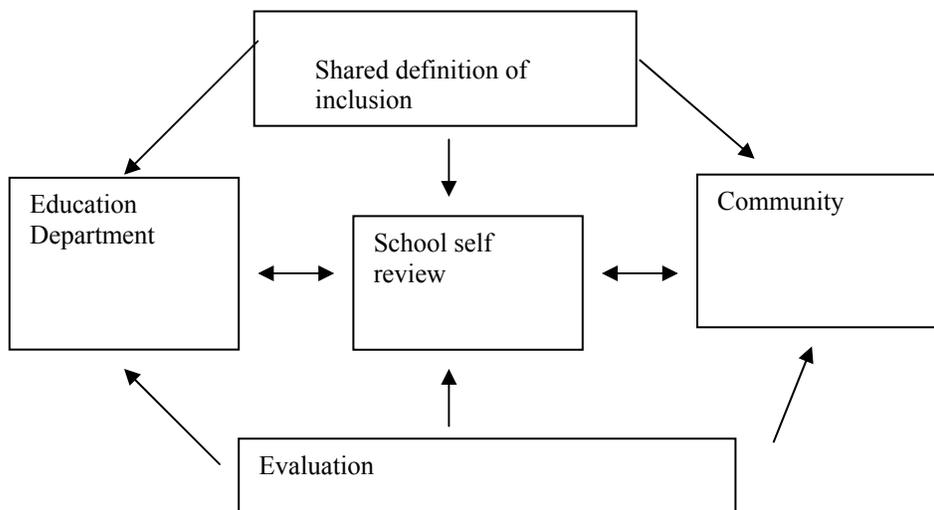
At the simplest level change can be described as “*change implies new experiences and new learning*” (Wallace, 2003, p12), but that this is not as straightforward in real life where:

*“People in organisations have to work hard at what they live as disjointed and often confusing experience, marked by uncertainty, unpredictability and dilemmas that will not go away” (p12)*

When interviewing participants I described how I wished to investigate how they felt and represented change, without going into details about what change meant, wanting this to come from participants themselves.

The work of Fullan (2001) has been developed by Ainscow (2003) into the following model, describing change and inclusion.

**Figure 2.1 Ainscow's (2003) Model of the Processes Needed for Change in Inclusion.**



Partnerships are seen between the school (central to the process), local administrators, and the community. However, what is lacking is any partnership between the local authority and community, a central tenant in the proposed Children's Services (DfES, 2003c). Ainscow highlights the two key elements as

developing a shared definition of inclusion, and measuring the effects, because what is measured is done.

Wallace and Pocklington (2001) and Wallace (2003) are some of the few authors to look at complex educational change in terms of LEAs/ local administrative areas, rather than individual schools. They describe how change occurred around two local authorities re-organisation of schools, in order to reduce surplus places and to change from a middle-school system. With this the importance of the stake- holders are in the process was stressed, and how many of them only had an incomplete view of the situation. The change agents, and their limitations are also highlighted. The model the authors describe will be highlighted at the end of the change management section of this chapter. Part of this model is the elements that make educational change at a LEA level, as well as many other educational settings, complex. These are that such change is:

- Large scale involving many different stakeholders with different allegiances
- Componential with many divergent and sequential components, and many management tasks
- Systematic with unequal distribution of power, and different levels of management tasks
- Differentially impacting upon all involved and
- Contextually dependent upon the past changes that have occurred and the impact of the current changes during the process.

Within this process, the authors describe how the context of LEAs is that they do not have total control over a situation due to their prescribed role from central government, the meaning put onto change by stake holders and also their frequently perceived role to reduce conflict. Some of the issues were summarised in regard to this (Wallace and Pocklington, 2001, p210):

*“It seems probable that some factors delineating the capacity to manage complex educational change may be endemic to social interaction across a network of stake holders and so not be answerable to control”*

Therefore, management techniques, such as Burns (1978) transactional verses transformational leaders, are seen as less important than the context for change and interactions surrounding it. Wallace (2003) and Wallace and Pocklington (2001) still stress the importance of styles of management as the control agents, for instance in amalgamating two different cultures when schools merge. Transformational management, where individuals needs are recognised is preferred to transactional where rewards lead to the outcome, but it is not embedded.

The Audit Commission and OfSTED (2002) comment on the fact that change around inclusion is difficult and that consensus is difficult to achieve (paragraph 43):

*“Planning for inclusion is difficult. This is not an area in which consensus can be expected. Extreme positions can be, and are, taken both on general principle and on the importance of particular groups of pupils. Pressure groups*

*are common. Reconciling tensions and mitigating extreme positions are, locally as nationally, the stuff of politics.”*

This follows earlier research highlighting how systematic change involving SEN often involves conflict (Dyson, 1990).

One of the areas of difficulty highlighted by the OfSTED report is lack of leadership concerning inclusion, sometimes from the local elected members of the council. Dyson, Gallannaugh and Millward (2002) look at how the context of an LEA policy is important for schools and at how external government policy also is a major driving force. Howes, Ainscow, Farrell and Frankhan (2002) describe how different values and stake holdings can have a major influence on the formation and implementation of an inclusion strategy.

Stobie (2002a,b) discusses change in terms of the profession of educational psychology, where the locus of control is important and where people feel in control of their actions. This view is different from Wallace (2002) , who sees people as often having little control, awareness about change and contradictory beliefs. The difference is due to Stobie looking at incremental change across a small profession with reasonably clear roles, and Wallace looking at complex change across several organisations on a large scale and the different discourses in the two settings.

In the following pages the Wallace and Pocklington (2001) model for describing complex educational change is discussed. It implies that where complex change

occurs all twelve identified factors in the model have to be in place. Other theory around change indicated the need for developed shared meaning, facilitating learning in teams with clear visions, driven by self-evaluations (Senge, 1990). However change in LEAs is more complex than with many other organisations due to the complexity caused by the different stakeholders, the physical remoteness of some parts of the organisation (e.g. some schools), making social interactions hard, and the varied impact of any change.

## **2.6.2 School Improvement Based Work Regarding Change**

### ***Definitions***

School improvement, and the “movement” that has grown around it, is different from school effectiveness in that the latter implies continuation of existing effective approaches and outcome based approaches whilst school improvement implies change in some way, concentrating on the process. In reality the different approaches may be difficult to distinguish, with a school increasing existing effective approaches and improving those that are not effective. Almost all the work concerning school improvement relates to individual schools, not to larger scale LEA changes, described in Wallace and Pocklington (2001) and this research. However the influence of the school improvement disciplinary discourse is an influential one, and will be described briefly here.

The reasons for the concentration of work around educational change management in the United Kingdom often being identified with the school improvement movement are around both national and international narratives.

These include central government curricula, independence of schools from local control but having targets to meet, with inspections to ensure that these occur. This had led to a narrow definition of education in schools around these targets (Thomas and Loxley, 2001). There are many contradictions between a drive to improve standards, often by use of tests to judge this, and the inclusion agenda. Lankshear (1997), Loxley and Thomas (2001), Florian and Rouse (2001), Norwich (2000), Slee and Weiner (2001), and Eggleston (2001) have all commented on how the two approaches provide many contradictions. Dyson, Gallannaugh and Millward (2002) describe how some schools have tried to come to terms with the dissonance between the two agendas, and central government has recognised this by proposals concerning inclusion targets for schools and LEA (DfES, 2003a).

### ***Factors For School Improvement***

Reynolds (1995) has been influential in central British government policy towards attempting to enable schools to improve (DfEE 1999, DES 1992). He lists the main elements of school improvement as; leadership by the Head Teacher (with support from the Deputy Head), high expectations for pupil attainments and what the school can achieve, pupil and parental involvement, staff cohesion and consistent experiences for the pupils.

Fullan (1992) and Fullan and Hargreaves (1992) have theories originating from their background in sociology. Teachers are viewed as part of a community, with

their professionalism not being separated from themselves as people. The meaning of change to those involved in it is seen as an important factor. Their view is that school improvement should be internally driven, not externally like the OfSTED model.

Joyce, Calhoun and Hopkins (1999) emphasize that the school needs to be in a continually evolutionary state, being a listening community, which is information guided about areas that need to change. Like Fullan, organisation within the school is central. Effective schools have a common mission, with an emphasis on learning and a commitment to this (Stoll and Fink, 1996).

Ferguson, Earley, Fidler and Ouston (2000) highlight the needs of schools to carry out their own self-inspection in order to drive their own improvements before external agencies become involved. This approach shares many common core features with that of Joyce, Calhoun and Hopkins (1999), without the emphasis on the school being in an evolutionary state. However, there is a distinction made by them between self-evaluation and self-inspection, (p132), closer to the OfSTED model, despite their critique of it, which now includes self-inspection (OfSTED, 2003).

All four bodies of work share some common essential elements for school improvement. These are leadership, a concentration on pupil learning

attainments, the involvement of the whole staff and initiatives being based on school self-review.

### ***Criticisms of School Improvement Movement***

Criticisms of the school effectiveness/improvement movements, and of governmental approaches (both in England, and other educational systems such as Chicago, 2000) have been made from a perspective looking at the role and values of the movements, for instance a concentration on scholastic attainments dictated by one sector of society. The arguments can be traced back to the work of Ingleby (1975), expanded by Slee and Weiner (1998) and Paradice (1999).

What Ingleby terms “*people industries*” (e.g. educators) are seen as a method of social control, a way of maintaining the status quo for a particular section of society benefiting from it. Education is seen as a way of limiting power in this system to these beneficiaries (professionals and those with wealth), with a few other people being able access benefits in order to give hope that anyone can. Psychology, within this context, can be viewed a discipline that places pathologies onto people who do not fit into the “social norms” of the system. A complimentary view (Thomas and Loxley, 2001) is that we are all constrained within the paradigms within which we work. The school improvement movement is described by Slee and Weiner (1998) as one in which the measurements of success are narrow, mainly referring to particular curricular attainments, and ones that are not necessarily relevant or important to all sections of the community. Therefore high expectations are imposed and not relevant or

perceived as achievable by those not in power. Hamilton (1998) argues that effective schools are by their very nature not effective for all their pupils. The concept of value added, in schools serving poor socio-economic areas, is another way of pathologising those who do not succeed in the education system, by highlighting those pupils who still make poor progress.

If the concept of school improvement and more importantly, the actual aspects of schools that should be improved, are socially constructed then there will be conflict of interests. Miller (1996, 1999, 2003) argues that different home, school, pupil and outside agency cultures exist. To extend this a little further, the culture suggested by the school improvement movement is narrow, only serving a certain section of society, leading to potential clashes with other cultures within the school. OfSTED (1999, p54) list one third of primary and half of secondary schools in special measures or serious weaknesses as being from inner cities, their only comment on the distribution of schools in difficulty along any criteria of social deprivation. Croll (2002) demonstrates that there is a strong relationship between indices of poverty, levels of attainment and SEN, especially behaviour, with more poverty being related to higher levels of SEN and poorer attainment. School improvement measures are such that the clash of cultures described by Miller may still lead to some pupils being discriminated against.

### **2.6.3 Management Theory**

The work of Senge (1990) is an example of how managerial theory has an influence on theories concerning educational change. Senge has developed the idea of The Learning Organisation, the best way of an organisation changing, and moving on. A Learning Organisation is described in terms of thinking along systemic lines, people having personal mastery in it (e.g. being proficient and continually clarifying the way ahead), being able to learn in teams, to have good mental models of the way forward and the work place having shared visions about the future. With all of these in place Senge argues that organisations move forward because yesterdays solutions are today's problems and people in the organisation need to move forward from entrenched positions to ones where shared learning towards the vision occurs.

Some important aspects of Senge's theory have a part to play in how people structure heuristics around change. Western language is structured in a linear way around subject-verb-object and the theory argues that all western problem solving tends to look for causal relationships within these terms and to be in a linear way, which is not always the best view for a particular issue. The discourse we use also dictates what we view as the issue, what we measure, and how we tackle it.

However, the theory around Learning Organisations has little data, informed, non-anecdotal case studies, or any underlying theory backed up by research

behind it. It is also hard to apply in its' entirety to the Hibbing situation due to Hibbing having so many different organisations involved in the one issue. Due to this, there was little opportunity to build shared visions and there was so much conflicting culture and different stake holder interests to make this impossible to achieve. Clark, Dyson, Millward and Robson (1999) argue that inclusion threatens too many disparate interest groups to have one shared aim. However, without common visions change is difficult to achieve, and conflict often ensues.

#### **2.6.4 Pre-requisites for Change**

Stobie (2002a) lists several things that need to be in place in order that successful change can occur. These are that change has internal and external support, has complexity understood by all, the change presents solutions, unintentional outcomes are accepted by staff, commitment for the new paradigm is created, the organisation is working as a Learning Organisation (Senge, 1990), resources are goal seeking and dissent is permitted.

Stobie described change in a small professional group (educational psychology), with reasonably clear understood roles and aims, whilst Wallace and Pocklington (2001) and Wallace (2003) describe complex change in complex organisations. Where the organisation is complex most of the above cannot occur due to different stakeholder agendas, an unwillingness to seek new paradigms, staff being placed in situations of potential conflict, and many different organisations coming together as one. Wallace and Pocklington (2001) discuss several

examples of where schools had very different agendas from each other, and LEA officers, and in some cases different stakeholder interests at conflict within the same school. What they do not however look at is the over-riding paradigms that people are working within.

### **2.6.5 The Process of Change**

Fullan (2001) has a simple model of the change process, used in Wallace and Pocklington's (2001) model, with an initiation of change, implementation followed by institutionalisation. This last stage was termed in earlier work as continue (see James and Connolly, 2000 and Morrison, 1998). However institutionalisation is a far stronger word, implying that the change process has become part of the organisation, rather than merely a continuation of the processes.

### **2.6.6 Factors Helping Change**

Successful change hinges on the people in the organisation, their commitment, involvement and development (Morrison, 1998, p121), individuals being involved in change (Fullan, 2001) with national factors driving educational change (Stobie, 2002). When amalgamating schools recognition needs to be made that different cultures may clash and measures need to be in place to combat this (Maddison, 2002). Within education the power and influence of the Head Teacher is also important in backing any change (Carrington and Robinson, 2004 and Black, 1996). Change here is seen as a simple process bound up in one organisation or profession, not as complex change, which it frequently is.

### **2.6.7 Factors Hindering Change**

Many factors can lead to resistance to change, lack of trust, fear of the unknown, change being seen as unnecessary, unfeasible, having economic, status or role threats and of high cost (James and Connolly, 2000). For the profession of educational psychology the economic threat in terms of more time on paperwork is seen as the biggest threat (Stobie, 2002b).

Within the local authority context Wallace and Pocklington (2001) look at the limitations on the role of local authority officers in terms of central government controls, the elected role of members of the council ruling bodies, and individual lack of knowledge amongst all stakeholders. Therefore people seen as being important drivers for change are often hindered by other factors.

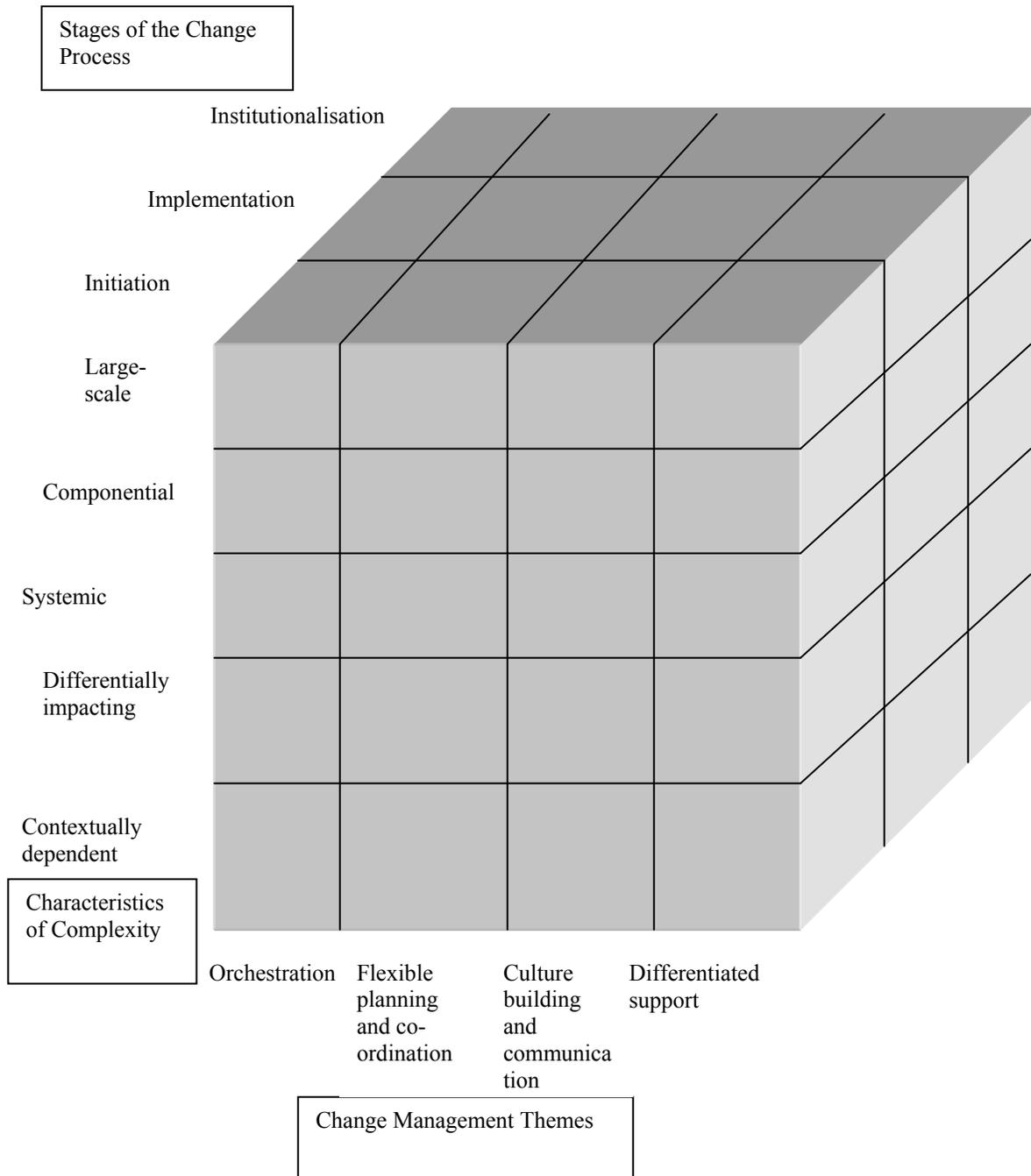
Inclusion strategies, from an LEA perspective, can have difficulties relating to conflicts over the definition of inclusion, the fact that inclusion is seen as resource driven (around funds for pupils with additional needs), different interest groups having different agendas, how the change is managed and the different partnerships required to enable this (Ainscow, Farrell and Tweddle, 2000).

### **2.6.9 A Model to Describe Complex Educational Change**

The complexity of educational change has been summarised by Wallace and Pocklington (2001) in a three dimensional model. On one dimension are the factors that make change complex. These are that it is large-scale, componential,

systemic, differentially impacting and contextually dependent. On another axis are the three stages of the change process from Fullan (2001), those of initiation, implementation and institutionalisation. The last axis has themes for change management of the meta task of orchestration (pulling all themes around change together), flexible planning and co-ordination, reflecting the need to do this in order to reflect complexity, the need to build new cultures and to have good communication systems in order that these occur, and to have differentiated support depending upon the needs of the group requiring this. These three dimensions not only reflect the complexity of large-scale educational change but also provide a framework within which this process can be managed and facilitated. For instance, if seeking to implement change, new cultures have to be built up whilst taking account of the processes of change (different tactics would be used to facilitate initiation in comparison to institutionalisation), and the fact that these cultures will be, for instance, contextually dependent and differentially impacting. The model is overleaf, and will be used in the discussion section further.

**Figure 2.2 Relationship between Characteristics, Management Themes, and Stages of Complex Change from Wallace and Pocklington (2002, page 233)**



Carrington and Robinson (2004) highlight how change in inclusion requires both a change in culture and new skills. The new skills element relates in part to teacher confidence since a separate SEN pedagogy has come into question (Ainscow, Booth and Dyson, 2004), but could be included in the model in the sections relating to flexible planning and differentiated support.

## **2.7 Conclusion**

The complexities of the interactions between the three areas in the model above are immense, with complex educational change needing to take account of all of them. Whole scale educational change on a LEA level is complex, but even more so when the concept of inclusion, with the many potentially different narratives and definitions concerning this are incorporated. These structures are likely to be culturally dependent, in the local rather than national sense, and based upon individual, organisational and national history. This history includes the national climate of school improvement/OfSTED, central government initiatives driving education, and the construction of disability as being something apart from mainstream. Cognitive structures will be influenced by the discourse, and in turn will influence this as well. All of these concepts will be discussed further in relation to the results, and built upon in relation to social construction theory, especially the work of Foucault.

## CHAPTER THREE

### RESEARCH METHODOLOGY- BACKGROUND

#### 3.1 Introduction

Within this chapter the rationale for the methodological design of the research will be outlined, including the background to the approaches in terms of theory, culminating in a model based initially on grounded theory (Glaser and Strauss, 1967) and heuristic research (Moustakas, 1990). The framework of the research also lies within case study methodology and the theoretical elements of this approach will be outlined. Positivist methodological approaches have a number of fundamental flaws (see Robson, 1993, 2002), with the concept of science itself being a social construction of reality (Foucault, 1969), a good model for humans to make sense of the world but not a perfect one. The benefits of social constructionism will be outlined as a potential theoretical base for methodological approaches, along with limitations of the approach. Some of the possibilities, and concerns, around grounded theory will be explored, before the usefulness of heuristic research, and post- modernism will be discussed and incorporated into the model. Discourse analysis, and other forms of analysis will be described in relation to the formulation of theories from the data, with some of the limitations of the approaches also discussed. In conclusion the various approaches will be amalgamated into one model, and a description of how it relates to the research will be outlined. In the Discussion the model of how humans model the world along the relativist- realist continuum will be described in relation to the data, with an argument that the theoretical and philosophical backgrounds to research, and

how humans model the world, can not be divorced from the analysis of data. Within this chapter links with research philosophy will be made.

The research questions were changed as the research took place, as described in the model of research developed later in the chapter. Both written and spoken discourses formed the data. Artefacts were also used, where relevant, for instance the placement of furniture and people in meetings and classroom, photographs and the visual format of materials.

The definition of methodology (Cohen, Manion and Morrison 2000, p44) is based on the aim to:

*“Helping us understand, in the broadest possible terms, not the products of scientific enquiry but the process itself”. “*

as distinct from methods which are defined as:

*“techniques and procedures used in the process of data gathering”*

However, in the spirit of the scepticism over science as a totally representative model, that I will outline later, this definition will be reframed as being “to help us understand in the broadest possible terms, not the products of rigorous academic study, but the process itself”.

### **3.2 Philosophy of Science**

Scientific approaches from a positivist philosophy have underpinned much educational research (Cohen, Manion and Morrison, 2000, Robson, 2002) over the past decades. This has also been true in psychology where examples of

these approaches include psychometrics (Elliott, Murray and Pearson, 1983), behavioural psychology (Skinner, 1938, Ainscow and Twedde, 1979) and cognitive science (Eysenck, 2001). All of these approaches argue that there is an objective world to be measured and investigated scientifically. This positivist view has had a significant influence on the practice of education. However, there have been alternative approaches to view and predict events, which are not so directly tied into this scientific, positivist model of the world. I will outline some of the recent developments in the philosophy of science, before arguing that science, as a method of modelling the world is not infallible, and is in fact a social construction, albeit a very good one, for representing and investigating the world.

Before science, humans modelled the world via ideas of magic or religion. The sun rose because it was a God, or it was a God's will. Friends died because it was a God's will that they should do so when trying to walk naked in sub zero temperatures. Hart (1998, p88) discusses how the research of Evans-Pritchard (1937) demonstrated that magical explanations of the world can have as much logical explanatory power as ones based on science. Scientific models are developed by humans as a way of predicting the world, where there were rational reasons for events, based on scientific methodology, logical analysis where ideas were either proven or rejected in an objective approach. It was into this tradition that both psychology and educational research tied themselves from their origins in the late nineteenth century. An example of the approach of psychology to try to gain respectability in the scientific field can be seen by the title of George Miller's

1962 book "Psychology: The science of mental life". Behavioural psychology went further (Skinner, 1938) in stating that the only valid thing to investigate was the behaviour demonstrated by humans and animals, with the black box of consciousness being beyond scientific investigation, not being able to be objectively observed. Whilst psychology and education strove to demonstrate their scientific credentials, the philosophy of science had developed through several philosophical stages as demonstrated below.

In early versions of science from the sixteenth and seventeenth centuries, the view was that what was seen was objectively true. These scientific facts were deemed to be true in whatever human context they are found. Descartes (see Magee, 1978, p76) was significant in that he saw a clear dualism between mind and the reality of the world outside. This disciplinary discourse/episteme dominated scientific investigation for centuries, and still has a major impact in the twenty first century. Recent philosophers of science have however questioned this model and new methodologies have developed.

For instance, what we perceive differs according to the context (Gregory, 1977). It is not the physical world that provides explanations, but our constructions of how we have perceived it, demonstrated by visual illusions, caused not by the world outside of the observer but by the cognitive constructions of reality from the observer themselves. These cognitive constructions are also determined in some

cases by cultural considerations. Human beings are not objective viewers of the world but active construers of it.

### **3.2.1 Kuhn**

Kuhn's (1996) premise was that science builds itself explanatory paradigms within which explanation occurs before then moving onto the next paradigm. This was demonstrated by looking historically at how science has moved and developed theory and explanations. The paradigms described by Kuhn (1996) are such that existing theory is built into them before they ultimately become untenable, and therefore another paradigm is then constructed, to replace the original one. In turn all explanations occur within this before it in turn is replaced. Methods to prove and disprove theory occur, but only within the set paradigm, not within the logical, objective models that science proposes. These paradigms are very similar to Foucault's (1969) epistemes. What neither author has been able to demonstrate is how paradigms shift, other than Foucault arguing that this is due to an accumulation of discourses.

### **3.2.2 Lakatos**

Kuhnian theories have been built upon by Lakatos (1976) who described a hard-core paradigm, much like Kuhn's, with a softer edge where disputes are allowed to occur without the hard core being adversely affected. Chalmers (1999) relates how this theory is a stepping-stone onto those of Feyerabend (1993), since these

soft edges of theory can lack structure in what they predict and can appear to be close to the anarchist theories of science proposed by Feyerabend.

### **3.2.3 Feyerabend**

Feyerabend (1993) has questioned the whole scientific premise of our models of the world. He argues that science acts as a controlling mechanism for society, and that in reality it is no more powerful than magic as an explanatory tool.

Science restricts human thought within certain paradigms/ disciplinary discourses and allows power and control of action. Feyerabend's theories are related to the deconstructivist and post-modern theories described later in this chapter. Writers such as Foucault (1977) argue that knowledge and structures are created by our discourses and that these serve as a function of control (Foucault, 1979, 2003a). The discourse around science permeates all structures of thought, in turn acting as a stabilising and controlling mechanism.

### **3.2.4 Further Criticisms of Positivist Theory**

Within the scientific community, debate surrounds the degree of explanatory power that science has. Goedel, an Austrian mathematician, demonstrated in the middle of the 20<sup>th</sup> Century that, within any mathematical axiom, there comes a point where mathematics could not prove the theory within mathematics but had to resort to an explanation that it was true because it was true (see Podnieks, 1992 for further discussion on this topic). Mathematics claims to be the purest

form of science. Likewise in physics, Chalmers (1999, p225), a physicist and philosopher of science, says concerning causal laws:

*“What makes systems behave in accordance with the conservation of energy? I don’t know. They just do. I am not entirely comfortable with this situation, but I don’t see how it can be avoided.”*

Chalmers looks briefly over the precipice into the implications of this then quickly disappears back into the security of scientific explanations, particularly those of a Bayesian orientation. However, he recognises the influence that human constructions have upon scientific study. Robson (2002) in the second edition of his research methodology text, *Real World Research*, has moved significantly away from the first edition of the book (Robson, 1993). The first edition discussed how real world research is often difficult to achieve without recognising that human interactions with the data have an influence. The second edition goes further in using the realist model of Pawson and Tilley (1997). In their model they recognise that a commonly held mechanism exists but that actions and contexts, often human, have a part to play in the outcome. Things exist whether we view them or not, but our constructions make a significant difference (Bhaskar, 1993, p7).

### **3.2.5 Conclusions**

Feyerabend (1993) goes too far in totally rejecting science as a model. This is because it does provide a better explanatory framework than magic, is the best current model we have for predicting the world, and has advanced our

knowledge. For instance significant advances in medicine, paralleled with economic prosperity, have led to longer life expectancies in many of the nations using science as a model for the world. The limitations are in not providing a total explanatory framework, especially from the positivist perspective, and when investigating how humans model the world. Human behaviour always occurs within a context; historical, cultural and political, that influences both the researcher and researched. This point will be elaborated upon later on, where a model of the realist- relativist split will be described, and expanded upon in relation to the data analysis of the study.

It is when the above discussion is taken into consideration that qualitative research has much to offer, in that it recognises that investigations are never neutral, and involve interactions and interpretations that are bound up with the context within which they occur, especially in relation to human interactions, expanded upon in the next section. This is the context of the research questions posed by myself in relation to the representation of change around inclusion.

Both qualitative (Silverman, 2000) and quantitative (Cohen, Manion and Morrison, 2001) approaches to research can be used as investigative tools, as they are tools, not an underlying philosophy. However researchers using qualitative methods tend to be influenced by relativist models and those using qualitative, realist/positivist ones.

In the Discussion I will outline how the social constructionist approach of Foucault (1977), and some of the explanatory framework of the research is consistent with the more relativist position taken here towards research methodology.

### **3.3 A Model Demonstrating the Influence of Realism and Relativism**

The split between positivist/ realist and relativist approaches to research has been summarised in the following model. The description of realist approaches will be that used by Robson (2002):

*“Realism can provide a model of scientific explanation which avoids both positivism and relativism”,*

rather than that of Burr (1995) :

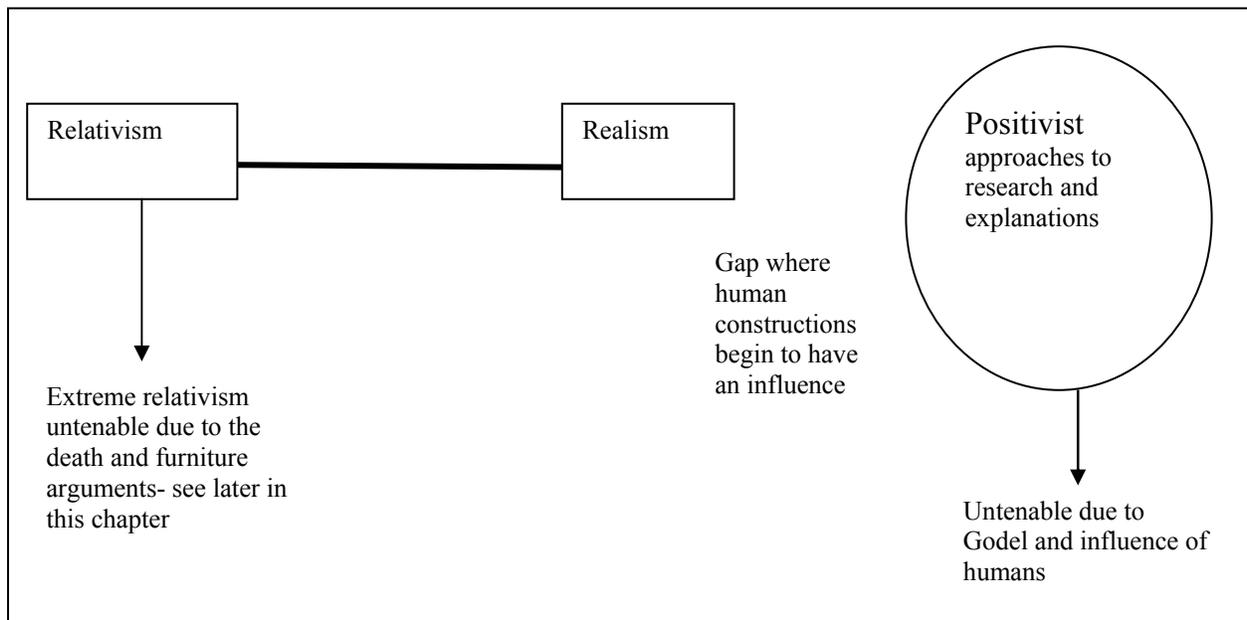
*“Realism is an ontological theory which states that the external world exists independently of thought of or perceived” .*

Robson's description places realism firmly away from positivist thought, where human constructions have an influence, whilst Burr does not distinguish between the two. In the model positivism is separate from the continuum where realism lies on one end and relativism on the other. It could be argued that there should be a gap between the continuum representing the various influences of human construction play in relation to the world, and hard line relativism (where nothing is seen as existing outside of human constructions). However, Gibbs (2002, p6) argues that even the most extreme social construction theorists fall into language that explains the world in realist terms, with terms such as

“reveal”, and “dig down to” suggesting “*an implicit belief in an underlying reality*”.

Further discussions around issues of social constructionist approach will be made later in this chapter.

**Figure 3.1 The Relativist- Realist Split**



The model has the continuum of the relativist-realist split and it will be argued in the discussion section that where explanations and models of the world lie on this can vary from person to person, subject discussed to subject discussed and that people can move explanations along the continuum during one conversation.

Along the realist- relativist continuum different researchers and philosophers of science can be placed. Robson (2002) would lie closer to the realist end, in that he has an objective world which humans interpret, Parker (1998) somewhere

between the centre and relativist side, and Feyerabend (1996) closer to the relativist part of the continuum. This is despite his argument that he is not a relativist in the introduction to the 1996 Edition of “Against Method”. During the analysis of results the model will be explored further, and criticisms of an extreme relativist position made later in this chapter when discussing social constructivist approaches.

### **3.4 Case Study Research Methodology**

Case study research provided the structure/ framework of the investigation, with methodology used within this framework arising from grounded theory, heuristic research, and social constructivism.

#### ***3.4.1 The Rationale for Case Study Research***

Gillham (2000, p11) argues that human behaviour is determined by context, is only understood in this context and that “objective” research produces artefacts itself, so that all cases have many unique features. Therefore, in order to work with humans in a naturalist setting, and to provide explanations within real life situations, case study provides an excellent model.

Case studies are defined as Stake (1995, pxi):

*“the study of the particularity and complexity of a single case, coming to understand it’s activity within certain circumstances”.*

and, Robson (2002, p177):

*“In case study, the case is the situation, individual, group, organisation or whatever it is that we are interested in”*

Therefore the case study has clear boundaries around the system/ item/person to be studied, this is normally of special interest and can involve many varied methods of investigation. Yin (1994) argues that quantitative methods are equally valid for case study research whilst Silverman (2000) sees that distinction between qualitative and quantitative research as artificial and lazy in that researchers should choose the best methodology for their research questions. Following earlier arguments concerning the importance of the influence of human constructions of reality, both approaches are determined by the context of investigation and so are flawed equally if this is not recognised.

Yin (1994, p39) describes case studies along two dimensions, one axis being single cases-multiples cases and the other axis being single units (items to be studied in one case)-multiple units. The benefit of a single case study is in depth research into one bounded system/individual. Multiple case studies of several bounded systems provide a wider range of explanatory situations, hence making generalisation easier, because more than one situation is investigated. If a single case is used there needs to be rationale as to why it is critical, extreme or unique, whilst multiple cases need clear boundaries to avoid them contaminating each other. A single unit needs to reflect important things whilst multiple units need to be kept in focus by the investigator to avoid cross contamination. The case study described here could be seen as one large one (a local authority's

model of inclusion) or a series of smaller ones (LEA officers views, views expressed at public meetings, a school's views). This study is critical in that it is a very large organisation undergoing change. It makes more sense in the context of the conflict described later to treat the study as a series of smaller case studies, all bounded by one larger context for discourse.

There appear to be two theoretical orientations behind case study research. Yin (1994) comes from a more scientific tradition where theories have to be tested within a positivist framework, or at least he argues for case studies within this orientation due to being one of the first researchers to argue for the validity of case research. Gillham (2000) and Stake (1995) view case studies as methods to investigate naturalistic settings. Gillham (2000, p11) argues that context determines behaviour, with the behaviour only being understood within this context. He also argues that objective research does not exist as such, with this type of research providing artefacts from a social world as well.

Yin (1994) looks at case studies as being reliable and valid if designed and implemented thoroughly, rather than the one off interesting areas of research as argued by Gillham (2000) and Stake (1995).

Stake (1995) and Gillham (2000) would argue that generalisation is difficult anyway, and that intrinsic interest is a motivation in itself. The possibility of

generalisation will be expanded further in the developed research model, and discussed at the end of this chapter, and in the Discussion.

### ***3.4.2 Pre- Existing Theory in Case Study Research***

There appear to be two conflicting views about going into case studies with pre-existing theories/ research questions to test. This is perhaps due to case studies being a methodology that can incorporate a wide range of research philosophies. Yin (1994), coming from a more positivist stance, argues strongly that case studies should investigate pre-existing hypotheses. Gillham (2000) associates case studies with grounded theory (Glaser and Strauss, 1967), where the investigator should not enter into the investigation with any theory, but to be directed by what is discovered along the way. Grounded theory has a major flaw in that any investigator is a product of the culture/ episteme they were brought up in, including the educational biases that they have received, and so can never go into an investigation as a blank page. We all have discourse/paradigms that we carry around and the through investigator recognises these. Grounded theory, or at least the initial theory, since Strauss and Corbin (1990) appear to have incorporated some of these criticisms into later work, ignores these prejudices in the same way that positivist research does. However it does recognise that interaction between the researcher and researched produces effects. At the other extreme, to go into a case study investigation with too rigid hypotheses that shape the investigation and prejudice outcomes also provide difficulties. Case studies require an open critical mind, which recognises, but is also prepared to challenge, the pre-existing hypotheses.

### ***3.4.3 Comparisons Between Ideas on Case Study Methodology***

The following table was developed to describe the main theoretical differences that different authors have made around case study methods of investigation. Some of the texts are specially concerned with case studies whilst others are more general in approach.

**Table 3.1: The Main Theoretical Frameworks for Case Study Research**

<i>Author</i>	<b>Is a theory needed before starting the research?</b>	<b>Types</b>	<b>Requirements</b>	<b>Benefits of case study methodology</b>	<b>Faults with case study methodology</b>	<b>Is generalisation possible?</b>
<i>Yin (1994)</i>	Yes- part of scientific enquiry. To be changed by findings	Exploratory, descriptive, explanatory	Skills in research, validity	Empirical study in natural surroundings	Lack of rigour can devalue research, varies according to methods used (see page 90)	Yes (the same as it is with one experiment)
<i>Robson (1993)</i>	Yes- need to have a conceptual framework and set of research questions	Follows Yin's structures, also a contemporary system in real life contexts	Personal researcher qualities in questioning, listening, flexibility, grasp of issues and lack of bias	Bounded system overview	Can be carried out in a sloppy manner, case studies can vary in methods.	Yes, with caution
<i>Robson (2002)</i>	Yes- need to have research questions but these can arise out of the data as well	As in his previous edition of the book, argues from Yin's structures	As in previous edition of book (1993)	Flexibility, a fundamentally different research method from experimental approaches	Not rigorous enough in some instances, need for clear roles if more than one researcher	Yes, with caution
<i>Stake (1995)</i>	Yes- need to have conceptual structures	A bounded system/ individual case.	Rigour	An understanding of complex relationships in real life situations	Ethical risks, more subjective than many other methods	Yes with caution but not really an issue- the case itself is of interest
<i>Cohen, Manion and Morrison (2000)</i>		A bounded system- distinguishing feature is what is studied rather than methods used	Systematic and rigorous data gathering and analysis	Strong in reality, recognise complexities, produce good material, step to action, publicly accessible.	Some difficulties in generalisation other than where seen by reader, not easy to cross check due to objectivity, observer bias	Yes about an instance or from an instance wider
<i>Edwards and Talbot (1999)</i>		To look at inter-relationships. To explain, describe, explore.	Rigour	In depth focus on relationships, complexities captured, focus on local understanding, readable, real life data	Intrusive, case bound, requires quality data, time consuming, difficult to analyses	
<i>Gillham (2000)</i>	No- bases case studies upon grounded theory- questions emerge.	Individual, group, institution, community	Rigour, database of evidence	Studying humans in natural surroundings, allowing working in areas experiments cannot enter.	Need extreme rigour	No- does not matter
<i>Silverman (2000, 2001)</i>	Depends upon type of case study – normally yes	Depends on questions asked	Rigour		Reliability, validity	Sometimes under certain conditions

#### **3.4.4 Further Problems with Case Study Research**

A significant danger occurs when the analysis of the situation is rigorous, but only relates to that situation. Examples can be seen of this in Stake (1995) and Duncan (1999). In Stake's otherwise authoritative work is an example of a school case study. The study makes interesting reading in itself, but there is little theoretical discussion or generalisation, so it reads as a well-argued newspaper article rather than an academic study. Duncan's (1999) book, based on his PhD, explores sexual bullying via case studies in several West Midland schools. He uses innovative techniques such as group Q Sorts, but fails to produce many findings that could be generalised. His book again reads as an interesting account of interactions within a secondary school setting but in the final analysis is little more informative than a real life episode of East Enders, although more compelling and violent! Models of case studies in order to further our knowledge have to have some explanatory framework that goes beyond the interesting situation to be analysed of Gillham (2000).

#### **3.4.5 The Role of the Researcher in Case Studies**

Lacey (2001, p6) states:

*“Case study research is not unproblematic in that what one sees, hears and reads is not what exactly happens”.*

She argues that the researcher influences the situation, and that events can occur due to this. I had to take full account of this in that my position within the

local authority was a senior manager, going into schools and meetings during a period of time that was difficult for many teachers, parents and LEA staff.

However, from a Foucauldian perspective, discourses and epistemes are what make “the truth”, and these, as is argued, had shared meaning across all case studies.

There are several roles highlighted by Yin (1994), Stake (1995) and Gillham (2000) for the researcher within case studies, for instance a continuum between being a detached observer looking in and a participant researcher. The distinction is really a matter of degree since any person researching a real life situation is going to have an influence upon it. The question is to the extent of this influence. A participant research case study can be both action research (Winter, 1996) and/or co-operative inquiry (Reason, 1988). This is because when the researcher is a full participant, recognised by both the researched and researcher. There is then a responsibility that the researcher has in any action that comes from the study. This is part of what Edwards and Talbot (1999) term the responsibility of the researcher towards those people in the researched situation. There is a responsibility not to abuse positions of researcher, for instance in the use the research to influence future events to the detriment of participants without their permission.

### 3.5 Grounded Theory

Miller (1996) and Webster and Beech (2000) both describe research based on grounded theory (Glaser and Strauss, 1967). Miller (1995) discusses the work of Glaser and Strauss (1967) within Hutchinson's (1988) diagrammatic model.

Grounded theory argues that theory should arise out of the data, rather than being imposed upon it. The researcher should enter into the research situation with no preconceived ideas or theory. Glaser (1992, p15) argues that :

*“Grounded theory is 1. Grounded systematically in the data and 2. Is neither forced nor reified (concepts which relate to no data).”*

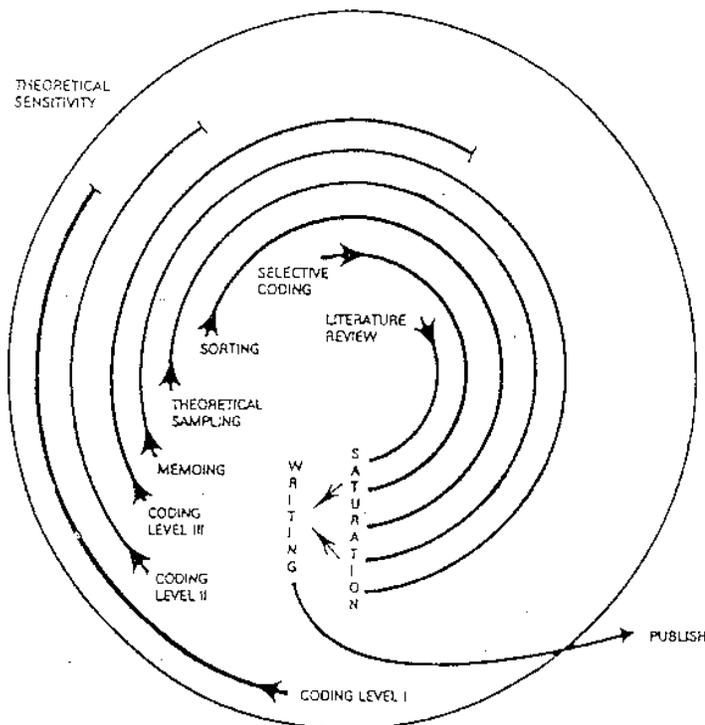
Therefore the distinction is made from other methodologies in that the theory arises from the data analysed, and therefore no theories are artificially forced from the study. In this way no existing research questions should be made, with the questions and theory emerging from the study. The Hutchinson (1988) model, on the following page , is a way of representing the main ideas of Glaser and Strauss (1967) diagrammatically.

In this model level i coding is open coding of data (coding without linking nodes together) that occurs throughout the initial investigation, level ii is initial categorisation (starting to group nodes of data) and level iii academic/ theoretical categorisation (starting to use theory to categorise), referred to as axial coding by Glaser and Strauss (1967). Memoing relates to questions concerning the codes

themselves and noting the main findings whilst theoretical sampling is transcripts of the relevant data.

**Figure 3.2**

**A visual analogue of the grounded theory process (from Hutchinson, 1988)**



A major difficulty with grounded theory is reflected in the methodology used by Miller (1996) and Webster and Beech (2000). Miller developed a questionnaire in his research that reveals his background in, and orientation towards, behavioural psychology, a paradigm that still influences him (Miller, 2003). The questionnaire was part of a study being based on grounded theory, but demonstrated that no one operates as a “blank slate” in investigations. Miller’s background in

behavioural approaches was obvious in how some of the questions were formulated. Webster and Beech worked with adults convicted of sexually abusing children. Their study is related directly to their role within the prison service. Phrases they use to describe the offenders, such as “*child molesters and rapists*”, do not reflect the researcher acting as a blank slate going neutrally into an investigation, with no preconceived theory. The very act of researching an area means no neutrality exists. All research is carried out for a purpose whether it is personal interest, financial gain, to achieve a particular qualification or academic recognition. None of these imply a neutral stance.

No person is a vacuum, going into a research situation with no cognitive models, views of the world, or a mediation of the meanings by the use of language. We all have schemata and frameworks to model the world around us. Vygotsky (1979) and Engestrom, Miettinen, and Punamaki, (1999) argue that such concepts develop from history and social interactions. Haber (1994, p1) , although not specifically discussing grounded theory, argues :

*“ There is no view from nowhere. We can never leave all our prejudices behind and operate from a wholly disinterested standpoint, but our prejudices only become dangerous when they are dogmatic, kept hidden from view and not open to discussion” .*

Hart (1998, p51) makes a related point:

*“ All research originates from some view of reality which means that there are different ways of giving an understanding of the world and different ways of confirming our understanding of knowledge”.*

Since the publication of their initial work, the two authors of grounded theory have taken divergent paths from the original theory, with Strauss (Strauss and Corbin, 1980) viewing pre-existing ideas having a place and Glaser (1992) seeing this as forcing theory onto data. Strauss appears to have moved more along the realist line, whilst Glaser has kept to the more relativist orientation of the initial research (Gibbs, 2002). However, Glaser in his writing makes a number of contradictions to grounded theory, despite his arguments that his remains the purer form of it. He recognises the traditions Strauss and he came from when originating grounded theory (Glaser 1992, p7 and p16). Grounded theory came from Strauss and Glaser's history and the paradigms they worked within, not from the neutral viewpoint argued for. Glaser also argues (p42) that when making a category following open coding, this needs to be relevant and that is the researcher who decides the category or categories to be used. The decision in this case can only arise from the history, culture, social interactions, educational background and discourses that the researcher has. No theory can arise totally from the data. In case study research it is frequently from an interaction between the researcher(s) and the researched, and the data that arises from this. The very act of a researcher entering into a research situation changes the relationships, discourses and environment of the situation to be investigated.

Despite the difficulties outlined above with grounded theory it has formed the basis of the model of investigation to underpin my research, which will be

described and developed within this assignment. It has the advantages of the research/data forming the research questions and theory arising from the data. However, at the same time ways of recognising the influence of the researcher into the process needs to occur. Models and processes arising from social constructionist and heuristic research theory can provide such a structure.

### **3.6 Social Constructionism**

Social constructionism is a radical departure from traditional approaches in psychology based on scientific methodology. The work of Foucault can be seen within this broad framework.

Nightingale and Cronby (1999, p229) define social constructionism as:

*“an umbrella term that describes a set of approaches within contemporary psychology that are opposed to the empiricism and positivism of mainstream psychology. Broadly, social constructivists are concerned with the ways in which social and psychological reality are actively construed (rather than pre-existing) phenomena”*

These approaches include Foucault (1977), Vygotsky (1978), discourse analysis (Billington, 2002) and personal construct psychology (Kelly, 1955). The range of theoretical orientations that fall within the broad umbrella can be seen in the collection of Gergen and Gergen (2002).

Gergen (1999, p60) gives a distinction between social constructivism, where the mind constructs reality in relation to the world, and social constructionism, where the primary emphasis is on discourse as the medium for this.

Burr (1995) gives another good summary of the range of views within social constructionism, as well as an overview of the main elements of the theory. The range are from those that feel that most of reality is socially construed to those veering towards the positivist and empirical tradition where almost all reality exists independently, to be investigated and tested. This relativist- realist split (Parker 1998) lies at the heart of much of the philosophical debate in the field, and can be seen in the arguments of Willig (1998) and Parker (1998) at different ends of the spectrum. The difficulty with an extreme relativist position is that it is difficult to refute the two arguments categorised as the death and furniture arguments (Edwards, Ashmore and Potter, 1995). Extreme relativism can take no moral position on such issues as the Holocaust and ethnic cleansing in Bosnia, arguing that such are social constructions of reality and that anything can go (the death argument). Willig (1998) tries to argue from a revolutionary socialist and feminist position that her relativist views do not conflict with her politics because it is not the fact that a positivist reality exists that matters, but it is in taking sides. In her paper there are several philosophical knots that she ties herself in that remain unresolved, such as who decides on the sides to take. By taking up a definite political position based on Marxism, Willig is imposing models based on a positivist tradition, which contradicts her social

constructionist one. However, the “death” argument in itself is a moral reason not to take an extreme relativist position, but is not a philosophical reason against it. Morals are a very clear example of social constructions, ones that vary from social order to social order and from time to time. For instance, there are examples of cannibalism occurring during periods of starvation, and within some non-western cultures, an example of a moral position being altered by circumstance and culture.

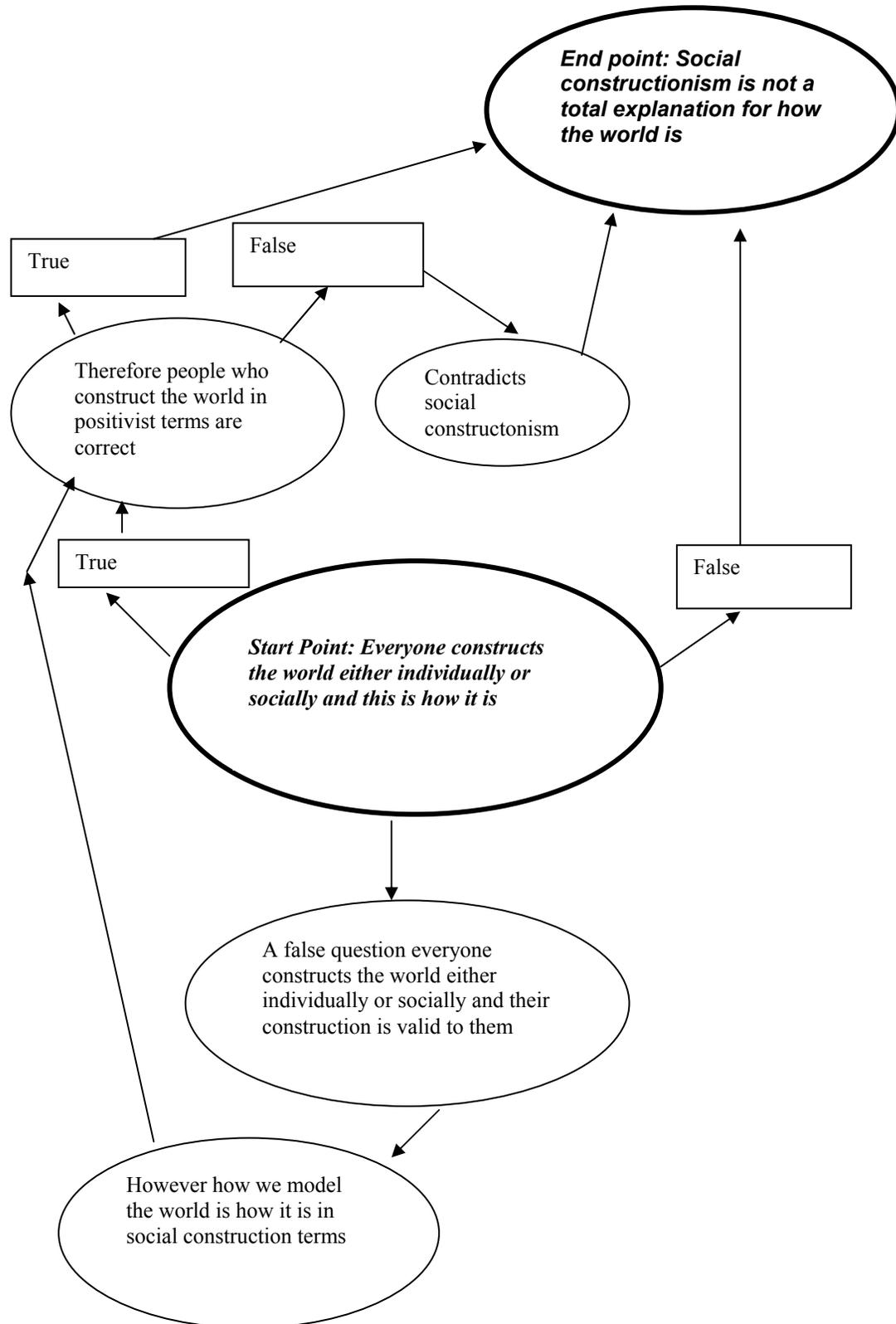
The furniture argument states that when an elbow hits a table a clear physical reality exists. The table makes contact with the elbow and for most people a definite reality exists, depending upon the force used. This can also be demonstrated by reframing the death argument. If a person shoots themselves in the head, whilst simultaneously being run over by a bus and being electrocuted by 10000 volts, they are dead and no matter of social construing can bring them back to life.

Parker (1998) treads through these arguments to facilitate a philosophical position. He claims that there are some clear social, moral and physical realities that exist. However, the way in which we construe them alters reality for us in a relativist way. Therefore, an art dealer, a carpenter and someone dying of cold who has a match and large axe, and no other fuel, view a Chippendale table very differently. This is especially true when we work at the level of human

interactions, social organisations and models of the world, all areas covered by the research described in the dissertation.

Another contradiction in an extreme relativist position can be seen in the following model. By allowing all people's constructions to be true (even for the individual and no one else) contradictions arise, in that you have to allow a positivist stance to be seen as true, even for the one individual, contradicting social constructionism.

**Figure 3.3 A Model of Contradictions within Extreme Social Constructionist Philosophy - the start point is in the centre of the figure in italics and finish point at the top in italics**



By using the model where a continuum of modelling the world exists along a realist- relativist continuum, as in figure 3.1, then we allow people to move according to their own constructions and how the world is. The arguments here will be expanded further when looking at people's discourses around inclusion later in the dissertation. However, examples of a more relativist stance can be seen in discussions around the very concept of inclusion because it has to do with attitudes, feelings and senses of belonging (Rieser and Mason, 1992). Constructions about the cooking time for an egg however are of a more realist nature, although still governed by constructions such as past experience, how runny you like the yolk and past history/epistemes.

Hacking (1999) outlines some of the criticisms of the social construction philosophy, including the fact that such conditions as anorexia existed before any medical term to describe it existed.

The next sections will briefly demonstrate models that can help us further expand these ideas, before then going on to explore further helpful research frameworks that influence the research model that has been developed from grounded research.

### **3.7 Socio-Cultural Psychology and Social Activity Theory**

Both of these theories arise out of the work of Vygotsky (1977). Daniels (2001) and Engestrom, Miettinen and Punamaki (1999) provide further explanations of the respective theories. The main difference between them is the emphasis socio-cultural psychology places on language as a mediator between thought and the world, whilst activity theory places the emphasis on the activities that people engage in. What the two theories have in common is the influence of cultural and social constructions of reality, using discourse to model this. A benefit in the approach is that these discourses are seen not to arise out of nowhere but to be a product of people's history and culture and the social interactions that arise from there. There are clear implications here for how people are modelling change around the issues of inclusion. Their perceptions will arise out of the language used, the artefacts around them (for instance the school building for people connected with a special school), and the history that allows these constructions to grow, all areas potentially to be investigated.

### **3.8 The Deconstruction Movement/ Post- Modernism**

The deconstruction and post- modernist movements (Billington 1999, Burman 1994, Foucault 1977 and Thomas and Loxley, 2001) look beyond the historical and cultural issues, to ask questions about the political and power relationships underpinning the theories. These highlight implications for educational policies, and the structures and theories surrounding them. The tools deconstruct the theory, for instance Burman (1994) placing the maternal deprivation theory of

Bowlby (1953) in the context of the need to remove women from factories, back into homes following the end of the Second World War. As such these provide possible frameworks for investigating peoples models of change, especially in regard to documentation from the local education authority and schools. The approach can be seen as a research method where research is designed to look into the power relationships that underpin the structures, but will also be used as an analytical tool in the discussion section of the dissertation. Post modernist approaches (Haber, 1994) also seek to demonstrate that any grand narrative to explain events is false.

Smith (1997, p7) links post-modern thought with theories of objective reality when discussing therapy:

*“...(they) operate from the premise that all knowledge, including “scientific knowledge” is perspectival, rather than assuming that professionals have access to “objective truth”...”*

### **3.9 Discourse Analysis**

Discourse analysis (Edwards and Potter, 1992) is a method for analysing discourses, with a standard notation. The theoretical underpinning of the research, as seen in the work of Edwards and Potter, argues that discourse reveals all peoples' cognitive structure of the world. The arguments, however, are as empty as the earlier behavioural psychology of Skinner (1938), who argued that only observable behaviour could be scientifically studied. Likewise, to argue that the only thing worth studying is discourse could potentially miss out on other

dimensions, caused by the researchers pre-existing premises, the relative perceived positions of power influencing what is said and written, and discourse being used for political purposes, rather than truly reflecting what is occurring with cognitive models. Discourse analysis in itself is also such a detailed process that you can lose sight of any larger picture. The detailed analysis of all data in the research will therefore not occur within discourse analytical frameworks (Edwards and Potter, 1992). However, the power of discourse in representing meaning for the individual, and investigation of this discourse, will be a key part of the design of the study, its methodology and analysis.

Billington (2000) discusses another view of discourse in which more than the actual discourse is analysed. For instance, the context, historical and cultural contexts within which the discourses also arise from part of the investigation. This will be the type of analysis of discourse used during the study, but again, not to the depth suggested by Billington.

### **3.10 Participatory Research**

Participatory research involves the researcher actively engaging the researched as co-researchers/participants in the process (Reason, 1988). To do so enables change to occur more fully, with mutual involvement, and researcher- researched power relations being on a far more equal footing. Initially it was thought that this would be the approach used in the study to empower special schools to become more inclusive. However, this had to be abandoned due to situations arising both politically and time-wise. Oliver (1992) goes further, than Reason (1988), in

arguing that with disabled groups, research ought to be a venture where the disabled direct what is researched from their perspective and needs. This is rather than the historical precedent of having research carried out on them, with the power relations implied in this process. Once again this theory was to be used but had to be abandoned, due to the discourses coming mainly from the teachers, parents and officers, rather than the students. Participatory research would be a logical next step for future research in Hibbing.

### **3.11 Heuristic Research**

Moustakas (1990) formulated this theory of research from a humanist perspective. It has been used in the PhD of Prior (1997) in an investigation of change in an industrial setting. The various stages in the theory are outlined below, and I have incorporated it into grounded theory in order to describe the interactions that the researcher has with the data, including the influences of their own constructions upon it.

The main elements of the theory have many similarities with grounded theory but clearly recognises that the researcher brings their own discourses and paradigms into any research situation. The main criticism is that parts of it take on an almost mystical element, especially with terminology such as intuition and indwelling, which could lead to less vigorous research than intended by Moustakas.

The model provides an extra dimension to investigations in that it directly refers, not only to the influence of the researcher, but also the interactions between the researcher and researched. The theory has been mapped onto the model developed from grounded theory, as seen in table 3.2. The stage of incubation comes after the coding, whilst memoing in Glaser and Strauss (1967) terms can also include illumination and explication. Selective coding incorporates synthesis as well, whilst the link with the loop describing collaborative research is the validation element.

**Table 3.2- Moustakas's (1990) Theory of Heuristic Research - with my research mapped onto it.**

*Concepts*

1. Focus of enquiry- my research questions
2. Self dialogue- how my theory that I bring into the research influences it
3. Tacit knowledge- relating what I already know and its influence
4. Intuition- my through rigorous analysis of the data
5. Indwelling- to get a deeper meaning, more through data analysis
6. Focussing- down onto the concepts to be extracted from the data
7. Internal frames of reference- relating back to initial questions and analysis of where I was coming from

*Phases of Heuristic research*

1. Initial engagement- interviews
2. Immersion- in the research and data
3. Incubation- thinking about the implications
4. Illumination- theory through data analysis
5. Explication/more detailed analysis than 4- through data analysis
6. Creative synthesis- of data and theory arising from this
7. Validation in terms of meaning- checking back of theory with research participants

### 3.12 The Construction of Good Case Study

Robson (2002, p184) highlights the following factors as being necessary for rigorous case studies. Note is also made of how I took account of these.

**Table 3.3 Elements of Rigorous Case Study Planning from Robson (2002)**

Elements of Rigorous Case Study Planning	How These were Taken Into Account
Carrying out a plan	Done in terms of the theory of case study research, and the implementation of work in relation to this
Procedures relating to: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• The type of information to be collected</li> <li>• Access arrangements</li> <li>• Resources available</li> <li>• Schedule of data collection</li> </ul>	Achieved via agreements beforehand  Done in relation to my role Done in a time-scale relating to the strategy consultation period
Forming research questions	The questions changed during the study due to the elements of grounded theory in the research model
Reporting <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Outline of case study reports</li> <li>• Treating the full database as data</li> <li>• Making reports clear for the intended audience</li> </ul>	The full data available was used, for instance all consultation meetings, although not every teacher in the case study school, or LEA Officer was willing, or available, to be interviewed. Therefore a self-selecting sample was used. This is discussed in more detail later in the dissertation.
Flexibility in planning as the research progresses	This was done, for instance in relation to the research questions changing, and changing dates for meetings/ interviews when it was inconvenient for the participants
Carrying out a pilot study	This was not done in all situations, although a trial for the semi-structured interview occurred with LEA officers, the questions were agreed by the Head in the case study school, and practice in transcribing and analysing meetings and documents occurred in doctoral assignments before the research ensued.

### 3.13 Validity, and Reliability /Generalisation

Validity, reliability and generalisation could all provide difficulties for the qualitative researcher, especially if the research is based on social constructionism, where reality is defined by people's constructions, rather than it being objective. Cohen, Manion and Morrison (2000, p124) argue that further

difficulties arise with interviews in that in order to make the interviewed feel at ease, increasing validity, reliability suffers in that control of the elements of the conversation is less easy to achieve.

Yin (1994 p32-38) discusses validity and reliability in depth as areas that require careful consideration in order to ensure research designs of quality. As such, they were within the model described here. However, his version of case study research is more orientated towards the scientific tradition than other approaches, perhaps due to the need to argue for it within traditions based on this. Validity is broken into three areas by Yin in relation to case studies, with related tactics to ensure that they are occurring. Construct validity relates to ensuring that the analysis is not subjective when designing and evaluating research, with triangulation and key informants reviewing draft reports as tactics to avoid this. However, if you come from a more constructionist stance than Yin, where reality is seen as individual and social constructions, and not an objective truth, then construct validity is a more difficult area. Gibbs (2002) discusses how grounded theory uses saturation in order to check that no contradictory data is found. Triangulation can occur by investigating intra-personal constructs, but conflicts could clearly occur and is not so valid with interpersonal when people are construing things individually. For instance, checking a persons constructions from several different data sources is valid, but due to possible different individual constructions of reality, this is less valid when investigating different people, a perspective those towards the relativist end of the spectrum may take.

Yin (1994) defines internal validity as ensuring that, where causal relationships are investigated, that  $x$  led to  $y$ . The suggested tactics to ensure that this occurs are pattern matching (where different routes produce the same results) and time-series analysis (looking at events in sequence which relate to each other). However, once again this can only relate to individual validity from a constructivist perspective.

The third validity test defined by Yin is that of external validity, which is if the findings can be generalised beyond the case studied. From a constructionist stance this appears to be nonsensical in that cases are unique, and studied for intrinsic value (Stake, 1995, Gillham, 2000).

Reliability in Yin's definition relates to the study and findings being able to be replicated. Yin suggests that a database is developed which can be easily viewed, and that all research occurs as if someone is looking over the researchers shoulder so that procedures and routines are clear. In constructionist terms these findings can only be replicated with those individuals involved in developing the original constructions. However, general principles can be developed from the data, depending how far along the relativist- realist perspective (Parker 1998) the researcher is.

Miles and Huberman (1994, chapter 10) and Robson (2002, p101-106) expand on validity and reliability to a greater extent. Miles and Hubermans' criteria are

used in the latter part of the Discussion to investigate the limitations of the research. Robson expands reliability in terms of participant and researcher errors (e.g. tiredness, not being neutral). These again are discussed in more detail in the latter part of the Discussion.

Validity and reliability, in terms of a social constructionist perspective, can be checked with the researched by checking back with them at a later date.

Heuristic researches validation in terms of meaning (Moustakas, 1990), or by triangulation in terms of checking the same viewpoint from several directions.

Reliability can also be gained from different people in the same organisation in terms of their shared social constructions, or not as the case may be. These all occurred in the research described here as control mechanisms. The end of the Discussion section explores these constructs in more detail.

### **3.14 A Methodological Approach**

In light of the above elements of research enquiry a research model has been developed from the work of Hutchinson (1988) to take account of the researcher biases, background and construction of the world. Therefore in my model, figure 3.4, there is a feedback loop where the researcher's pre-existing constructions of the world are reflected upon at each stage of the process. This allows for pre-existing theories and ideas to be modified, and the biases/ pre-existing knowledge of the researcher to be recognised. In the model the process of

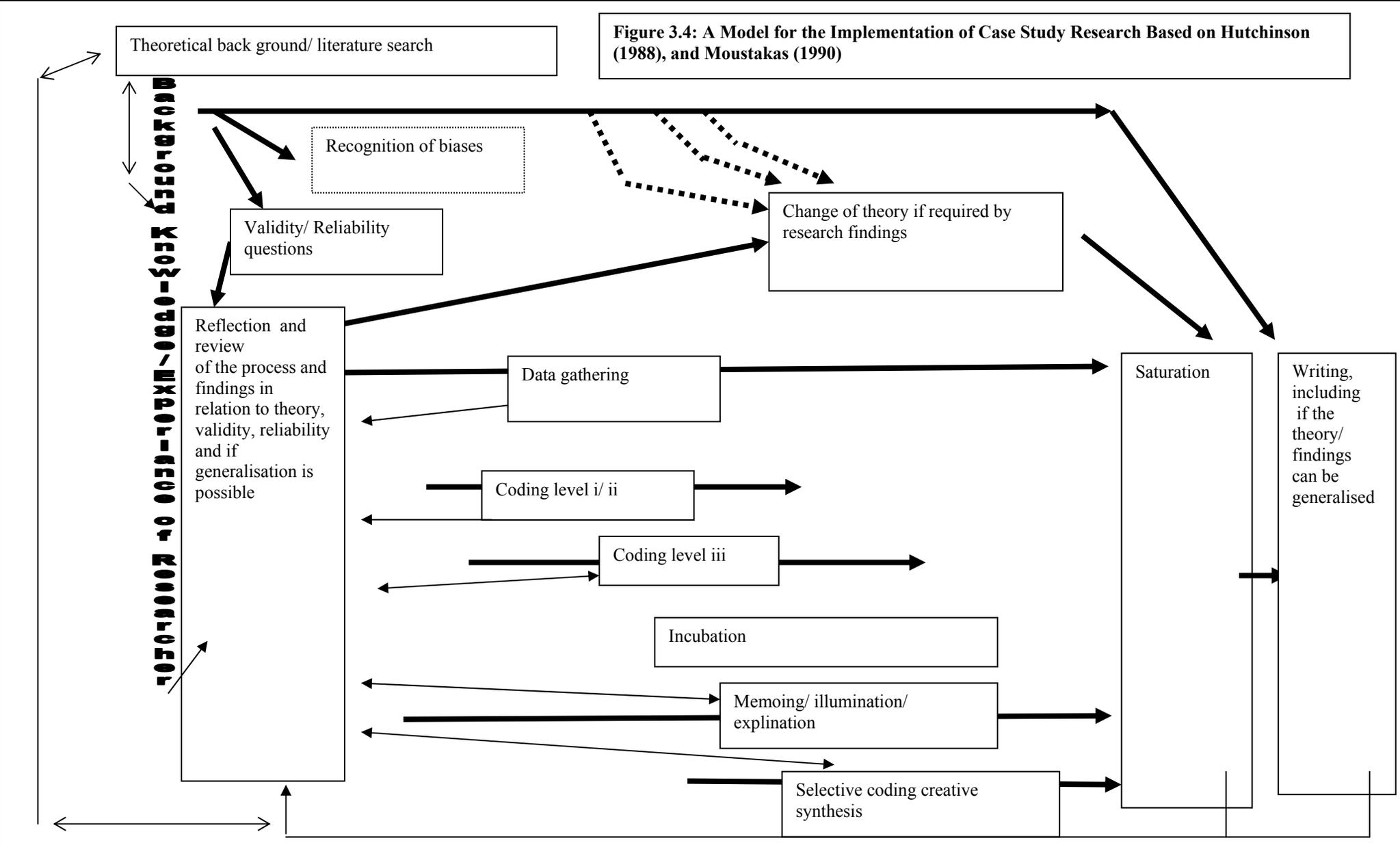
research are represented by the bold lines, the feedback by the solid, lighter lines, and possible routes of research by the firm dotted lines.

The three levels of coding are far closer than in Hutchinson's (1988) model, which is based on the work of Glaser and Strauss (1967). This is because, as has already been argued, pure grounded theory can not occur due to the pre-existing theories / schemata and representations of the world, knowledge, biases and prejudices of the researcher, which all need to be recognised as part of the research in a very open way. Humans continually categorise in order to make sense of the world (see the work of Kelly, 1955, Rosch, 1977, Piaget, 1953 and Anderson, 1980, for just a few examples of this from psychology). The initial open coding also involves some categorisation, but with feedback loops in order to recognise that this may be biased and therefore need to go into another direction. The academic based coding is to investigate further, not to impose ideas on the case studied. It therefore follows slightly later on the time line, but also informs some questions before the research starts, reflected in the top line relating to theoretical background/ literature search. These questions exist in a crude form, not heavily defined in the terms of traditional experimental research, nor not existing in the terms of grounded theory. The questions are adaptable and change according to what is discovered from the data. The memoing, relating to the further investigations into the process and findings, occurs throughout the study, hence the time line going backwards to the beginning, but

this will increase in intensity as more data is gathered and more questions arise from the analysis of it.

Elements of heuristic research (Moustakas, 1990) are included. The difficulties with not going into research with open questions, (within grounded theory there are questions but hidden because there are always reasons for research which drive the researcher), have been covered by having initial tentative questions which are adapted along the way. Self-dialogue occurs with the various feedback loops reflecting on the influence of the researchers cognitive models on the data. Tacit knowledge is incorporated, whilst the phases of heuristic research relate directly to the various coding stages of grounded theory.

**Figure 3.4: A Model for the Implementation of Case Study Research Based on Hutchinson (1988), and Moustakas (1990)**



Immersion is level one; incubation, level two; and illumination, explication and creative synthesis memoing, level three. The model proposed still contains elements of grounded theory in that it is theoretically sensitive e.g. able to be generated from data, (Glaser and Strauss, 1977, p47), involves emerging theory (p45), generates concepts (p38), and looks for patterns (Glaser, 1992, p85).

The model moves away from grounded theory, Glaser (1992, p32), which is for *“the discovery of concepts and hypotheses, not for testing or replicating them.”* since it does impose some researcher’s concepts onto the situation. I would argue that no study can be pure grounded theory, and that by recognising that all researchers have biases, and that this is reflected upon during the study as part of the process, the data can inform the theories arising out of it. Following the research generalisation of findings could be an issue, since the researcher is reflecting upon their own biases as part of the process, but only becomes so if you assume that some researchers enter studies as a blank sheet, which they do not. By recognising the pre-existing theoretical and historical underpinnings, research becomes easier to generalise, because these have been countered as much as possible during the process. What is important is to keep this self-reflection in proportion to the study in that the point of interests is the study itself (for instance the specific case) and that the reflection is part of the research process, not the end in itself.

Case study research provides the framework within which the model will be used. However, by the process of feedback from both the researcher by self-critical analysis, and the research participants, it will not be a static one and open to change.

The model reflects ways in which humans construct socially, in regard to culture, interactions, history and political concerns.

Analysis of data follows some discourse analysis procedures, but not to such a depth that it becomes so time consuming that any larger picture is lost.

My biases, and what I am bringing into the research situation, are reflected upon. The role I had within the local authority has a clear influence, with potential conflicts that had to be carefully negotiated. An example of such a conflict was when a special school was proposed for closing, staff could use the research to make a political point, rather than allowing a more in depth investigation of the change process. My own views in regard to a commitment towards inclusion, equal opportunities, a moral stance originating from a strong (lapsed) Methodist upbringing, a belief in the power of psychology and political views from a radical egalitarian perspective could also have had an influence, and were taken account of in any data analysis. Ways of doing this were by trying to “step away” from the data at regular intervals, to continually reflect upon the effect of my own biases, and the influence of my role. Care was taken to not

overcompensate in doing so, for instance in ignoring all views that were perceived to be similar to my own bias.

The construction of the research methodology was a learning journey for myself as a researcher. When entering the research I came from a background grounded in cognitive psychology, and school improvement. The development of the research model and research findings challenged these paradigms. Several significant moments occurred in a gradual process. One was the attendance at a West Midlands British Psychological Society conference on social constructionism, another the reading of works based on Foucault (e.g. Billington, 2000, Rose, 1998), and another investigating the philosophy of science (Chalmers, 1999). From these, and the data from the research, a new theoretical orientation based on a more relativist view was developed. This is explored further in the Discussion.

### **3.15 Conclusion**

In the above description of my research methodology a unique model based on grounded theory, with elements of collaborative enquiry and heuristic research has been presented. The framework of the enquiry will be within a case study approach. The rationale for such an approach has been argued for in terms of social constructivist theory, with scientific methods being a social construction, albeit a very good one, to predict the world.

The following chapter will explain how the methodology and model outlined above was enacted during the research. The case was a local authority undergoing an inclusion strategy, with sub-cases located within this, a series of particular public and school based meetings, a more detailed analysis of one school catering for pupils deemed to have moderate learning difficulties and LEA officer perspectives. The case study is not a complete case from start to finish, because, as Rieser and Mason (1992) argue, inclusion is a process, not an end result. As such the case describes one particular episode in the process in the local authority, where changes in specialist provision were being discussed.

## **CHAPTER FOUR DESCRIPTION OF THE METHODOLOGY IN ACTION**

The initial research questions were:

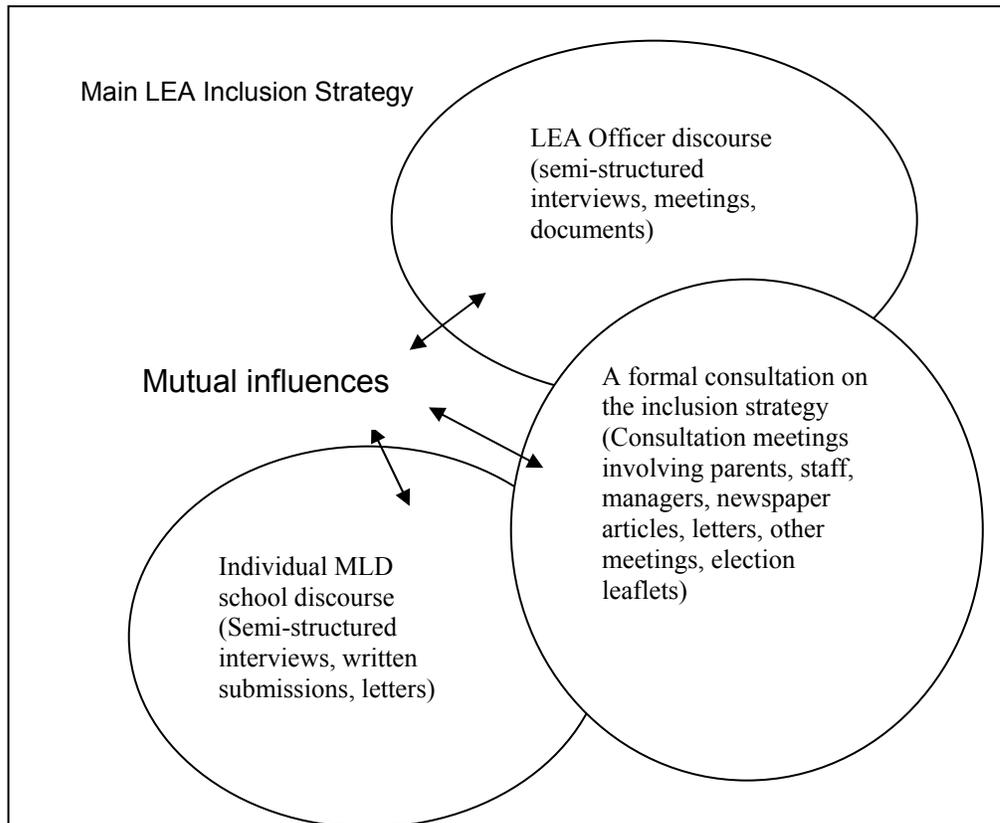
1. How do people involved in the change situation construe the changing local education systems during the implementation of an inclusion strategy?
2. Do groups in an institution share common discourses around such change?
3. What are the relationships between individuals in different organisations (e.g. schools and the LEA) and their cognitive structures? Is there conflict between the structures and discourse?
4. Do cultural and historical elements influence the models?
5. What is the influence of the researcher in the process?

These questions, as described in the discussion, were modified during the research into one:

- What are the influence of paradigms and discourse in the representation of change, during the implementation of an inclusion policy in a LEA?
- 

There were three main case studies used in terms of analysis, although they could be looked at as one large case study rather than separate entities, and during the data analysis they will be viewed as both separate cases and part of the whole. This can be seen in the diagram below.

**Figure 4.1 Identification of the Relationships Between the Different Case Studies**



The research commenced in early 2002, but before this date previous inclusion documents and policies from the LEA had been gathered and analysed/ deconstructed. The data came from the following sources, with all aspects looking at all aspects of the research questions:

- A consultation document concerning the philosophy of inclusion was circulated in early 2002, and the responses were being analysed when I commenced the Hibbing research. This analysis and my own scrutiny of the replies to the document formed the initial part of the data collection.

- From May 2002 several meetings, of between one and five hours, concerning the inclusion strategy were taped and transcribed, and minutes of other meeting used as evidence. The meetings are transcribed in appendix six.
- Comments from discussions, public documents and newspaper articles were used. These were transcribed and are in appendix six, with alterations to avoid identification only.
- Individual semi- structured interviews occurred with eight members of the local education authority between October 2002 and February 2003. The members of the LEA were all senior or strategic managers, members of the Department Management Team, and a self-interview with myself. The interview structure is in appendix three.
- Semi- structured interviews also occurred with seven members of one school for “MLD” pupils that had been very vociferous in its’ opposition to the LEA inclusion strategy. The members of the school staff were senior managers, teachers and a learning support assistant. All of these interviews also occurred from October 2002 to February 2003 and were taped and transcribed. Both sets of semi- structured interviews lasted between thirty and fifty minutes. The interview structure is in appendix three.
- In February 2003 the LEA inclusion strategy in regard to specialist provision was published. This document led to thirty eight meetings with LEA staff, mainstream staff, open public meetings, meetings with special

school and unit school staff, parents from these settings and the senior managements team/ governors of these schools. I attended approximately 65% of these meetings, as an LEA officer. Some were not attended due to potential conflicts of interest with the research (e.g. the ones at the “MLD” school where the interviews had occurred), others due to the LEA officers involved taking responsibility for different meetings (normally there were four per week lasting until 8 or 10 p.m.) All the meetings were transcribed by a clerical officer in the LEA for the process of consultation and also used for research purposes by myself. All participants in the consultations knew that their comments would be noted and be available in the public domain.

- Parallel to this, a series of meetings occurred with students from special schools, units and mainstream students. Once again these meetings were transcribed for the purpose of analysis as part of the LEA consultation, and used in the research.
- During the whole period of research careful note was made of the use of artefacts, for instance methods used to disagree with a part of the inclusion policy, the seating arrangements of meetings, how newspaper articles were laid out and how items were arranged within schools and other buildings
- Following the consultation a paper went to the councils’ cabinet, where decisions were made concerning the specialist provision. Formal notices were then published concerning schools that were to either close or

significantly change their role, where the formal data gathering ceased.

Data also came from local newspaper articles and letters.

Data collection occurred mainly around the period of late 2002/ early 2003, with earlier documents and later meetings/ newspaper articles being added. As theory developed the later data became not only the source of developing theory, but items to check this theory against. The data occurred in a “real life” situation and was therefore not perfectly controlled, being transcripts of interviews, meetings and documents. Anything other than this would have led to too many artificial constraints being placed upon the data. There were also differences in the type of data gathered for each case study, and the format of this. For instance, the coding of the semi-structured interviews included pauses, whilst consultation meeting coding did not because they were transcribed by a short hand typist, whilst the interviews were done by myself from a tape recording. There was also more data from the consultation meetings than from the other two case studies. Although an initial issue, this became less so as the research progressed and the data changed the several research questions into the one.

In relation to the research model proposed in figure 3.4, I took full account of my own biases and prejudices, and how these might relate to the research, especially the analysis of data. From my position as an LEA officer with strategic responsibility for part of the inclusion policy I was often put into a position where some school staff and/or parents disagreed with the views of the strategy and

strong feelings were expressed. Care was taken that any personal emotions, from myself, that arose from such situations were carefully noted as to their effects on the gathering and analysis of data. My own position as a strong supporter of educational inclusion was also noted. Background reading for the dissertation was fed into the LEA Inclusion Strategy, and also used in public meetings. I am a member of The Alliance for Inclusive Education, a pressure group that argues for inclusive education within the United Kingdom, and have in the past been a keen supporter of the other local authorities I worked in, in their inclusive strategies. These prejudices were noted in their effects upon the data collection and analysis of it.

In total over one hundred and fifty thousand words were transcribed and analysed by the use of NVivo (QSR, 2002).

Data gathering ceased in late January 2004, following the publication of the formal notices, all case studies having to have a boundary (Stake, 1995).

Educational change/ inclusion is also an ongoing process, with only infrequent clear boundaries relating to start and finish points, especially when this change is a complex one (Wallace and Pocklington, 2002). Therefore any case study relating to inclusion and/or complex educational change needs to be able to impose somewhat artificial boundaries as to the start and finish points. Within the Hibbing case these were around the start of the consultation relating to the strategy, and the feedback on the formal notices to change the format of the

specialist provision. There was, however, some leakage of information from earlier and later than this, which related to the research. Foucault (1975) argues that all knowledge relates to the epistemes of the particular discourses of that age. One of the best ways of viewing these is to look at the archaeology of where the knowledge and discourses came from, stressing the importance of earlier discourses both locally, nationally and internationally.

The problems relating to artificial boundaries, and the wide variety of information in different formats will be discussed further in the Discussion section of the dissertation. However, it must be recognised that real world research is messy (Silverman, 2002; Robson, 2002) and that academic rigour is required in order to take account of this fact. The history behind Hibbing's inclusion strategy formed part of the research but not the fine discourses that occurred prior to 2002.

Likewise the strategy and discourses continued post 2003. The start of the case studies were defined as the inclusion strategy related to the philosophical consultation paper and the end point being paper being the publication of formal notices concerning changes to some specialist provision. Earlier documents prior to the first consultation were also included, where relevant. All of the above formed the data for the study, but were not always as distinctly separate as described above. For instance the semi- structured interviews had an overlap with the initial consultation meetings, and there were influences that both had on each other. A senior teacher at the "MLD" school thanked me at the end of an

interview, saying that it had helped him clarify his thoughts for the public meeting that was occurring the next week.

Semi- structured interviews were used because they gave the conversation a structure and allowed the main research questions to be investigated, but also flexibility to change the track according to the interviewee, and the direction that the interview was to take (Robson, 2002, p270). Two of the staff at the “MLD” school wished for their interview to be done as a small group (Cohen, Manion and Morrison, 2000, p287). This was accommodated without changing the format extensively. An example of the adaptability of the semi-structured interview format is seen in the late withdrawal of a question based on the philosophy of John Rawls (Rogers, 2002). This was “ *Imagine that you are in one room and next door you are designing an education system to meet special needs. You are to enter that system but do not know where you will be in it, a pupil with additional needs, an academically achieving pupil, a teacher or parent, what would the system look like.*” It was abandoned because, at the time of the research, the staff in the “MLD” School were so angry about the inclusion strategy that it was felt to not be able to be as useful as a question. Therefore one was used based on brief solution focussed therapy (De Shazer, 1985), “*imagine that you woke up and saw the perfect inclusion strategy, what would it look like*”. Likewise a strategy was planned, following Howes (2002), with items from The Index for Inclusion (Booth and Ainscow, 2002) being presented to teachers leading to problem solving around their implementation. Once again this

was felt to be coming at the wrong time during the consultation process for special school staff to respond to, due to their opposition to much of the LEA proposals. Refer to Carrington and Robinson (2004) and Forlin (2004) in regard to how the Index for Inclusion can change practice.

The full transcripts of the initial interviews are in appendix six, but since these were semi-structured, they were a starting point, not the finish. For instance, if points had already been covered the questions were omitted and if the interviewee went off the point, but into a relevant area, they were allowed to continue.

The interviews covered points relating to views on the philosophy of inclusion, the Hibbing strategy, views about the future for special needs, how change was viewed for the future and reflecting about the past and things that made change work or not.

The LEA consultations used in the research were not designed by myself but were LEA based ones covering the philosophy of inclusion and the reorganisation of specialist provision. As such, and being part of the real life research the data from these proved valuable. It reflected real situations of people reacting to perceived threats and opportunities, without being in an artificial situation of an interview.

In relation to the research model proposed my own biases were recognised, and reflected back upon throughout the study. The data was gathered and analysed according to the model based on the work of Glaser and Strauss (1967), Hutchinson (1988) and Moustakas (1990). Further descriptions of how this occurred are in the initial part of the analysis of data section of the dissertation.

In order to keep confidentiality, schools and people, have been replaced by role, and the LEA is given a fictitious name. The actual inclusion strategy papers have not been included, and newspaper articles referred to by date but not by actual source because this could be related directly back to the local authority in question.

During the writing phase of the research Miles and Hubermans' (1994) ways of ensuring "goodness" and data quality were used to test validity and reliability. These are summarised in the Discussion (tables 7.3 and 7.4). Miles and Huberman take a more realist line than my research, so where there are questions about their tests these are highlighted. An abbreviated summary of tables 7.3 and 7.4, along with Robson's (2002) tests of validity are given in tables 4.1 and 4.2, in order to set the context of the study.

The sample of case studies could appear to influence the reliability in that only one special school was chosen for more in depth work, and not all school staff or LEA Officers were interviewed. However, the school was chosen because of the position it took in opposition at an early stage to the process of change, and other

school views, that were found to have many similar attitudes, were gathered from consultation meetings. Individual interviews were only conducted with those volunteers willing to participate, and many other sources of data, for instance the transcribing of meetings, was also used. In only one meeting (a LEA one concerning the inclusion strategy) did one individual, a secondary Head Teacher, refuse to take part, which led to the meeting not being taped or used as data.

**Table 4.1 Miles and Hubermans’ (1994) Data Quality Criteria**

This is expanded in table 7.3, in relation to the data gathered.

<b>Ensuring Data Quality</b>	<b>Comment in Relation to the Research</b>
Is data representative?	All available data was transcribed.
Does the researcher impose their values or “go native”?	The feedback loop in the research model tried to mitigate against this.
Data should be triangulated	A variety of data sources were used.
Need to search for negative evidence	Once the core concepts were identified this was done.
Need to look at the routes of meaning being developed.	Done in the research model.
Can the findings be replicated?	Difficult to test in a “one-off” case study.
Need to check rival explanations.	This was done in relation to the research models feedback loops.

**Figure 4.2 Robson's (2002, p100-105) Tests of Validity**

<b>Robson's Test of Validity/Reliability</b>	<b>Comment in Relation to the Research</b>
Participant error, e.g. tiredness.	Could have been a factor but all research participants were keen to express their views.
Participant bias	People took positions that were strongly felt due to the nature of the research- this was part of the research.
Observer error.	This was continually investigated as part of the feedback loop in the research methodology.
Observer bias.	Once again, the reflective feedback loop attempted to ensure that this did not occur.
Construct validity.	In social construction terms there are difficulties with this concept in that we all construct the world according to social situations, and face validity is what people look for.
Internal validity.	The semi-structured interviews were given back to participants once they were transcribed, for their comment. The case study did not involve test- post-test, so many of the threats to internal validity, such as regression, did not occur.

#### **4.1 Ethical Issues and Guidelines**

The ethical guidelines followed in the study were taken from those published by the British Educational Research Association (1992) and the British Psychological Society (2000). I am a member of the latter organisation and therefore subscribe both professionally and morally to the guidelines. Particular note were taken of the BPS guidelines on carrying out research with human participants (pages 6 to 11). These are more recent than the BERA ones and relevant to research into areas of psychology. However they have a particular omission in not referring to care being taken to take account of the participants' sexual orientation or gender (point 2.1 of the code refers to culture and race, but not as clear headings). There is a later equal opportunities statement in the code that does cover many of the omissions above. The BERA guidelines cover race, gender and culture, but not sexual orientation. Their guidelines also place

responsibility to the research profession before responsibility to the participants in the research, an emphasis that would appear to be the wrong way round.

The significant principles from the two guidelines followed can be sub grouped into the headings

- Responsibility to the participants which include no harm, sharing knowledge, taking account of gender, cultural, race, religious and sexual orientation issues, having the right to withdraw from the study and the researcher being open and honest and confidential.
- Responsibility to research including stating sources and facts clearly, making it clear when things are stated as opinions and theory, attributing all sources and questioning all findings openly
- Responsibility to the researcher including knowledge of the limitations, not overstressing personal resources, questioning in an open way as part of the learning journey, acknowledging personal preference affecting findings and the limitations of the research.
- Responsibility to the research sponsor- both the university and the local authority where the research occurred. This includes feeding back any useful findings to the authority to help them in future when working in this field, and following university protocol and the advice of the supervisor of the research.

The overriding responsibilities are firstly towards the participants, secondly towards the research. Before taking part in any taped discussions/ meetings/

interviews all participants signed a letter to say that they understood the parameters, ethical guidelines and confidentiality of the research. A copy of this letter is in appendix two. Public documents such as consultation documents, replies to consultation, open letters, and newspaper articles were treated as being open for research scrutiny since the people involved in the expression of the views had done so knowing that they were going into the public domain.

Meeting transcripts did not go back to participants for their comment, mainly due to the numbers in these meetings. Individual conversations and interviews always went back to the interviewee for comments, and amendments were made if needed, following feedback.

## **CHAPTER FIVE**

### **ANALYSIS OF RESULTS**

Gibbs (2002) gives an excellent summary of how the computer programme NVivo (QSR, 2002) can be used as Computer Assisted Qualitative Data Analysis Software (CAQDAS). He links the theory of such approaches as grounded theory into Nvivo's data analysis systems, linking these to methodological considerations. Many of the procedures suggested by Gibbs were used in the analysis of the data.

Initially all data was transcribed or scanned into Microsoft Word 2000, and then put into a rich text format and imported into NVivo. The model in figure 3.4 was then used in order to carry out analysis. The first stage of coding occurred by categorising various discourses, often by the use of in vivo codes, the use of the actual words of the discourse to describe it, although some codes were not pure in vivo ones, ones arising from the data by the exact phrase. To choose a phrase is not a neutral research act, so careful note was taken when both in vivo codes, and ones that I came up with, were used to mitigate against my own discourses being imposed on the narrative of the data, as far as possible. Gibbs (2002) describes dangers in CAQDAS, of being one step removed from the data, with the computer programme itself driving codes, rather than the data and researcher. The open coding produced forty-two different codes for the LEA consultations with schools and parents, concerning the strategy, eighteen for the

coded LEA meetings concerning the strategy, and the semi-structured interviews and twenty-one for the “MLD” case study school interviews and texts.

From this level one coding, a level two analysis occurred, where the open codes were put into the tree system of NVivo, a system of grouping the codes into family groups under super-ordinate headings. The coding was initially done on paper, where the larger picture could be seen, before transcribing into NVivo. The coding by trees occurred after a period of incubation, whereby some thought went into the most reasonable groups that could be made.

The next stage occurred with more incubation, and the bringing of further theory into the data analysis, although it must be recognised that my own prejudices, history and discourses played some part in the open code groupings into trees. This was taken account of throughout by reference to the methodology model in figure 3.4. If taking a realist stance this would cause difficulties, but the research reflected the fact that it was my interpretation of others discourse, which was as rigorous as possible, later tested against Miles and Hubermans’ (1994) criteria of rigorous data analysis. The data analysis involved incubation, reflecting the data back along the feedback loops into theory and led to memos being made as to meaning of the data (which can be done easily both by notes on paper and via NVivo). From this further creative synthesis of the data into possible meaning and reflecting this back to the actual discourse and theoretical considerations occurred. At this stage NVivo was not used, although it allows for more detailed

coding and the drawing of models in the programme. This was because I found it easier to conceptualise ideas and models on paper, without recourse to the programme.

More detailed analysis of certain discourses took place, along the lines of discourse analysis. This was in order to look in more detail into parts of the narrative which were felt to be crucial towards emerging theory, and to test this out.

At all times the questions of validity and reliability were considered in regard to the data, as described in tables 4.1, 4.2, 7.3 and 7.4..

Saturation, gaining total data, was difficult because the case study was one with somewhat artificial boundaries, with the process of change being a long term one. There was, however, a great deal of information from a variety of sources, with a seemingly large number of different discourses. This was recognised and resolved by the use of many sources of information, and a through evaluation of them, whilst recognising the limitations of using a time limited case study during a long and complicated process. It was felt that the data provided a “snapshot” during a period of nearly two years, and as such, gave significant time spans to investigate the core constructs.

Following this, where contrasts and comparisons with data were best presented in tabular form this occurred, whilst other data, mainly concerned with causal relationships, was presented by a series of diagrams involving nodes and connections. Both of these systems had the danger of imposing either my, or the dominant discourse onto the data at too early a stage before the theory could emerge, so care was taken that this did not occur by following the research model elements of incubation and reflection. The emerging models were checked against both data and theoretical orientations to continue to develop theory directly relating to data. This checking was a continual process of looking at emerging ideas, looking for examples of where there was data to negate them, checking against new data, and looking for “outliers”, data that was away from the core data.

## CHAPTER SIX

### RESULTS

Within the results section the level i/ii coding systems will be discussed, with examples of some codes, before more detailed analysis is described. The discussion of the results and their implications will occur in chapter seven.

Within the analysis my own biases in coding were taken into account, but even with awareness and care it must be recognised that my own history, cultural biases and training may have had an influence on how coding occurred. To avoid this, some in vivo codes (using the words of the spoken or written discourse) were used, as well as those that appeared to fit most naturally together. Some of the nodes would appear to be more objectively coded than others. Codes relating to buildings (see table 6.2), would appear to be more objective than codes such as pupils not to be able to cope in mainstream, which at times were far more fuzzy around the periphery (for instance a statement which easily coded “that x would never cope” vs. one saying that the demands were very hard in mainstream). The more “value laden” codes e.g. “failure to cope” were used more frequently by using the terms spoken, although all the coding came from the perceived values of the people making the discourse, and the interpretation of it. Data was continually reviewed to minimise my discourses being imposed, although what occurred, even with the reflective loop in figure 3.4, was my narrative of others’ narrative (White and Epston, 1990). Many of the nodes were so closely related that they could have been merged, especially the consultation project ones of “failure to cope”, “bullying”, “stigmatisation”, “demands in

mainstream” and “categorisation” (table 6.4). Therefore coding became arbitrary at times, but was reflected as such by their grouping under the same family node.

The placement of data into sub case studies was also arbitrary e.g. some meetings involved both LEA and school staff, but were coded as LEA discourse. This was less problematic than it would appear, due to much of the emerging theory cutting across all sub case studies.

The free nodes took place in the initial analysis of the materials by the use of NVivo, and the tree nodes then helped group the free nodes. Following this academic reading and further analysis occurred to explain trends, leading to further groupings of discourse. An example of this is the “failure to cope” grouping of discourses being investigated in relation to Foucault’s idea of epistemes (1977) and governmentality (1989, 2003).

In all case studies a few free nodes were coded into more than one tree node, but always within the one sub case study. Codes however, were similar in different case studies, expanded upon in the Discussion.

Numbers of incidents are listed for comparison, but underlying meaning (see the Discussion in relation to Foucault, 1969 and the concept of archaeology) and strength of opinion were also important factors taken into account. There is

always the danger with quantifying data, that this becomes the driving interpretation, rather than the discourse itself.

Note must be made that the three tables do not have the same number of instances of collection of data, or the same type of discourse. For instance there were more occasions in the LEA and “MLD” school case studies for individual discussion, than in the consultation meetings. This was recognised, but in all situations the information was gathered in as natural situations as possible. This had the advantage that more discourse from real situations was coded, rather than the more artificial semi-structured interviews, providing opportunities for triangulation (using sources from meetings, text and interviews) in the LEA and school case studies. Note was also taken over the form of data. For instance, there was more data collected in the consultation case study than the other two, and this was frequently in confrontational situations such as public meetings.

**Table 6.1 Codes and Nodes for the Consultation Case Study**

These related to newspaper articles, consultation meetings, formal responses to the consultation, other meetings, other letters and meeting minutes. A star highlights when a code /node has been coded in more than one tree code/node.

<b>Free Nodes</b> Level i codes	<b>Description</b>	<b>Number of Instances</b>	<b>Tree Nodes</b> Level ii codes
Access	Questions re ability and response	10	Local Policy
Area Based Model	Mainly questions re type	42	
Awareness Raising	Need for this to occur	10	
Building	Re poor quality of schools and need to occur	49	
Cost Cutting	Inclusion is about saving money	89	
Decisions Already Made	This has occurred	22	
Definition of Inclusion	Discussion re this	3	
Early Intervention	Need for , mainly by LEA reps	17	
Future Numbers	Need to look at these	20	
Mainstream Delivery of Services	Need to investigate	20	
No Special School Closures	Mainly from parents and staff	37	
Nuture Group	Staff support for in the one school that had one	2	
Out of Borough	Parental concern that will no longer be an option	4	
Outreach	Question re how this will look by staff	33	
Racism	Several comments re links with inclusion and anti- racist work	3	Local Policy cont.
Central Government Driven	Mainly LEA saying this was	4	Change
Change	Concern from staff and parents re this	123	
Children-Parents happy	with present setting	24	
Choice	Need to maintain/ improve this for parents	79	
Future Salary/ Job	Concern from school staff	41	

Government Agenda	Questions re this	30	
Hostility to LEA		10	
LEA Decisions	e.g. Why councillors not present	44	
Need Clear Staff Structure	From school staff	7	
No Consultation Occurred	By LEA prior to the meeting	5	
* No SLD-MLD Mix	By staff and parents re the new schools	25	
Staff Morale	Decreasing with proposals	14	
Too Much Change	From school staff and parents	10	
Statements	Need to keep present number, from parents	37	Policy
Concern About a Return to Mainstream	From staff and parents	2	
Ability to Cope in Mainstream	Question re this	1	
Academic Progress	Linked to previous node	3	
Bullying	Concern re this if returned to mainstream	34	
Friends	Lack of if in mainstream	12	
Fund Raising for School	From the school for physical disabilities	3	Failure to Cope
Mainstream Pressure-linked to ability to cope	Meaning inclusion not working for SEN pupils	115	
Mainstream vs. Special	Special provides better opportunities	73	
Need Special treatment	For pupils in special	47	
* No SLD-MLD Mix	See previous	25	
Not Wanting to be Seen as Different	Link to bullying	33	
Stigmatisation	Link to bullying	14	
Toileting	Concern re if this means they could not cope in mainstream	1	Failure to cope cont.

In terms of quantitative amounts, the main discourses related to: mainstream pressures, mainstream being seen as different from special, concern about change and the change being seen as cost cutting. No formal statistical analysis was done on any of the discourses in terms of the amount because it was the narrative that were seen as important. However, some account was taken over

the quantity of each node when analysing the data in terms of the dominant discourses, and how they related together.

**Table 6.2 Nodes and Codes For LEA Case Study**

These related to semi-structured interviews, documents, policy documents, LEA meeting minutes and transcripts.

<b>Free Nodes</b> Level i codes	<b>Description</b>	<b>Number of Incidences</b>	<b>Tree Nodes</b> Level ii codes
Access	Questions re this	2	Local Policy
Area Based	Comments re this	19	
Buildings	Discussion re standards	8	
Mainstream Improvement	Need to improve mainstream	20	
Outreach Team	Discussion re functions	3	
Training	Need to carry out	14	Change
Change in Management Policy	Need to implement plus LEA inconsistencies	14	
Pace of Change	Not fast enough	4	
Perfectionism	Comment re one Head	1	
Attitudes	Need to change	10	Views
Categorisation	Of pupils	20	
Children's Needs	Being important	12	
Parental- Pupil Involvement	Why important	6	
Views on Inclusion		52	
Government Directive	For inclusion	19	Policy
School Closure	How to	22	
School Improvement	Need to include this	20	
Statements	Discussion re these	9	

For the local authority officers the most frequent discourse was the views on inclusion, reflecting more of a philosophical stance. School improvement, closure, categorisation of pupils and the need to improve mainstream also signalled agendas occurring at the LEA level.

**Table 6.3 Codes and Nodes for School Case Study**

These related to semi-structured interviews, letters, brochures and submissions to the formal consultation process.

<b>Free Nodes</b> Level i codes	<b>Description</b>	<b>Number of Incidences</b>	<b>Tree Nodes</b> level ii codes
Area Teams	Concern re effects on school	4	Local Policy
Choice	Taken from parents	1	
Different Messages	From LEA to school	40	
Finance	Special cheapest	10	
LEA not Clear	In messages	2	
* LEA Wrong	Re inclusion	14	
* OFSTED	School did well	3	
Outreach	Needs to be from school	13	
Statements	No reduction	3	
Change	Too fast and ill thought out	84	School Closure
Emotions	Need to be calm	1	
Job Losses	Concern re these	1	
LEA not Clear	See previous	2	
Parents	Choice needed and respect for past choices	8	
School Closure	Concern re this	13	
* Categorisation	Of pupils	18	Views
School Skills	Special skills held by school staff	38	
View of Inclusion	Philosophical/pragmatic debate	44	
LEA Role	Concern re this	9	Failure to Cope
* LEA Wrong	Re inclusion	14	
* OFSTED	School did well	3	
* Categorisation	Of pupils	18	
Needs of Children	How these must take precedence	29	
Pupil Failure to Cope	If taken out of special school	32	
Researchers Role	One conversation	1	Researchers Role

The main discourse nodes for the school in terms of quantity were the change being too fast and ill thought out, their view on inclusion, how pupils would not cope in mainstream and how the LEA had inconsistent messages concerning the strategy.

## **6.1 Examples of Discourse Categorised Under Each of the Nodes**

Below are listed exemplars for a few of the categories. The full categories and exemplars of each are in appendix five. The only script changes from the original documents are that role, rather than name, identifies individuals and schools, with the LEA being given a fictitious name. There has also been some contextual change where required to protect the identification of individuals, LEA or schools. The discourse given here is at times an extract from a far larger piece, given in a shorter version here for sake of brevity.

The full transcripts of all the discourses, and coding, are in appendix six, on a CD-ROM, accessible by the use of the NVivo 2.0 programme.

The headings in bold type refer to tree nodes, in Italics to the free nodes.

### **6.1.1 Consultation Case Study**

#### ***Local Policy***

##### *Building*

Comment from a parent at a “MLD” school

*“The main problem seems to be that the SLD schools are overcrowded and in bad repair. Can (named “SLD” school) not be improved? To me it seems like it's their problem.”*

##### *Cost Cutting*

Comment from parent at a unit attached to a primary school:

*“Take the money off them and give it to us.” (referring to a request to recycle money from mainstream into the unit)*

LEA representative:

*“We are paying for 26 places here and there are 11 children. Parents are just not asking for places in the Unit. We have to respond to what parents are asking for.”*

Response:

*“You can’t say that year by year.”*

### *Decisions Already Made*

Comment from teacher in a “MLD” school:

*“I know (“SLD” school name) meetings aren’t until 10th March, but parents have been to as many meetings as possible. One of my colleagues has been on a course today with a member of that schools staff, who said that they were moving to this school next year. It looks as if everything’s cut and dried.”*

### *Future Numbers*

Head Teacher during a meeting for mainstream teachers:

*“The document indicates that in the special schools / unit places are not all being taken up. This is, in fact, misleading. At (name of school with a Nursery unit), for example, we have chosen not to fill all the places so that we can better care for those pupils currently there who have particularly complex needs”*

### *No Special School Closures*

Parent comment at a “MLD” school:

*“Children are being told there are no places in special schools when we know there are. We want to send our children to a place of our choice. Parents are being told there are no places here at this school so they have to go through mainstream. At the end of the day all we want is for*

*our children to be able to function as adults. Teachers in mainstream can't cope with them.*

## **Change**

Senior Teacher at a "MLD" School:

*"I went through that reorganisation, and have always considered Hibbing to be forward thinking and strategic. How have we got it so wrong that we are now faced with having to go through it all again?"*

*Children-Parents Happy (with present placement)*

Parent at the "PD" school:

*"I don't think you realise how this will all affect our families. Once I've brought my daughter into here in a morning and handed her over to the people she is familiar with, and who care for her, and I know she is with all her friends, it's then that I can switch off. If she goes to mainstream all that will have gone. She will be different in mainstream. This is a brilliant school and I can't see why it can't stay open."*

*Government Agenda*

Parent at a "MLD" school:

*"What does the government want from us? What's their opinion? Changes!"*

LEA Representative:

*"The changes they are asking for have been driven by disability rights and we need to be able to fund and support those changes."*

*No Consultation Has Occurred*

Parent quoted in a local newspaper article:

*“There has been no consultation and this is my sons education we are talking about”*

### *No SLD-MLD Mix*

Teacher at a “MLD” School:

*“If (name of school) is made into a mixed MLD/SLD school some of the less severe ones here now will go into mainstream and have their world turned upside down. All parents want is the best for their children. I was at the meeting( public one) last night and listened and you're going to hang yourselves. Children and parents will suffer. Continuity is the main priority. “*

### *Statements*

Education Department Representative at a “MLD” School

*“When OfSTED inspected us, they criticised us for the number of statements that we have in Hibbing”.*

Senior manager:

*“The reason we have so many statements may be because we do our jobs properly.”*

### *Mainstream Pressure*

Governor at a “MLD” School:

*“You say 'mainstream, where appropriate'. In my experience no parent wants their child to go back into a mainstream school. They've been there. They get left in a class and left to their own devices and this is not education.”*

### *Mainstream Vs. Special*

Teacher/ Head teacher during The Mainstream School Consultation Meeting:

*“We have children in school with MLD and I have absolutely no problem with this, but what support will the LEA give when results plummet?”*

LEA representative:

*” Yes, this is a big problem. Head teachers and LEAs are saying that it’s not fair. The DfES are aware of the problem and are looking towards developing P scales to provide value-added information. They’re trying to think of another measure of success. The thing is, schools can’t be inclusive to the detriment of other pupils. There are, and always will be, times when other provision is necessary.”*

*Need Special Treatment*

Conservative Party Local Election leaflet discussing the closure of the “PD”

school:

*“Whether these children are relocated in mainstream or other special schools, they will be disorientated and left behind as they come to terms with the strange, and often alien, environment.”*

*Toileting*

Parent at a Nursery Unit

*“Two Educational Psychologists have said that my child could be educated in mainstream but I disagree with that I don’t think he could, and they won’t take him. He has toileting needs and I am not sending him to school in a nappy I’m just not doing it”*

### **6.1.2 LEA Case Study**

#### **Local Policy**

*Mainstream Improvement*

Meeting 23-9-02. Head teacher of a Special School:

*“Have you got information re those schools that are going to be developed in the mainstream. About those mainstream schools being on board”*

LEA Officer:

*“ yes it is about ethos and culture in the school. The money is in the bank really. We are starting to put together criteria this year. Asking schools to self refer. Money is ready for a feasibility study for some school ramps, door frames for other types of adaptations.”*

## **Change**

### *Training*

Strategic LEA Manager

*“I think that there ought to have been a programme of local training that is much more apparent within the department with our schools about what inclusion actually is and what the disability discrimination act means and all that and I don't think that the LEA has been clear enough about what our message is”*

### *Change in Management Policy*

Strategic Manager:

*“I have had five line managers in four and a half years and the agenda around early years and child care is such a massive one that it takes them a good twelve to eighteen months to understand all of that area.. .. so I don't think that anyone can say that they have had a hands on strategy around inclusion it just has not been there they have shifted it on a bit and then fallen out with such and such so cleared off it has happened and has not been led but has occurred through a series of crisis from my perspective anyway..”*

### *Pace of Change*

Senior Officer:

*“Erm.. inclusion.. just while I can be honest I think I would just like to say that I have been working in special needs for eight years and everybody has been talking about inclusion but we have never got there”*

## Views

Categorisation

Meeting 12-7-02 Strategic Manager:

*“It is quite hard to predict because a lot of the information is based on stats and (name) could predict from figures from the BPS from the amount of pupils that would be likely to qualify for SLD and MLD per 1000 population and we could do this for HI and everybody else and then we would need to know the number of births and predicted number of births from somewhere .....*”

## Policy

*Government Directive*

Senior LEA Manager:

*“ I suppose in one sense fundamental my role was to rethink the strategy following the inspection of the LEA there were some pretty significant issues around some legislation that were pretty critical and one of the issues was that there was not really a proper strategy that would take us several years ahead ....”*

*School Closure*

Senior LEA Manager:

*” issue is what is the role and function of the special schools and we did not touch that and we all knew in our heart of hearts that we would have to come back to that and we missed an opportunity to take that bull by the horns”*

**6.1.3 School Case Study** (a “MLD” school for pupils aged eight to sixteen years)

## Local Policy

*LEA not Clear* (in terms of messages and policy)

Letter from Head Teacher to Director of Education:

*“At this meeting, without the knowledge of the Head teachers who could not be there or who needed to leave early (at least five, I recall), a decision was taken to circulate a set of plans to Staff and Governors. Those of us absent were not told of this decision. After proposals in the document appeared in the press, it caused a loss in trust between the school staff and me, as I had not briefed them about what was, as far as I knew, a confidential document.”*

### *LEA Wrong*

Senior Manager of the “MLD” School:

*“you could actually put something forward I could have put something on the back of a fag packet that would stand a better chance of delivering what the LEA wants”*

### *OfSTED*

Senior Manager of the “MLD” school:

*“I suggest that there is a need to look at what the LEA's OfSTED report actually says, especially how narrowing the scope of the review has led to a less than coherent review of SEN provision.”*

### *Change*

Letter from a Senior Manager of the “MLD” School to the Director of Education:

*“Confidence tumbled yet further when the A/D performed ,a volte-face on the aforementioned 'pledges' made by the D/D who had said he was hoping to avoid the damaging closure of schools. Gone too were the notions of 'Centres of Excellence', revolving doors, and so on.”*

### *Categorisation*

Senior Teacher at the “MLD” school:

*“there is a wide range.. broad continuum of need from as I said gifted and talented pupils through to the worst attaining SLD pupils.”*

### *School Skills*

Senior teacher at the “MLD” school discussing possible closure:

*“remove the MLD provision away from the special schools then that provision will not be there the expertise that has grown will be dissipated and expertise grows from being with people who have got expertise and the sum of the school here is greater than the parts”*

### *View of Inclusion*

Learning Support Assistant at the “MLD” School:

*“..For me really inclusion means the right to be included as an individual no matter where it is and if that right is being fulfilled for the individual that is inclusion”*

## **6.2 Later Data Analysis**

Following the initial coding into nodes and trees more sophisticated coding occurred with theoretical analysis, and periods of incubation (further thought occurred removed from the large amount of paper work). These ideas were checked against the data, and further academic reading of articles and books around issues occurred, in order to see if the data could be explained by reference to theory, either in the literature or that developed by myself.

Models and theoretical orientations were developed, rejected and/or refined by reference to the data.

Initially the three separate case studies were analysed in regard to differences.

These produced some categories and ideas, which are described below.

The data was then analysed along the dimension of similarities between the codes and discourse. This appeared to produce significant findings as explored further in the Discussion. Some discourses, which, following initial coding appeared to be more significant in relation to developing theory, underwent more in depth discourse analysis. These related to the codes relating to difference, pupils' inability to cope and the philosophy of inclusion, which appeared to be some of the core paradigms in the developing theory. These included a Conservative Party local election leaflet, several parental discourses during consultation meetings and an interchange between two local authority officers during a meeting concerning categories of SEN.

Finally, coding, nodes, and other groups of results were tested against theoretical orientations that have already been discussed in the literature review element of the dissertation, such as Thomas and Loxley (2001) concerning Foucault's ideas and Wallace and Pocklington (2001), concerning complex change. The following tables (6.4 to 6.7) highlight some of the core themes and who said them. The definition of a core theme comes out of the developing theory, and are further developments of the tree coding system in NVivo, following incubation and checks against both theory and the data. The LEA and school codes are from the individual interviews (other data was also included in the full analysis, e.g. from documents or meetings) and the consultation data analysed by type of need catered for in the school, then by the dimension of parents/ staff. These reduced the data, which needed to occur due to the wealth of it. However, themes were

picked up that went across cases, for example pupils not coping in mainstream. Other themes, such as the complexity of change around an LEA inclusion strategy were also studied. When analysing the data it was felt that there were core paradigms that could be drawn out of the data, without losing the fact that the situation studied was complex.

Miles and Huberman (1994) look on tabulating data as a valid way of making meaning, but it must be recognised that there are dangers here in imposing too much of the researcher narrative onto the table, and making it look too objective, rather than one interpretation. This was recognised in the research model feedback loops regarding the reflection of the researcher's own discourse being imposed on it. Differences between discourses are picked up in the next section.

In the tables only a few examples of each theme are given, those that were felt to be the clearest and/or most common exemplars.

**Table 6.4 Main Themes, and Exemplars, from the Consultation Case Study-  
by Parent, School Staff and Senior Management Groups**

<b>Theme</b>	<b>Parent</b>	<b>School Staff</b>	<b>Senior Management</b>
<i>Pupils different in Special Schools</i>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• They did not want my son in mainstream because of his needs</li> <li>• I am not going to send my child who is not toilet trained to mainstream (both parents during parent meetings)</li> <li>• Children in mainstream are going to bully/ be cruel to our children (themes along these lines were in all parental consultation meetings)</li> <li>• SLD pupils need more life-skill teaching (during consultation meetings)</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Pupils will not cope in mainstream, we provide smaller groups (“MLD” school teacher)</li> <li>• Need for a caring environment (teacher in “SLD” school)</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Pupils need access to specialist equipment and therapy (SMT at school for physical disabilities)</li> </ul>
<i>Mainstream schools not resourced</i>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Parents have spoken to mainstream staff and they are against the increased work load for including pupils (parent governor)</li> <li>• No fire safety (parent in PD school)</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• No time to share good practice (mainstream school staff)</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Mainstream staff do not want special pupils because not ready (governor at special school)</li> </ul>
<i>Rights</i>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Should not ration statements further (parents meeting)</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Pupils have rights to access the curriculum , only achieved in special schools (teacher in “MLD” school)</li> <li>• Children should not have rights for statements reduced (teacher in “MLD” school)</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Pupils have rights to statements (SMT at “MLD” case study school)</li> </ul>
<i>Changes wrong</i>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• If it is not broken do not fix it (parent at “SLD” school meeting)</li> <li>• We love/like this school (parent at “SLD” school)</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Re-organisation two years ago not established yet (“MLD” teacher)</li> <li>• Can not predict further pupil numbers (teacher in</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Why have you changed us from a centre of excellence to closure (SMT at school for physical disabilities)</li> </ul>

	meeting)	<p>“MLD” school)</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• We know the children here (“SLD” school teacher)</li> </ul>	
<i>Parental choice</i>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Need choice for special ( reiterated in all parent meetings)</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Parental choice is being decreased for special by the removing of schools(“MLD” staff meeting)</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Need to keep parental options (“SLD” school SMT)</li> </ul>
<i>Finance</i>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• This is about cost cutting (parent at “PD” school)</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• You are going to sell off our site for money (staff at PD school)</li> </ul>	

**Table 6.5 Main Themes, and Exemplars, from the Consultation Case Study- by type of school- schools are listed by type , with units being grouped together because their views were very similar.**

The “EBD” schools, an early years unit attached to a hospital and the speech and language unit were not included in the consultation, due to their having no proposed change and therefore not wishing to take part. Views were from school staff, parents and governors/ schools’ SMT.

	“MLD” schools	“SLD” schools	PD school	Units
<i>Pupils different in Special Schools</i>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Our pupils will not be included in a mainstream school play</li> <li>• Mainstream school will give them low self esteem</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• There is a need for a caring environment</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Our pupils need special equipment and physiotherapy</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• We can cater for toileting needs</li> </ul>
<i>Schools not resourced</i>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• There is no time to share good practice</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• The pupils here need a special type of care</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Our pupils need a ground floor and fire procedures</li> </ul>	
<i>Rights</i>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Pupils have rights to curricula access</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Pupils have rights to curricula access</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Pupils have rights to curricula access and specialist equipment</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Parents should be able to express a wish for our units</li> </ul>
<i>Changes wrong</i>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• We have undergone too much change in the past and need to consolidate</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• We need to build on our current site, not move</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Why call us a centre of excellence in one strategy and then propose changes in the next</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• We have too many SEN pupils here anyway and should not increase to be beyond the Nursery</li> </ul>
<i>Parental choice</i>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• You are taking this away</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• You are taking this away</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• You are taking this away</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• You are taking this away</li> </ul>
<i>Finance</i>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• This is about cost cutting</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Why not resubmit the bid to the DfES for a new school on this site</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Your figures are wrong</li> <li>• You are planning on making money from selling this site</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• This is about cost cutting</li> </ul>

**Table 6.6 Main Themes by Individual Interview in the “MLD” Case study school (the identity is protected by not referring to exact role)**

	Senior Manager 1	Teacher	Teacher joint interview	LSA	Senior Manager 2	Senior Teacher
<i>Distrust of the LEA</i>	We have different messages from different officers Two Special Heads only had the ear of a Senior LEA Officer		When asked at the meeting our questions were not answered	“They” are doing this to the pupils	“They” do not know what they are doing	There is no coherent strategy to look at pupil need
<i>Pupils here are different</i>	Individual examples given of where the pupils will not cope in mainstream	We provide the care pupils need	Those who cant cope come here-examples given Intellectually disabled won't cope in mainstream	Pupils are here because of their poor ability	Pupils need the environment here	Pupils here can navigate around the school
<i>No LEA strategy</i>	“What strategy”, there is none				No coherence	Worried that there is no overall strategy
<i>Views on Inclusion</i>	Need for full involvement in a range of educational opportunities	Including different abilities in mainstream	All children access to curriculum	Rights to be included in school (meant the special school)	Inclusion in the curriculum	Support children in whatever setting. Mainstream coming to special as well
<i>Mainstream different</i>		Disadvantaged children unable to cope- not happy	Pupils can't cope	Too hard to survive	Special school staff have special skills	Teachers ignore SEN Can not accredit exam success
<i>Choice</i>	Need for parental choice for special			Need for parental choice	Need for parental choice for special	Need for parental choice for special

**Table 6.7 Main Themes from Semi-Structured Interviews with LEA Officers (individually numbered to avoid identification)**

	LEA officer 1	LEA officer 2	LEA officer 3	LEA officer 4	LEA officer 5	LEA officer 6	LEA officer 7	LEA officer 8
<i>Need for parental choice</i>	Legal rights to mainstream			Need to offer part time options			Need for child care in early years settings	Need to improve mainstream to allow this to occur
<i>Definition</i>	Including in neighbourhood school	All pupils educated in mainstream with parental choice	All about different groups	Different things to different people	Same as inclusion in society-access to everything	Meeting needs in context of the classroom they are in	In terms of child care and early intervention	More than SEN – society has too narrow an outlook
<i>Use of special provision</i>	Phased out	In ideal world will not need them, outreach now	Outreach	Less schools	Need for specialised status	Little future role	Need pupils reintegrating	
<i>Need for planning</i>	Done via partnership		Done this		I was involved in this	Too many management changes	Not done so yet	
<i>Pace of change</i>	Too slow, Hibbing behind many other LEAs	Too slow	Right pace	Hibbing too far behind	Change too quick	About right	Too slow	Too slow (people not politicised) and not radical enough
<i>School needs</i>	Training/philosophy/ethos building		New pupils need extra help		Need to change ethos	Need for training	Integrated services	Need for local training
<i>Difference</i>	Differences on a continuum	Need to identify those pupils which will not cope	All about different groups and needs	Behaviour is special case	We will always need special schools due to pupil needs	Some pupils need special due to specific needs	Need to make connections	Need to recognise needs

A further refinement of the data occurred by analysing differences between the various case studies within the larger LEA one to see if distinct differences were apparent. The next stage was to investigate similarities, to see if there was any shared meaning.

A summary of the main differences and similarities are shown in the following tables. These are explored further in the next sections of the dissertation.

**Table 6.8 The Main Differences Between the Case Studies**

- Definitions of inclusion
- Funds
- Mainstream schools ability to cater for a range of needs
- The interpretation of the central government agenda and LEA OfSTED inspection
- Parental choice
- Categories of need.
- Us Vs. them/ Decisions already having been made

**Table 6.9 The Main Similarities Between the Case Studies**

- Some pupils needs are significantly different to others
- Pupils belong to clearly identified labelled groups
- Specialist skills reside in specialist settings
- Support for inclusion, as long as defined within the speaker's definition
- Many different directions had been taken by the LEA historically
- Central government are driving most of the changes
- Little discussion of inclusion as being related to human rights
- The need for efficacy in education
- A concentration on building led issues

## 6.3 Some of the Major Differences between the Projects/ Case Studies

### 1. *Definitions of Inclusion*

The definitions of inclusion varied according to the individual, but there appeared to be some consistent themes that ran through different sub-case studies. LEA officers, in general, saw inclusion as being around pupils being educated in a mainstream environment (see Table 6.7). For instance,

*“All pupils educated in mainstream schools with support where necessary no segregated provision ultimately I suppose erm everybody having the same opportunities within their local schools..”* (Strategic Manager, LEA, during interview)

and

*“I suppose for me inclusion is about access in its widest sense really it is not about everyone having exactly the same but it is not the same but about the potential of having access to everything and that is not access to a building but a broad range of education and it is not just delivering the national curriculum or whatever and if kids decide to take those options is a different thing if they are in a position to do so, so it is not about pretending we are all stuck on a level playing field er but it is about everyone having access to what is on offer at the moment which is not the case really nor necessarily what is on offer (laughs) that is not broad and balanced or whatever”* (another Strategic Manager, LEA during semi- structured interview).

There was some dispute within the local authority as to if there was a shared view on inclusion (the Strategic Manager, quoted above, felt not, because not everyone had been through the same politicising experience, whilst the one Senior LEA Officer felt that one had grown).

Within the special school sector there was again a spread of definitions around inclusion (Table 6.3), and a disagreement about if there was a shared definition.

However, there was almost unanimous theoretical support for the idea of inclusion, within individual narratives, by school staff, but not always by the parents of pupils in special schools. The special school staff definition of inclusion was within the context :

*“That every child has as much access as possible to the curriculum and is given as many opportunities as possible for inclusion after school and I think that is most important to teach them and give them life skills” ( Senior Teacher, “MLD” School).*

A Learning Support Assistant at the same school said :

*“ ..For me really inclusion means the right to be included as an individual no matter where it is and if that right is being fulfilled for the individual that is inclusion”.*

The school staff saw inclusion as a threat to both their, and the pupils in the schools', futures. Within individual schools there was a view expressed that pupils could be included, as long as it did not include the particular needs that their institution catered for :

*“...it is an intellectual difference that I think causes a greater spread of, you know, how peer groups get on, than if you have a physical disability, rather than on an intellectual level, you know blind or deaf or in a wheelchair and all those types of things and the reasons for inclusion is because we want them to be included, and I can see that happening I can see that working but if you put a learning difficulty child you know in a classroom their intellectually different and more vulnerable from that point of view and that is what where I would be coming from” (Teacher at the “MLD” school) .*

This should be compared with the parental pressure group for the continuation of the school for pupils with physical disabilities, who in a newspaper advert in August 2003 asked that their school be made a “*special case*”, to remain open, in

comparison with other special schools who did not deal with the level or type of need that their school did.

The special schools argued that they were being inclusive by including all within the curriculum. A major discourse from one “MLD” school was that an example of this was in how every pupil was included within the school play, which they were not in their former mainstream schools.

The local authority, in contrast, tended to see inclusion more in terms of a mainstream location, although there was a continuum of opinion from inclusion only being in mainstream (from three strategic managers) to being more along the lines of the special school view in relation to being included in the curriculum (a senior manager). Elements of social inclusion also occurred in the discourse of the officer for early years.

## **2. Funds**

A major source of difference was in relation to funds, concerning the school catering for pupils with physical disabilities (Table 6.1). In the specialist provision review this was the only school to have a figure placed next to it in relation to a building condition survey, costing £1 500 000 to bring the school building up to an adequate standard according to the regulations. This had been done in accordance with DfES guidelines, but was audited by the school as £700 000 with cheaper contractors. The debate surrounding this was held in the local

press, which backed a “ Save the School” campaign along with yellow ribbons being displayed on trees and cars, local business sponsorship, a march involving hundreds of people, and a petition being hand delivered to the Prime Minister. The campaign requested, by the press, that the LEA books be open to account, due to the disagreement over figures. Two senior LEA Officers both stated that it had been a mistake putting the cost of repairs into the initial consultation document. The debate in the press centred around figures, and discourse such as:

*“this poor little fourteen year old will be thrown into a mainstream environment”* (local newspaper article June 2003),

moved the narrative into the realm of unmet need, rather than the proposed new provision attached to mainstream schools, offering wider choices to parents according to the LEA plans.

### **3. Mainstream School's Ability to Cater for Needs**

There were considerable differences around how mainstream schools could cater for all pupil needs, mainly between those in special school (parents and staff) and the LEA / pupils in both mainstream and special schools (Tables 6.5 to 6.7). Parental views appeared to have arisen from negative experiences in the past. An example, already given but powerful enough to bear repeat, came from a parent of a pupil in a “MLD” school during the parents meeting at the school :

*“I have first hand experience. My son went to (named Hibbing primary “MLD” School). My husband is in the forces and got a posting in Wales, so the family moved. In Wales, there were only mainstream schools and a SLD school, so my children went to mainstream. My son tried to kill himself three times.*

*He was bullied, physically and psychologically. The school couldn't cope with it and said he had to go to another school, but they wouldn't have him either. Mainstream doesn't work for every child. I was so happy when we moved back and I knew he was coming to (name of secondary "MLD" school). He has come on leaps and bounds here. I think it would be cruel to put these children into mainstream. More of them would have emotional problems".*

The advice given by professionals regarding special schools appears to have reversed, as expressed by one parent whose child attended a unit :

*"Two Educational Psychologists have said that my child could be educated in mainstream but I disagree with that – I don't think he could, and they won't take him. He has toileting needs and I am not sending him to school in a nappy – I'm just not doing it."*

The main reasons that parents and special school staff said that pupils educated in special schools at the start of the consultation would not cope on mainstream can be summarised as:

- Toileting needs of pupils
- Pupils with SEN being bullied by mainstream peers
- The pace of the mainstream curriculum
- Demands on the mainstream teachers placed by pupils with additional needs, whilst they already had many other demands
- Mainstream teachers not being trained to teach pupils with SEN
- League table demands on mainstream schools in relation to SATs and GCSEs
- Mainstream class sizes
- Mainstream teachers not having chosen to teach pupils with SEN

- Pupils with a physical disability being trapped in an inaccessible place (for instance a second floor) if a fire occurred
- Lack of targeted funds, including the taking away of statements for pupils currently in special schools if they went to mainstream
- The inability to raise funds around a targeted group via the voluntary sector or charity, for instance with the school for pupils with physical disabilities. The campaign to save the school actively campaigned on the agenda that the proposed closure of the school was a *“kick in the teeth for all Hibbing residents who have raised so much money in the past for the school”*.

The concerns were so great that in early 2003 the Leader of Hibbing Council made a statement to the local press and radio that the strategy was over five years. It was also stated that no current pupil in a specialist school would leave specialist provision without parents wishing it, and that if they were in specialist unit provision this promise would hold until the end of the key stage that they were educated in.

Pupils consulted with had a wider spectrum of opinion, appearing to be most concerned with bullying, be it because a pupil with additional needs attended a mainstream school or special school.

#### **4. Interpretation of the Central Government Agenda / the LEA OFSTED Report**

Considerable debate occurred around the interpretation of the central government agenda, both in the press and in meetings. In the public consultation meetings it appeared that local authority officers used the central government and LEA OfSTED inspection of June 2001 as a reason for pushing on with the inclusion agenda, without any discussion about underlying philosophical reasons or human rights. Some parents who supported the inclusion agenda commented on this. The Head of the case study “MLD” school questioned the emphasis on legislation, during his interview, in regard to the LEA specialist provision review paper: :

*“the next bulletin, again I would say that this is disingenuous, that might be the case, but it might be the case, the Act says it strengthens the right of children to choose a mainstream school, unless parents wish to choose a special school, so why hasn’t that been given a more equal weighting...why hasn’t that been said in the document most other children, and there is also an aside about efficient use of resources but that is a red herring”.*

The publication of the Special School Working Party Report (DfES, 2003b) part way through the consultation period caused some discussion amongst the Head teachers /parents and LEA staff. Newspaper headlines that the report supported the continuation of special schools formed part of the narrative of parents and special school staff.

## **5. Parental Choice**

Agreement existed that parental choice was a desirable aim, but was interpreted in different ways by the LEA and special school parents/staff, as can be seen in the following exchange during one of the public meetings, with the LEA representative speaking initially.

*“the Disability and Discrimination Act SEN and Disability Act 2001 supports the above stance, both reaffirming that the majority of pupils where parents wish this should have their needs met in a mainstream environment”*

*Parent: “Do you not think you are taking choices away from parents and children by putting them into mainstream? A lot of children suffer great emotional stress through mainstream placement.”*

The LEA position was that, in order to meet statutory obligations in regard to parental preferences for a mainstream placement, funds would have to be redirected from the special school sector. The special school parent/staff view was that this reduced the choice of parents, for instance for a distinctive special school for pupils with a physical disability or moderate learning difficulties. Croll and Moses (2000a) report that parental choice is often given as a reason for inclusion with no real evidence that parents wish for mainstream rather than special, with many parents who have chosen special having experienced failure in mainstream, or having children with high levels of need (Croll and Moses, 2000b). Farrell (2002) reports that parents normally want what they have chosen, be it mainstream or special.

## **6. Categories of Need**

This was also a source of agreement, as can be seen later in the discussion of results in terms of Foucauldian analysis. However, the interpretation of categories of need by staff in schools, parents and LEA representatives, all varied slightly in some situations. For instance, a petition by one of the “SLD” schools had one of its central demands that the category of need that the school catered for would not be seen as being worse in the future, affecting the balance of the school. Likewise one of the “MLD” schools wished that pupil need be reflected as not including pupils with any behavioural difficulties in the future into their setting. Both of these wishes/demands flew in the face of the report from Baroness Ashton (DfES, 2003b) which recognised that the population of special schools reflected a group of pupils presenting more challenging needs, as those who found it easier to be included into mainstream were. The LEA felt that the special school pupil population was going to change in the future, as it had done historically.

One “SLD” school parent group ran a car sticker campaign with the slogan

*“Special Children need Special Schools. Save (name of school)”*

The category of need issue gave many parents and staff from special schools an initial united front view against the closure of any special school, but differences soon began to emerge. Parents of pupils with certain needs catered for in special schools argued that their children’s needs made it harder for them to be included. This was mirrored by some of the staff discourse. The “SLD” school that had the

most experience of outreach support did not have this discourse, but the Head Teacher wished the LEA to define the level of pupil need that could be best catered for in an inclusive setting. The Head had pressure from some of the parents of pupils with more profound needs in his school for inclusion and outreach support who wanted inclusion against the Head's judgement.

### ***7. Us Vs Them/ The Decisions Have Already Been Made***

This situation was illustrated by a phrase from one of the parents of a child in a "MLD" school, who stated :

*"Can I just inform parents that a website has been set up (gave the address of the site). It's not only for (name of school where the meeting was held) but for all of us. It's still us against them."*

The meetings were set up with the LEA staff facing the audience (for some of the senior management team meetings the participants sat around a table), increasing the feeling of two separate views colliding. At some of the meetings the audience questioned the lack of presence of elected members, bar the Chair of the Lifelong Learning Panel, whom normally chaired the meetings. Many of the meetings also felt that decisions had already been made and it did not matter what was said during the meeting.

The local paper ran a weekly column to save the school for pupils with physical disabilities. Language used normally referred to "*education bosses*", whilst naming specific parents, increasing feelings of there being two disparate sides,

one of an anonymous and powerful LEA battling people fighting for defenceless pupils.

## 8. *Attributions*

Tables 6.8 to 6.10 describe the various attributions made within each of the sub case studies concerning change and inclusion.

**Table 6.10 Attributions Made during the Consultation by Parents, School Staff, and Senior Management Teams**

<b>The attributions</b>	<b>Who made the attribution</b>
The LEA is doing this to meet government targets LEA is wanting to change again for changes sake	Public consultation
The LEA by changing is going to lead to low staff morale	Staff meeting at school for physical disabilities
The LEA is going to disrupt my child's life If my child dies in a fire it will be due to the inclusion policy The LEA will be responsible for increasing bullying incidents	Parent meeting at school for physical disabilities
The central government is forcing the changes and the LEA will not stand up to them	Staff meeting at a "MLD" school
Council members do not have disabled children so are making poor decisions Decisions are being made by a panel "which is mental"	Parents meeting at a "MLD" school
We do our jobs properly so have lots of statements	Senior Management Team meeting at a "MLD" school
Mainstream schools will have SEN pupils imposed on them by yourselves	Staff meeting at "MLD" school
The government is asking you to make changes The LEA is imposing change on us The LEA has already made a decision	Parents at "MLD" school
The LEA will cause me to be bullied	Pupil at "MLD" school
No evidence that parents are choosing mainstream- the LEA is using this as an excuse	Senior Management Team at a "MLD" school
The LEA has misused statistics to get the results e.g. the birth rate	Staff at a "MLD" school
The LEA is taking away pupils security blanket The LEA chose not to improve buildings	Parents during "MLD" meeting
The LEA is bringing EBD pupils into the school causing pupils to be unhappy	Parent meeting at a "SLD" school
The LEA is doing this based on false future building cost information.	Parents, the SMT and staff at the school for physical disabilities.
The councillors are making decisions without being here	Staff meeting at a "SLD" school

**Table 6.11 Attributions made by the Case Study “MLD” ` School Staff**

<b>The attributions</b>	<b>Who made the attribution</b>
The Director wants to close us The LEA officers have not let us know The Assistant Director has two other Heads working closely with them Changes are too quick by the choice of the LEA The Assistant Director is making the strategy fall apart The LEA are blaming the OfSTED report which does not say inclusion The LEA is making too much of the building needs as an excuse	Senior Manager-1
The LEA is being politically correct	Senior Manager-2
The LEA are going to make classes difficult to teach by creaming off the best pupils	Teachers
The LEA are imposing change too quickly The LEA will make pupils suffer	LSA
The LEA manipulated the OfSTED report The LEA are numbers, not pupil need, driven LEA is refusing to talk to us	Senior Manager-3
The decisions are all by the top people in the LEA and central government The decision is already made and the consultation is just paperwork	Teacher

**Table 6.12 Attributions made by the LEA Officers**

<b>The attributions</b>	<b>Who made the attribution</b>
Changes due to legislation Changes due to OfSTED report of the LEA Changes due to central government agenda Changes due to falling rolls due to parental choice Changes due poor state of some school buildings (all the above were presented before each consultation meeting)	LEA Officer-1
Behaviour will be difficult to include due to teacher and Head Teacher attitudes	LEA Officer-2
Numbers are driving change due to falling numbers in some schools	LEA officer-3
Special Heads are self serving and protective therefore do not wish for change	LEA Officer -4
Resources will drive change	LEA Officer - 5
The changes in policy are due to changes in LEA senior management The LEA has little joined up thinking	LEA Officer-6
There has been too long setting parameters leading to slow change	LEA officer-7
Central government has been an enabler for change	LEA Officer-8
LEA officers have not gone through any politicisation programme which means no real drivers for quick change	LEA Officer-9
People (LEA Officers) have been in the borough for too long leading to inertia	LEA Officer- 10

## **6.5 Scripts, Plans and Schemata**

The initial aim of the research was to investigate how people were modelling change, especially in relation to the above theories of cognition. As the research developed these themes became less important and other orientations came into the analysis of the data. However, the scripts, plans and schemata were listed in relation to the three projects, formed part of the analysis, and could also be used as a way of reflecting discourse, rather than cognitive structure. Language is either the mediator between thought and the world (Daniels, 2001) or the total representation of thought (Fairclough, 2001).

### **6.5.1 LEA Case Study Schemata and Scripts and Plans**

#### *Schemata*

The main categories of schemata used emerged from the themes that underpinned the nodes relating to change (Tables 6.3 to 6.7):

- Surplus places, with resources being used for unfilled planned places that could be redirected into mainstream.
- New legislation, for instance the Special Educational Needs and Disability Act 2001, meaning that new duties for LEAs existed.
- The LEA OfSTED inspection highlighted the need to increase inclusion.
- More parental preferences being expressed for mainstream.
- There were successful local (almost all visually impaired and hearing impaired pupils were included in mainstream), national and international examples of inclusion.

Most schemata were within a framework of having to meet central government targets and legislation, rather than being driven by a philosophy or moral purpose. For instance surplus places, OfSTED inspection and legislative framework all reflected this, as did the LEA presentation before consultation meetings that did not mention philosophy at all. This was criticised by some parent groups, advocating inclusion, which wished to see a more passionate outlining of the philosophy.

### *Scripts and Plans*

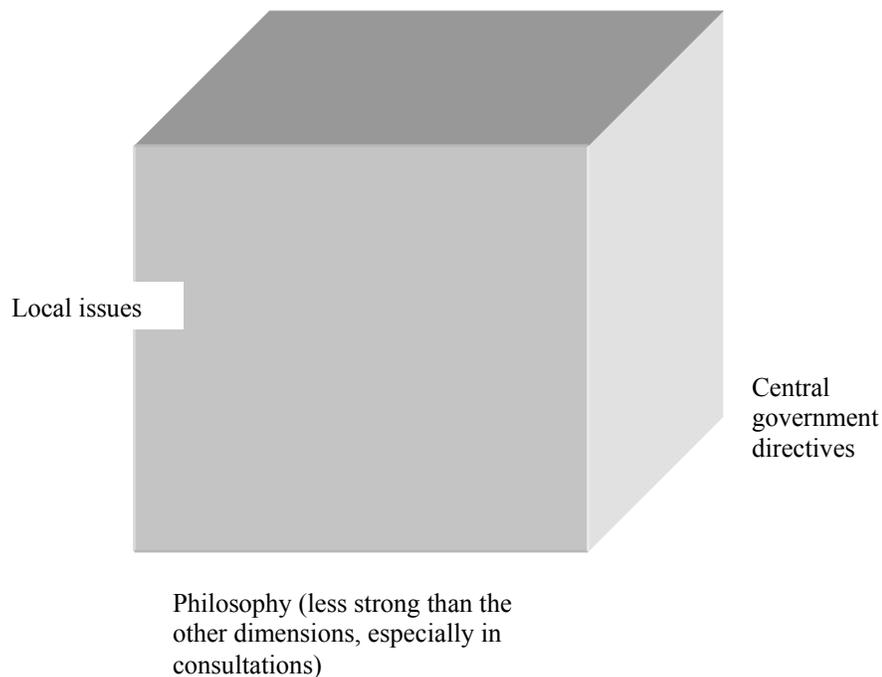
Scripts and plans refer more to the actions and standard responses during meetings, than they do to the unstructured settings. Many of these themes formed part of the presentation that preceded the public, and school based consultation meetings. These meetings then took a format of discussions around issues. In some of the meetings the participants had organised themselves to ask specific questions in relation to issues for the school. In others the questions reflected specific issues for the school. During the school staff and parental meetings answers developed from LEA staff that almost became shared discourses as similar questions were asked at each meeting. During the consultation, weekly debriefing sessions amongst LEA officers occurred allowing for a shared discourse, and scripts/plans for the meetings to develop. At several meetings a LEA Officer, present at all of them, commented that, when a warning of the meeting finishing within ten minutes occurred, the questions became more

heated and personal as they perceived that the participants were trying to make their points, as strongly as possible, in the time allocated. The first meetings (public and school ones) were very hostile leading to expectations from LEA officers that other meetings would be similar and therefore dominating the scripts that did occur.

A model of the schemata used could be seen as three dimensional with the following axis dimensions. The models were three dimensional to reflect the complexity and inter-relations of the various elements. For instance not one of the elements existed independently of the others. The models could also be seen as some of the representation of the discourse that occurred, since it is difficult to separate the thought and discourse from participants, other than when looking for underlying paradigms.

The three axis describe the structure of many of the LEA discourses. The local issues axis related to falling school rolls, the position of Hibbing in comparison with statistical neighbours, and the state of buildings schools were located in. Philosophy was less well defined in terms of some different discourses, but there was an overwhelming wish to see more inclusion, backed by the third dimension of central government policy documents, legislation and non statutory guidance.

**Figure 6.1 A Model of the LEA Case Study Schemata**



### **6.5.2 Consultation Case Study: Script, Plans and Schemata**

Some of the scripts and schemata that emerged during these meetings varied reflecting the various concerns and discourses that were occurring in each of the schools. There were also common themes as well, as seen in the discourse.

#### *Schemata*

The school specific schemata included;

- The safety of pupils with a physical disability
- The need to continue with relationships that encouraged outreach that was already occurring
- The wish for a new build instead of a move of school
- Pupil safety

- Pupil needs being so specific that they could not be met in mainstream
- School specific examples of excellent practice

Underpinning many of these discourses were a feeling that excellent practice was not being recognised and that change was occurring not for reasons of efficacy, but because of political dogma.

Common schemata across schools related to:

- The feeling of being undervalued for expertise and good OfSTED inspections
- Being able to provide services such as physiotherapy and speech and language therapy in one central location, the special school setting
- The unwillingness to accept changes that they did not agree with
- Parental choice for special schools as an option being undermined
- The desire to keep things as they are

A model appeared to be developed whereby the discourses that were common to the school setting formed the basis of the cognitive models that parents and school staff had, with little reference to external dimensions, such as research and experiences in other LEAs. An exception to this was in a link between one parents group and another in a shire county where there was an active group opposing special school closure. Influences of parental historical decisions relating to individual pupils (for instance parental wishes to pursue a special

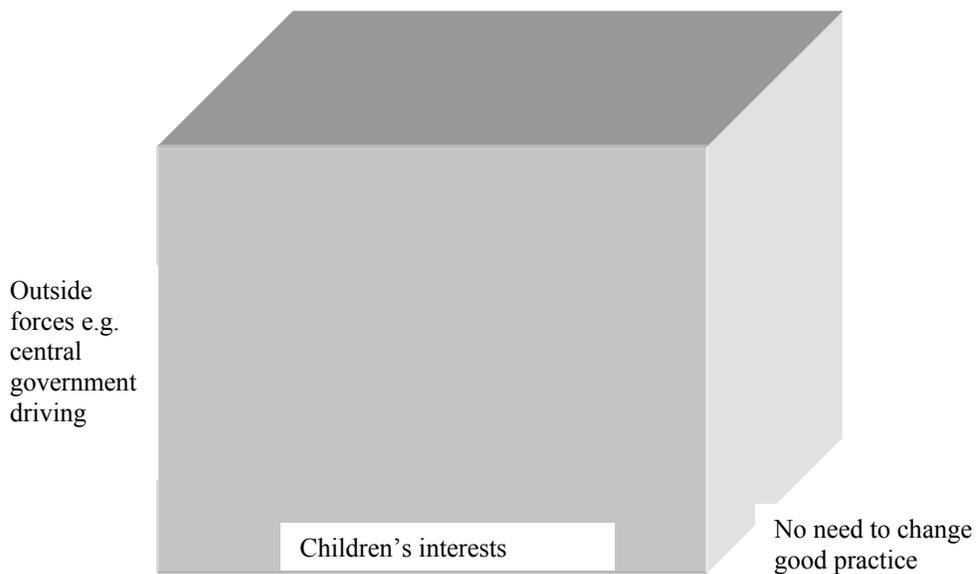
school option, rather than a mainstream one) influenced decisions, as did the difficult decision they had to make at this time. Meijer (2003) discusses, in relation to a case study in England, that parental opposition to the closure of their child's special school is a common occurrence. Pupil comments demonstrated a wider perspective in relation to inclusion, for instance stating that they felt that bullying could occur due to the fact that a pupil attended a special school, as well as a pupil with additional needs attending a mainstream school.

### *Scripts and Plans*

In many meetings there was a script relating to hostility towards the LEA and the decisions that were perceived as being made. Specific scripts occurred due to planning from the school where the meetings occurred. In the case study "MLD" school a gap occurred between the staff and parents meetings of thirty minutes. The LEA staff were given a meal whilst the Head teacher had a meeting (unannounced to the LEA staff) with the parents of pupils at the school, where he presented his views, which helped the parents formulate their questions and script of how the meeting was going to progress. In another school the questions for the panel had been scripted by the school staff, read in order, and also given in a written format. There was a common discourse in all settings that change was going to be imposed on the school, parents and staff, without them having any meaningful say in the decision making. The local paper narrative of "*education bosses*" reinforced this. The scripts and plans of the meeting appeared to be dominated by the schemata summarised in the model below.

These dimensions grew out of coding discourse. The dimension on children's interest relates to a fear of bullying in mainstream, a fear that the curricular and social demands would be too great and that need was being met in the present setting. This related closely to the idea that current special school practice was good and should not be changed. The dimension on it being central government driven is perhaps an attribution to blame someone/thing outside of the context, but this varied, with for instance, some schools vigorously campaigning against the LEA as well.

**Figure 6.2 A Model of the Consultation Case Study Schemata**



### **6.5.3 School Case Study Scripts, Plans and Schemata**

#### *Schemata*

Many of the schemata used by the school were shared across all interviewed staff that were interviewed, although there was some disagreement if a shared school discourse existed.

Common themes occurred around the areas of:

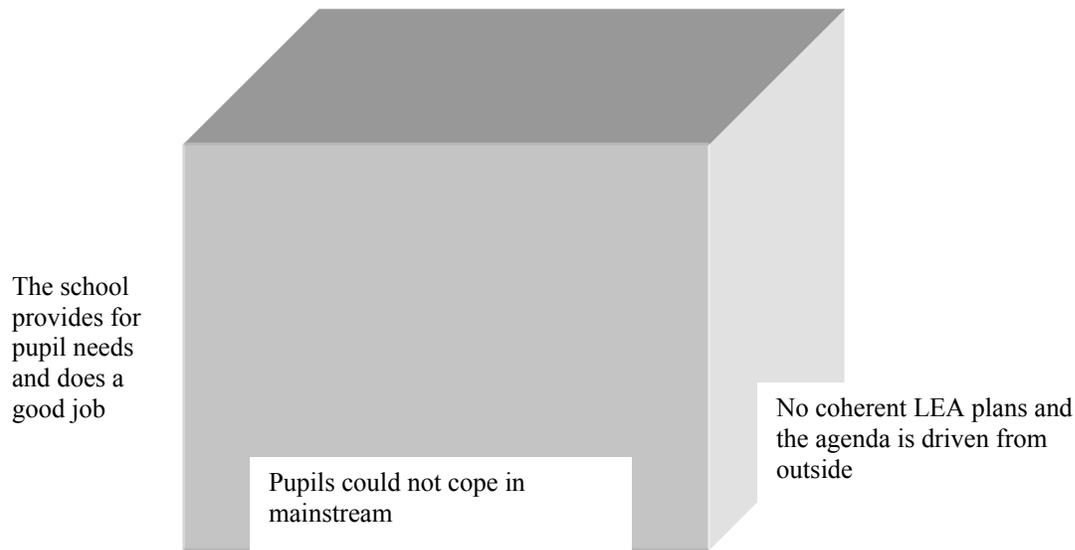
- The school being inclusive in that all members of the school community took part in all aspects of the school life, which would not occur in mainstream
- Pupils needs could not be met within mainstream
- They were doing a good job reflected by good OfSTED and parental reports, and felt responsible for the pupils they taught, referred to as “*my children*” by a teacher during an interview
- The school and related medical services could provide a central service which was cost effective on one site
- The LEA had no overall plan with changing strategies
- Referral to the LEA as “*they*”, a faceless term implying little power existing within school to be able to change the policy. Examples include “*They keep going back on their word*”, “*They have made efforts to reduce the statements*” and “*They won’t listen to teachers, only to parents*”
- The proposed change was revolutionary whilst it should have been evolutionary

### *Scripts and Plans*

There was a significant difference in how the staff spoke to myself on a one to one basis and their responses in public meetings to other LEA officers. I did not attend the case study school consultation meetings due to potential conflicts in my role as a researcher, who had carried out individual interviews with some staff. The differences in discourse could be because I was perceived as being a potential ally whilst the LEA representatives were seen as being against the school. Relationships were so bad that one senior manager stated that they had only trusted one Assistant Director whilst some LEA staff in private used derisory terms to refer to some staff.

Once again a three dimensional model has been developed to explain the three main schemata used by the school. The dimensions came out of the discourse and are similar to the consultation meetings bar one where the LEA was seen to be lacking coherent planning, perhaps due to mixed messages that the school had had in the past from different LEA officers.

**Figure 6.3 A Model of the School Case Study Schemata**



### **6.6 Similarities between the Case Studies**

The similarities in discourse between the case studies helped to develop theory, and will be explored in depth in the Discussion. Initially the comparisons were done by coding the data into nodes by the use of NVivo (QSR, 2002). During 2003/04 further reading occurred and theory was tested against the data. This analysis was complex and took periods of incubation, and creative synthesis to use the terms of heuristic research and grounded theory. It was rigorous in terms of alternative routes being sought but must be stressed is my narrative of others' narratives, and is therefore open to other interpretations. The similarities were developed by figures such as 6.4, (p171) which demonstrates how seemingly disparate discourse shares some common meaning. This process is similar to that used by Foucault (1969) in his process of archaeology, to dig into underlying paradigms/epistemes in discourse. What this diagram does not demonstrate is

the many occasions where alternative theoretical explanations were explored, and rejected. Some of these will be discussed in the Discussion.

One significant piece of work that appeared relevant was the idea of epistemes (Foucault, 1969), which again will be critically explored within the Discussion.

The main themes relating to common epistemes/paradigms that occurred across case studies were:

### ***1. Some Pupils being Significantly Different from Others***

Much of the discourse saw pupils in special schools as substantially a different type of pupil. Examples of this occurred with the semi structured interview with a teacher in a “MLD” school :

*“I can not see how any child can benefit from including other children with very different abilities other than making some children more sympathetic to less advantaged children”.*

A similar type of sentiment was expressed by a Senior LEA Officer to myself in a conversation where he stated that he felt that not all pupils were able to be included in mainstream.

### ***2. Pupils Belonging to Clearly Identifiable, Labelled Groups***

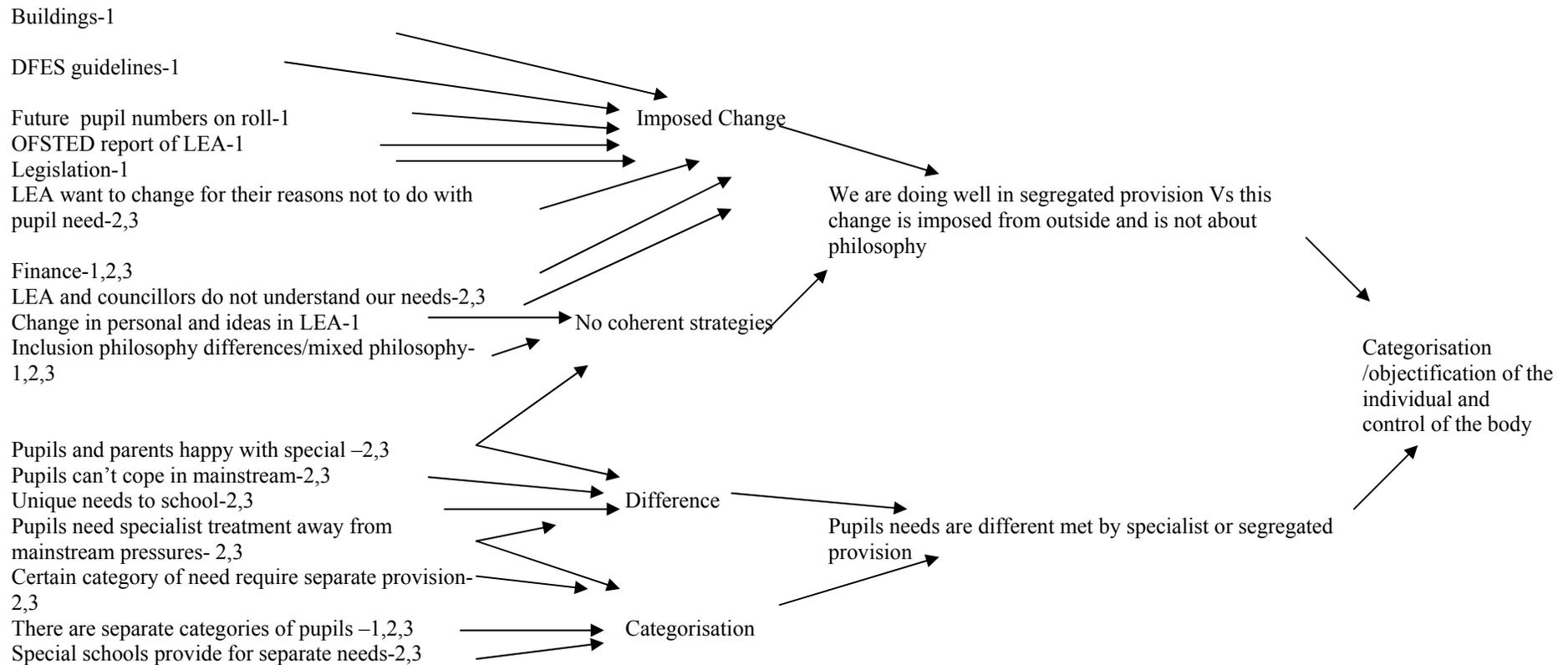
There were many examples of this, especially during the consultation meetings. At one “MLD” school there was a demand from parents that no pupil with “EBD” attend their school. In a meeting in July 2002 the LEA Officer for SEN stated:

*“we have got to do this analysis of numbers coming in because when the Heads discuss MLD and SLD pupils we have got to have this analysis”*

### **3. Specialist Skills Residing in Specialist Settings**

A certain group of pupils was felt to need teaching skills only located in specialist settings. One teacher , during an interview, discussed the possibility of “*expertise being lost*” if special schools were to close

**Figure 6.4 A Representation of Routes of Developing Theory around Discourse and Paradigms**



Source is indicated by 1-LEA subcase study, 2-“MLD” school, 3-consultation meetings

The categories relate to the initial ones in NVivo but in some cases arise from further analysis and coding- some of the finer details in these routes are lost by the simplification represented here. For instance the conflicts between the LEA messages of imposed change from central government and schools/parents about imposed from the LEA/government were about not looking into the philosophy surrounding inclusion.

**4. No One Opposed the Idea of Inclusion but Everyone Defined the Term Within their own Parameters.**

Therefore a senior LEA Officer, who had just taken responsibility for social inclusion, defined the term in relation to a wider group than SEN. Segregated schools claimed that they were inclusive by including all pupils within their setting. The difficulties over definition were recognised by one Special School Head Teacher who described it as “woolly”. The Deputy Director felt that a shared consensus within the LEA concerning a definition was only just beginning to develop, whilst other LEA officers felt that this was not yet occurring. Support for inclusion, within their own terms, was also seen by Croll and Moses (2000a), when interviewing Special School Head Teachers. They used similar phrases to the Hibbing Heads “I support inclusion, but.....”

**5. Many Different Directions Taken Concerning Inclusion Within the LEA due to the Frequent Changes in Management .**

The Head of one school, and two senior LEA Officers were several examples of people who expanded upon this during their semi-structured interview, whilst several members of staff within the case study “MLD” school felt that the LEA did not really have a policy due to the changes in emphasis that occurred with different Assistant Directors.

**6. Changes around Inclusion are due to Central Government Imposed Ideas.**

One parent during the meeting at the school for pupils with physical disabilities referred to this as “*political correctness*”, and newspaper articles campaigning for the school to remain open stated, “*the LEA has misunderstood the governments position*”, changing the emphasis. The LEA presentation for the consultation meetings placed heavy emphasis on legislation and the LEA OfSTED report, which was seen as being another central government policy making/enforcing body.

**7. Little Discussion of Human Rights in Relation to Inclusion**

Teachers and parents of pupils within a special school setting referred to rights in relation to safety from being bullied and accessing the curriculum, which was argued occurred better in special schools. Within the LEA there was some discussion of the rights perspective from three LEA Officers only.

**8. Efficacy**

Many discussions took place around this issue, especially during the consultation meetings with parents and special school staff asserting that, in their experience, pupils with additional needs made poor progress in mainstream, whilst the local authority pointed to evidence (such as Meijer, 2002 and Ainscow, 1998) that progress was normally at least as good, often slightly better.

## **9. *The Issues Were Often Building Led.***

Instances of this included discussions around the dilapidated state of two of the “SLD” schools, and the amount of repairs required for the school for pupils with a physical disability, rather than being pupil needs led.

As data analysis on similarities progressed, it led to the changing of the research questions, where they were re-focussed into the one investigating the underlying paradigms that people were working within. Despite the many differences between the case studies, the underlying paradigms were such, that, when tested against theories originating from Foucault (1977) I felt that the most relevant question to investigate was one relating to paradigms. Specific, not shared, examples of different epistemes occurred in discourses by special school staff and parents that they felt that mainstream settings were not adequately skilled to cater for their child’s needs.

In order to investigate this further, reference was made to files in the Educational Psychology Service for pupils that attended special school settings. There was a common pattern up to 2002, when a change to a more inclusive emphasis by educational support services occurred during the production of advice to schools and the LEA. Before this date, educational and medical professionals told many parents of pre-school children with additional needs, that the only real alternative was special school. Other pupils had attended mainstream, had difficulties and had received the same message from medical and LEA professionals. Some of

the pupils had been unhappy in mainstream due to academic demands or bullying. Parents had made difficult decisions in the past and had a vested interest in continuing with a special school option. It could be that those who felt most strongly about the specialist provision review attended the public meetings, whilst those that were less concerned did not. A significant proportion of parents in certain schools lived in authorities other than Hibbing, for instance thirty percent of the school catering for physical disabilities. They had requested a special school setting in their local authority, had not found one they liked, due to the closure of some local provision, and so had opted for the out of borough school. Therefore they demonstrated great commitment towards the school they had chosen.

### ***6.7 Factors Seen as Being For and Against Change***

In summary the main drivers for change were:

- The poor state of some of the special school buildings
- Central government legislation relating to inclusion
- The LEA OfSTED inspection
- Falling rolls with the specialist provision sector due to general falling rolls and increased parental preferences for mainstream
- New posts in certain key LEA positions (Assistant Director (SEN), Strategic Managers for behaviour and the Educational Psychology Service) within the LEA pushing the idea of inclusion further up the agenda

The drivers against change related to:

- Concern about future jobs by special school staff
- Concern about future changes in role by special school staff and related therapy services
- Concern about pupils ability to cope in mainstream
- The feeling that well evaluated special school provision, from OfSTED inspections, did not require changing
- Parental emotional investment in a special school setting
- Uncertainty about the future

### **6.8 The Description of Change as Complex**

The change process investigated in the dissertation was compared with the model proposed by Wallace and Pocklington (2002). Their model (figure 2.2) has three dimensions. The first dimension is the three stages of the change process taken from Fullan (2001) of Initiation, Implementation and Institutionalisation. The second dimension reflects the characteristics of complexity in the change being large scale, componential, systemic, differentially impacting and contextually dependent. The third dimension refers to the change management themes of orchestration, flexible planning and co-ordination, culture building and communication and differentiated support. These themes will be explored in further detail in the Discussion section of the dissertation.

However, in the results section brief reference will be made as to if they were applicable to the change being implemented in Hibbing around inclusion.

The period of change looked at in the three case studies (or possibly one because it could be argued that the three were really subsets of a bigger picture) was one where initiation was moving towards implementation, a particularly difficult transition.

In relation to the second dimension, the change was large scale, effecting every school in the borough, the finances of the boroughs education system and specific teachers, parents and pupils to a significant extent. It was in different compartments, with different needs and provision being looked at in different ways, whilst it worked on a systems basis, involving change of institutions, and how pupils needs with SEN were planned to be met within the borough. These changes were very dependant upon the context of the schools, for instance influenced by the state of the buildings, and also impacted differently according to the school, and the level and type of need of the pupils.

The third dimension, of change management, produced less clear-cut results. The orchestration of the change process caused complexity, discussed in the next chapter, but was complex in itself due to the lack of historically shared agendas from the change managers. There was some flexible planning and organisation, seen by some as thinking on the hoof, or a lack of a strategy. The

culture building and communication element was either lacking in the wider sense of being within all schools and the LEA, or perhaps had not time to develop in the limited time available for the case study boundaries. The differential support element occurred, with a heavy concentration on the special school sector, especially the Head Teachers.

The changes in Hibbing relating to the specialist school strategy and inclusion meet many of the criteria that Wallace and Pocklington (2002) describe as complex educational change, with all the issues and inherent difficulties attached to this.

## **6.9 Conclusions**

The results point to some shared, and conflicting discourses, and cognitive modelling, of the educational change occurring in Hibbing. During the period of the case discussion this led to conflicts, stress and concern. The issues can be related to wider discourses in the domain of special needs and inclusion, which will occur in the following chapter.

## Chapter Seven

### Discussion

#### 7.1 Format of the Chapter

The chapter will firstly review the research questions and how the change studied was a complex change. Theoretical orientations relating to cognitive psychology, social psychology and school improvement will be discussed, since these were the initial theoretical orientations of the research. An analysis relating to Foucault's work will be used in relation to the discourses studied. It will be argued that the approach based on discourse and paradigms is a powerful explanatory tool, used to try to uncover some of the common elements from different sources. Finally the methodological limitations and the implications for further research will be made.

The research questions that formed the initial starting point of the research were:

1. How do people involved in the change situation construe the changing local education systems during the implementation of an inclusion strategy?
2. Do groups in an institution share common discourses around such change?
3. What are the relationships between individuals in different organisations (e.g. schools and the LEA) and their cognitive structures? Is there conflict between the structures and discourse?
4. Do cultural and historical elements influence the models?
5. What is the influence of the researcher in the process?

In order to answer the questions a case study methodology based on grounded theory (Glaser and Strauss, 1967) was used. It was adapted because of

concerns that no researcher goes into an investigation without a history based upon the episteme (Foucault, 1967) or paradigms (Kuhn, 1996) that surround them.

Theory began to emerge based upon the data, which, in turn changed the research questions. It will be argued in this chapter that Foucauldian discourses and paradigms, that people live within, heavily influence individual, group and individual representation of institutional change/ inclusion. Some new Foucauldian theory is introduced within this chapter in order to reflect the research process where much theory arose from the data. If introduced earlier, this reflects research paradigms where theory tends to be imposed on data.

Epistemes are explored in greater depth later on in this chapter, but in summary are a network of discourses (for instance written laws, disciplinary talk and texts) that both influence, and are influenced by discourses . The cognitive models reflect much of the discourse that surround people, both in the sense used by Foucault (1969, 1987), and of discourse analysts (Edwards and Potter, 1992). Many of these arise from a historical and cultural basis, and as the data analysis occurred these ideas became important as part of the theory formulation. This in turn led to the initial research questions being compressed into:

- What are the influence of paradigms and discourse in the representation of change, during the implementation of an inclusion policy in a LEA?

Many of the other initial research questions were subsumed within this, as will be seen throughout the discussion.

Paradigms, in the sense that Kuhn (1996) used them, and epistemes (Foucault, 1969) will be used as interchangeable terms. Both describe a structure of thinking within which all other concepts are subsumed, and which are historically and culturally determined. The term discourse will be used in the sense that discourse analysts (Edwards and Potter 1992) use it, as a way of describing conversation, language and how it structures humans view of the world. Foucault used the term in a slightly different way (McHoul and Grace, 1993), being a wider concept, with discourse determining, and being influenced by, the threads of an episteme, a paradigm which maintain the knowledge /power within a historical context (McHoul and Grace, 1993). This latter version of discourse will be distinguished throughout by referring it to Foucault.

The main theories emerging from the Hibbing study data are:

- Change, as represented by people within the case study, was complex with all of the related issues surrounding this, especially where paradigms, developed within a culture, are perceived as being challenged
- Peoples' discourses, in Foucauldian terms, determined many of their paradigms of change concerning inclusion within the case study
- These discourses are influenced by the paradigms around them, which maintain the structures of knowledge/power

- The models of inclusion studied do not indicate a significant paradigm or episteme shift, but movements around the edges of the paradigm of special educational needs. This is seen in national discourse and other LEA policies and procedures. Discourses around the edge of the paradigm have changed, but inclusion in Hibbing did not mean a significant shift from the objectification of young people. A hierarchy of paradigms and discourses will be developed.

## **7.2 Why the Change Studied was Complicated**

Within the terms of the model produced by Wallace and Pocklington (2002), reproduced in figure 2.2, the change in Hibbing was complicated, as described at the end of the results chapter of this dissertation. The model is three dimensional, with the dimensions of stages of change, characteristics of complexity and change management themes along the axis.

In terms of Fullan's (2002) three stage model of the change process, the case study/ies were at the initiation stage, although as a Senior Education Officer stated in September 2003 at a meeting :

*“ We spent two years coming up with an agreed version of an inclusion definition when we should have been actioning this”.*

This concurs with the Audit Commission's 2002 report on LEAs inclusion policies, with about a third of LEAs consulting for too long a period without carrying out action. Part of the case studies time frame drifted into the implementation phase,

because the informal consultation process was the commencement of the process of re-organising school based provision.

In Wallace and Pocklingtons' (2002) dimension of the characteristics of complexity the varying discourses, surrounding the change made it complex. For instance, there were many different definitions of the term "inclusion". The scale of the changes to special provision, going across all parts of the LEA in terms of age, geographical area and the impact on all schools, led to different impacts on different groups to a different extent. For instance pupils in the language unit were not as effected as those in the "physical disabilities" school. This affected the spoken discourses that they had around the change process.

At a LEA meeting (September, 2003), a Senior LEA Officer said that many of the difficulties with the change was that considerable discussion had occurred, over at least two years, with the Special School Head Teachers, instead of with mainstream schools. This point relates to the change management themes in the Wallace and Pocklington (2002) model. The differentiated support to all sectors of the education system had not been built in. Communication, around philosophies for inclusion, had led to conflict with Special School Head Teachers, but had not been inaugurated with mainstream schools, leading to the orchestration of change only encompassing special schools, who did not perceive any benefit to the change. Croll and Moses (2002b) studied eleven LEAs in relation to their inclusion strategies, and found that many relied on a

“moment to seize” , such as a LEA OfSTED report, state of school buildings or a scheme for alternatives. The first two of these factors were important ones in Hibbing in driving change. The flexible planning and co-ordination was needed due to the resistance regarding change from some stakeholders in the special school sector.

The frequent changes in Assistant Director also led to a perceived change in policy as seen by the spoken discourse from both the school staff and LEA Officers. This led to distrust from some people as can be seen from the following conversation from a senior manager in the “MLD” case study school. :

*“What strategy there is not a strategy... I think that it is appalling what has gone on trust has completely gone.. we have had seven different people leading this in nine years and for the first time in (name of the former LEA Officer) we had somebody going the right way and it has fallen apart since he has passed it on whether it was a poison chalice or what I do not know .. but it isn't a strategy that is the problem... what is the strategy ....I found the document that has just come out disingenuous the fact that there are things in there that have come out after eighteen months of consultation that come as a surprise that must cause concern about the nature of the consultation and what it is about ..”*

Within this spoken discourse the Head expresses views where they feel that the strategy was going in a certain direction under one Assistant Director, and then suddenly changes under another, in a direction that is a surprise within the context of previous consultations. The view that there was no strategy was also stated by many of the other case school staff interviewed, and within the consultation meetings. An example is in the school for physical disabilities,

which, in the inclusion consultation document of February 2002, had been given as an example of good practice, and in the specialist provision review of February 2003, was marked as being due for closure. There may have been a mixture of an inconsistent LEA policy, due to changes in management and people who did not agree with the direction, saying no strategy was apparent.

Within the data the following trends came out in the coding categories:

**Table 7.1 Categories relating to the Lack of a Strategy**

Decisions have already been made and the consultation is a sham	22 instances coded
Concern about many changes in policy	122 instances coded
LEA decisions are poor ones	44 instances coded
From the LEA- too many changes in management policy	14 instances
Different messages for different LEA officers	44 instances
LEA not clear in its messages	3 instances

However, Croll and Moses (2000b) point out that it is the elected members of the council who make decisions regarding policy and that , if driven by campaigns to keep provision open, or by a philosophy of pupil need rather than inclusion then any change was incremental at the best. In all of the eleven LEAs they studied considerable parental concern was expressed at proposed closures of special schools.

Change is likely to be more complex within an LEA than within an individual school due to the increased variety of stakeholders and differentiated input, the shared culture being more difficult to achieve due to people being located within

many different structures, causing flexible planning to be difficult with lack of orchestrated support. All these factors were seen in Hibbing, for instance the lack of a shared vision, the difficulties in giving differentiated support, and the lack of flexible planning, or the alternative being planning “on the hoof” as a crisis occurred. By addressing some of the issues in Wallace and Pocklington’s (2002) model, figure 2.2, many of these problems may have been resolved.

### **7.3 Management Theory/ School Improvement**

Management theory concerning change for educational situations (e.g. Morrison, 1998, Stoll and Fink, 1995, and James and Connolly, 2000) could be applied to the Hibbing setting. Management theory originating from an industrial setting (e.g. Senge, 1990) has been applied to education, for example in the literature listed above. Examples from industry that use cognitive psychology are discussed in the next section of this chapter.

What all of the above theories of management lack is a reflection on the driving discourses, narratives and paradigms that surround any change. Therefore discussion on the importance of the Head Teacher (Carrington and Robinson, 2004) or the role of the teacher (Croll, 1996), only discuss the role within the narrow parameters of education, not the discourses and paradigms within which education itself exists.

Ailmo-Metcalfe (2003) discusses how much of the management theory originating from the United States of America asked Chief Executives what determines successful change, making leadership and vision seem more important than it is in reality. Most of the work in this area has an orientation that change in an organisation is driven from within that organisation, with little reference to the drivers from outside e.g. legislation and historical/cultural paradigms. Writers such as Kuhn (1996), in relation to science, and Foucault (1977) in relation to power/knowledge, take a wider perspective than this. If applied to education the organisation, legislation, industry and education are all seen as part of a bigger paradigm that influences all actions. Within educational management theory Fullan (e.g. 2001) comes closest to this perspective, whilst Foucault directly influenced authors such as Ball (1994) and Thomas and Loxley (2001).

Without taking these into account the influence of the paradigms that we all live within, change becomes mechanistic and, although significant to those within it, rarely challenges the dominant epistememes/paradigms, which determine the change.

#### **7.4 How People Represented Change on an Individual Level**

It will be argued that the representation of change at an individual level in the case studies appeared to be dominated by the paradigms that institutions were operating within. However, it is worth reflecting upon some of the individual

models in order to reach this point, and to investigate one of the starting points of the research, relating to my own background as an undergraduate student in an interest in cognitive psychology.

#### ***7.4.1 Models Originating From Cognitive Psychology***

A brief mention will be made regarding cognitive psychology due to the part that this played initially in the formulations of research questions, although it became a less central part of the research as time progressed and theory rose out of the data.

An example of management theory, regarding change, which uses models from cognitive psychology, can be seen in the work of Silvester, Anderson, and Patterson (1999). They investigated people's heuristics and schemata regarding change in a large industrial organisation. The work has been described in chapter two, and reflects studies of change concentrating at a level of individual constructs and cognitive modelling, how these relate to the cultures within the organisation and the management of change, but not to the wider paradigms within society and human representation of knowledge which the cognitive modelling takes place.

Discourse analysts, and researchers taking a more relativist perspective, would view discourse as the method of construing reality, with cognitive structures being built up from the determining structure of language (Derrida, 1997).

The limitations of pure discourse analysis can be seen in the work of Rosch (1978). Rosch investigated how humans model concepts, finding that we often look towards a prototype, determined frequently as the best-perceived example of a concept culturally. This would appear to back up a relativist position of a core paradigm socially construed.

However, Rosch (1978) also described how some concepts are determined by physiology, for instance the concept of prime colours in a cross-cultural study where prime colours were easiest to teach, whatever the culture, due to the physiology of the human eye.

The “pure” discourse analyst position of discourse determining our structure of thought is as empty as the one of the behaviourists (Skinner, 1938) who argued that the only thing worth studying is behaviour. With language there has to be a representation of meaning at a cognitive level, and models of the world that occur without the discourse determining them, otherwise the context of the interaction would continually change a person’s discourses, and their models of the world. Therefore, if a radical discourse analyst position is taken, the discourses in Hibbing would change as individuals went into different situations. This did not occur, for instance consistent positions being taken by the Head Teacher in the “MLD” case study school on issues, such as the outreach team being based in the school. This position remained across various meetings,

letters and the semi-structured interview, all where there was the context/discourse surrounding them to say different things.

Within the Hibbing case studies it is argued that spoken and Foucauldian discourses and paradigms influenced and determined cognitive structure. In Hibbing cognitive schemata were structured by the social and spoken narratives surrounding people, as seen in the following discourses from a Senior Teacher and Head Teacher in the case study school concerning outreach support teams being based at the school (key points are underlined). The Senior Teacher said

*“the role that I would like to see it have is to continue to exist to support children with moderate learning difficulties and maybe some of the more able children with severe learning difficulties and I think we can do that but to have the support team based in school with full access to our resources”*

and the Head Teacher said, in a separate conversation,

*“I say if you put the support services in our schools now and I am not power building and if you put them in now you will make the biggest impact towards progress for outreach services and inclusion and integration and all that..”*

Both discourses were similar reflecting the school-based discourse that arose during the staff consultation meetings, which formed cognitive representations in staff, being consistent across discourse. The way of accessing these is by language with cognition and language mutually dependent. Peoples' narratives of events (White and Epston, 1990) is their way of making sense of the world around paradigms, and that where there is a conflict of their narrative, and hidden or changing ones, then tension can occur. These tensions were seen in

narratives of special school staff and parents who viewed pupils as being vulnerable, unable to cope in mainstream with special schools being special places, something they viewed the LEA as not understanding.

The cognitive structures that individuals had regarding the change around the inclusion strategy are outlined in the results section (figures 6.1 to 6.3). These schemata of thought are given structures for organisations, rather than for individuals. This is because the discourse, the way of accessing the structures, appeared to be consistent within groups during the process of change in the case studies. What was not assessed was that it could have been certain groups dominated the discourse. For instance, participation in the parents meetings for the specialist provision review was dominated by discourse for institutions, sometimes common across schools, but often unique to that institution. One “SLD” school wished to discuss rebuilding the school, a point that only arose after the Head, on sick leave, had called an emergency senior management meeting at her house, leading to a parental campaign. Another “MLD” school, with a high exclusion rate, had a discourse that pupils with emotional and behavioural difficulties should not be attending their provision. The views expressed could have been dominated by key individuals who dictated the direction of discourse, although Foucault would view this to be determined by the *episteme*, determined by the cultural and historical context, that we are working within. The semi-structured interviewees were volunteers, who could have volunteered due to their strongly held views.

Scripts and plans (Schank and Ableson, 1977) were used to investigate the structure that people had for meetings by looking at the structure within meetings, patterns and set scripts. There was a definite pattern to the consultation meetings, and the LEA Officers began to anticipate the type of questions that would be asked of them, including saying towards the end that they were feeling a bit like automations in continually repeating the same things. Several school staff and parents went to several meetings, leading to potential expectations that the format and discourses were going to be repeated.

The most blatant examples of scripts (not necessarily in terms of Schank and Ablesons', 1977, model, but in terms of set items being said) being followed were in one "SLD" school, and in the case study "MLD" school. At the former school parents and staff had written questions they had worked out before hand, whilst the LEA officers answered a five-point petition at the beginning of the meeting. At the latter, the school Head Teacher, immediately before the LEA Officer presentation, gave parents a thirty-minute presentation. Parents were influenced in both their narratives of events, with stories in part being constructed for them (White and Epston, 1990, describe this process in more detail in relation to individuals), meaning that the parental and staff meetings were both similar in content.

Shotter (1990) describes how the early work of Bartlett on schemata is close to that of modern social constructionist theory, which he then moved away from in later writing.

The relativist-realist model, outlined in figure 3.1, gave a useful insight into how people shaped their views around the inclusion issue. At times people were ready to recognise alternative views of the world and their relativist position. A senior teacher in the case study “MLD” school discussed at one stage the continuum of need that pupils have.

However, when feeling unsure, or at a point where an argument was fierce, a firm view of the existence of an objective reality tended to be taken. This can be seen most obviously when discussing certain discrete groups of pupils who attend special schools, and the staff arguing that “*intellectually disabled*”, “*SLD*” or “*physically disabled*” (depending upon the schools’ clientele) would not be able to cope in mainstream environment. Some LEA representatives tended to view these groups in more relativist terms. An example of this occurred in the semi-structured interview with one LEA strategic manager, when discussing what inclusion meant:

*“I suppose for me inclusion is about access in its widest sense really it is not about everyone having exactly the same but it is not the same but about the potential of having access to everything and that is not access to a building but a broad range of education”.*

It will be argued that within the LEA officers some objectification also occurred, with only three officers taking a more relativist line. One discourse was around pupils of a distinct group who needed specialist treatment in a segregated setting; the other that needs and definitions were more fluid. However, and this will be picked up in the section of this chapter which discusses Foucault, there were some shared discourses around SEN linking to the knowledge/power paradigm, in that there were tendencies to objectify pupils into definitive groups. People did not stick to a realist-relativist position on a consistent basis and there were many examples where in the same discourse, a position slipping between the two could be seen. For instance, within the discourse of the semi-structured interview with the senior teacher at the “MLD” school they discussed how pupils were on a continuum of need, then went into discussing pupils within distinct categories, as if they were quantitative, rather than qualitative difference in terms of educational need.

#### ***7.4.2 Attribution Theory***

Attribution theory could be applied to much of the discourse during the consultations around the specialist provision review. The theory looks at how people attribute causal things to events and people. The attributions are summarised in tables 6.5 to 6.7. During the public meetings the LEA Officers often attributed any proposed changes around needing to meet external government targets and legislation, rather than on the philosophical grounds discussed during internal meetings. The presentation that opened the meetings,

normally by the same Senior LEA Officer, concentrated on the need to remove surplus places, a government requirement, the Special Educational Needs and Disability Act 2001, the LEA OfSTED inspection and the fact that more parents were choosing mainstream provision for their children. An example came from LEA Officer discourse during a consultation meeting at a secondary “MLD” school.:

*“Changes have to be made - the government says so. We can't get away from it and this needs to be hammered home.”*

Another example is a letter sent to the local press in January 2004, where the selling of special school sites was viewed in the context of a central government conspiracy to sell off plots of land for profits.

Croll and Moses (1998), in their interviews in eleven LEAs found that often debates shifted away from rights towards mainstream education, towards the rights of closing special provision, something that was seen to occur in Hibbing.

In the public meetings/consultation meetings few attributions in terms of philosophy around inclusion occurred from the LEA staff, with all attributions in terms of building conditions, government pressure or the LEA OfSTED report. In the LEA officer semi-structured interviews some attributions tended to have some philosophical attributions (*“we are changing because of human rights/ it is part of a politicising experience”*) from three of the LEA officers, but not from the others. This mirrored Croll and Moses's (2000) findings that only a minority of

interviewed LEA officers/ Head Teachers stressed human rights, with the majority emphasising pragmatic change and/or a right to a good education.

During meetings the LEA did not discuss finance at length, other than in the context of inclusion being not about saving money, although parents often wanted to discuss this further. The exception is within the school for pupils with a physical disability, where figures for repairs according to government regulations were published, whilst the school had cheaper quotes. This led to a major debate around the accuracy of the figures, via the local press, with the parental group attributing the closure proposal onto false financial calculations.

Press articles, on the whole, concentrated on the school for pupils with a physical disability, ignoring the other specialist schools. The editor of the paper had a grown up son with a physical disability and the paper had donated a sum of money to the school just prior to the announcement that there were proposals to close it. The articles only referred to the Director of Education, or Chair of Lifelong Learning by name or title, often using the phrase *“education chiefs”* when attributing actions that it was campaigning about. This had the effect of creating the idea of an anonymous body of powerful people making decisions that could not be answerable to anyone. Two examples are from paper articles dated 1-7-03 regarding the figures for repairs

*“Red faced council chiefs today have admitted that a repair figure used in a report as part of the justification for closing the school was inaccurate”* and regarding the falling rolls, (2-9-03), *“education chiefs have denied that they are deliberately*

*starving a closure-threatened special school of pupils to boost their case for closing it down.”*

Attributions for actions often took a personal note. The newspaper campaigned about the Chair of Lifelong Learning, as did the save our special schools group in relation to their re-election to the council, whilst special schools tended to attribute blame for their closure onto one Senior LEA Officer. This was especially true of the case study school where they felt that they had been given promises, by another LEA Officer, at an earlier governors meeting, only to have these rescinded by the specialist school review document. The attributions fell within Kelleys' (1967) theory in that they were consistent, whether by the press or in meetings, were seen as being distinct with definite camps that could not meet, and augmented by seeking only the evidence to back up that viewpoint.

Therefore the council message that the school for physical disabilities was to be replaced by specialist unit provision was interpreted as pupils going into mainstream, and messages that this was false were discounted as not fitting the attribution/ cognitive framework that had developed. Examples of this were seen in the group campaigning for the school to remain open not mentioning the proposed unit within their publicity, and rejecting the idea in the public meeting as one costing more than the repairs required to keep the special school open. Within the LEA, parental requests for exact details of LEA plans was construed by some LEA officers as opposition, rather than concern.

Bullying, or potential bullying, in mainstream was raised by many parents both in meetings and in the press, who attributed the fact that their children were going to be put into perceived danger onto the LEA and/or central government policy. Young people felt that bullying occurred in all situations, and that pupils could be bullied in their neighbourhood for going to special schools. Norwich and Kelly (2004) saw this perspective in a LEA in the SW of England, when they surveyed “MLD” pupils in mainstream and special schools. There were only minor differences between reported bullying incidents in mainstream and special schools. However bullying by neighbourhood peers was reported to be significantly higher for pupils who attended a special school. This could have been because they had more significant needs, but was felt to be due to the school they attended by the authors.

Many of the discourses from the research participants in this study expressed strong emotions, especially from parents who felt that they were fighting for their children, and a perceived lack of provision in mainstream. These examples of conversations were very powerful in settings where the discourse was such that distinct positions were being taken. In the meeting at the school for pupils with physical disabilities one parent said :

*“I don't think you realise how this will all affect our families. Once I've brought my daughter into here in a morning and handed her over to the people she is familiar with, and who care for her, and I know she is with all her friends, it's then that I can switch off. If she goes to mainstream all that will have gone. She will be 'different' in mainstream.”*

Within this piece of discourse are embedded several things. In the first line is a feeling that decisions are being made without reference to the potentially negative influences that have not been considered. Earlier questions related to the fact that no member of the LEA Officer Panel had a disabled child. A later point is that the school provides a safe environment, whilst this would not be available in mainstream, with parental anxiety, to be attributed to LEA Officer decisions. Another discourse made is that the daughter with a disability will be “*different*” in a mainstream school setting, something that is apart from the mainstream existence, and therefore unsafe in the environment. Similar discourses were expressed at many of the meetings, with concerns about bullying being central to many of the narratives. Conversely, mainstream and special school pupils felt that bullying occurred in all settings and that special school pupils could be bullied if they went to mainstream, but were also potential victims from others, because they went to a special school.

These models came from a shared discourse and paradigms in that historically they had developed within the context of the pupil with SEN being seen as quantifiably different and needing unique treatment away from a threatening world (Ainscow, 2003). Special schools were initially set up to care for groups of vulnerable pupils. What they have developed into is ways of controlling and segregating (Humpheries and Gordon, 1992), within a language of governmentality (Foucault, 2003). This language is one of segregation and

difference (for instance, Billington, McNally and McNally, 2000, in regard to autism).

Social influences were frequent, for instance during the first public meeting one parent, who had gone through the special school system and wanted as inclusive options as possible, was shouted down. She told myself at a later point that more reassurances were needed for parents of pupils in special schools, since she felt that they had genuine fears concerning how their children would cope in mainstream.

### **7.5 Modelling Change at an Institutional Level**

An interesting discourse occurred with the media construction of change with clear examples of the discourses and epistemes. From a social constructionist perspective, the modelling of reality in terms of the version portrayed in the media, be it election leaflets, newspapers, radio, websites or television can form how humans are interpreting the world (Burr, 1995). A weekly “ Save the School” page, relating to the school catering for physical disabilities, occurred in the local press, from mid to late 2003. The local authority had sight of ongoing correspondence between the campaign group and the newspaper, where advice was given as to how articles should be phrased. Words such as “*battle*” “*chiefs*”, “*poor little fourteen year old*”, all construed a situation where helpless pupils were going to be forced back into a mainstream school environment. This led to the

local authority making a promise that no pupil in current specialist provision would leave specialist provision without parental agreement.

However, there had been no preceding discussions with the parents and staff from the school (other than the Head Teacher) to get their views before the proposals were published, nor work with mainstream Head Teachers to get their views. Prior to the inclusion proposals, one Head Teacher had felt that the pupils in their school should, on the whole, be in a mainstream environment, and the model that they produced had been taken on, in part, by the local authority. However, the Head Teacher had a period of absence, and was unable to influence opinion in the school during a crucial period.

The effect of the press campaign was that the campaigns to save the other special schools proposed for closure, or change, were ignored by the press, and that the group asking to keep the school open asked for it to be made a “special case” to avoid closure.

Local politicians, bar the ruling Labour Party, responded to the proposed closure by campaigning on the issue during local elections. The Conservative, Liberal Democrat and Socialist Alliance candidates either wrote letters to the press, or made the proposed closure part of their election literature, during the May 2003 local elections. The election result was that the Liberal Democrat party won a “safe” Labour seat.

A particular election leaflet by the Conservative candidate (published in April 2003) demonstrated some of the discourse that was occurring at the time of the election within the ward where the school for physical disabilities was located. This was an election where, around the area of Hibbing, The British National Party, a party campaigning on a racist platform, was contesting some seats. The leaflet commented initially :

*“Racism is a loathsome thing, yet those who pretend to hate it most are often happy to ignore their allies, while falsely accusing their opponents of being racist. The pressure group Migration Watch last year published alarming figures on the scale of immigration into this country, which will change Britain beyond recognition if it is not checked. Its reasonable predictions were frowned upon by the liberal left..”*,

which was then expanded on to describe how asylum seekers were often *“illegal immigrants”*

and that

*“ Britain is a democracy and people should be asked if they want a cultural revolution in which their laws, customs and way of life have been transformed as never before.”*

The next paragraph then went onto state :

*“The proposed closure of (name of the school for physical disabilities) has caused concern across the borough. I know from experience what a good job the staff do at (name of the school), having visited the school and raised funds for the children. Whether these children are relocated in mainstream or other special schools, they will be disorientated and left behind as they come to terms with the strange, and often alien, environment.”*

Both the discourses on race and the school share many common features:

people have a place set for them within society, often one of separation, and that

to move away from this place will cause society to be changed, and the effects, for them, will be an inability to cope. The discourses around the staff doing a good job are to be linked into those from the local newspaper where one of the pupils was described as a *“poor little fourteen year old”*. These are the discourses that relate to Foucault (2003a). Language gives power/ knowledge to a system that has epistemes/ paradigms along the lines of groups needing to be constrained to certain areas, whether it be due to mental illness (Foucault, 1965), criminality (Foucault 1975) or Special Educational Needs (Billington, 2000, Thomas and Loxley, 2001). The paradigms related to ideas of very vulnerable children needing protection and specialist care from people with expertise in institutions away from the mainstream. Croll and Moses (2000, p7) found similar attitudes in the LEAs they worked in:

*“The approach to special educational needs which we have described as an ideology of individual care is based on a protectiveness about children seen as having very special disabilities and needs, and a view that special institutions are best placed to deal with them.”*

People with perceived extra needs are objectified according to their perceived “problem” and all behaviours are seen within this category (White and Epton, 1990). For instance an “autistic” pupil wanting to be alone could be seen as doing this due to their diagnosis, whilst another pupil would be seen as doing this for another reason, for instance due to needing rest.

The seating arrangements during the public consultation led to feelings of confrontation, which frequently, on the surface, led to feelings of disparate,

instead of shared discourses, between the local authority and school staff/parents. It may have been due to the size and format of the audience as well as furniture location, but the larger staff meetings and meetings with parents led to more polarised positions. The only situation where this did not occur was in the pupil consultation (perhaps due to it being led by adults and perceived power relationships) and the meetings with mainstream schools. However, once the apparent conflict was put to one side, and similarities in the discourses revealed by deconstruction, many common themes emerged, which will be discussed later.

During smaller staff meetings and meetings, with Senior Management Teams/ governors, the participants sat around a table, often deliberately mixed, with no presentation by the LEA on the proposals beforehand. Larger staff meetings and parental meetings occurred in school halls with a presentation, followed by discussion. The presentation was scripted beforehand, being remodelled following officer discussions of previous meetings.

The views of some of the audiences were that the local authority was against them, and the interests of their children, for instance in one “SLD” school a mother said,:

*“Once you’ve closed the schools you have taken that choice away. How can children be included if they are in a unit? My son couldn’t tell me if he was being picked on. I am very scared, in fact I’ve even put my house up for sale”.*

Within this discourse is the use of “you” to refer to the education department, an implication that the officers are responsible if her son has been bullied and the only option being open to her being to move away. The point of a confrontational situation was further highlighted by a parent of a pupil at a “MLD” school who said :

*“Can I just inform parents that a website has been set up (gave address) It's not only for (name of school) but for all of us. It's still us against them.”*

The discourse aims to unite all parents behind a cause with a common enemy. However, behind closed doors, the LEA Officers made similar comments about parents and staff who opposed the plan, leading to views of different sides opposing each other.

The construction of reality by people in shared communities in the case studies was observed through their actions, and discourse. The parents and teachers in the schools were fearful of inclusion, gave examples of where it had not worked both nationally and locally, felt that bullying was a major issue and that their child would not be catered for in mainstream. The LEA Officers appeared to be less coherent in their views, especially concerning a shared definition of inclusion. The discourse in public was frequently over the numbers of places and central governmental policy as a driver for change, instead of a philosophical orientation. Away from the meetings, philosophical and human rights issues were more frequently discussed.

## 7.6 Inclusion and Change

The four domains of discourse surrounding inclusion are described by Dyson (1999) as human rights and ethics, the efficacy of education, a pragmatic approach and in terms of political change. All of these concepts have been explored in depth in the Literature Review. Arguments in all domains occurred, but interestingly arguments against inclusion also took place in these categories, often using the same data. This also occurs internationally (Farrell, 2002). The table below, where discourses are given in summary form, outlines these arguments.

**Table 7.2 Dyson’s (1999) Four Categories of Arguments Concerning Inclusion Relating to the Research**

<i>Dyson’s (1999) Categories</i>	<i>Example Used as a Reason for Inclusion</i>	<i>Example Used as a Reason Against inclusion</i>
Human Rights	As part of equal opportunities agenda (Senior LEA Manager) As a political objective in terms of human rights (Strategic Manager)	Argued for in relation to fears for lack of safety in mainstream, leading to increased bullying , poor access to the mainstream curriculum (141 separate codings from special school staff and special school parents)
Efficacy	Research demonstrates that pupils in a mainstream environment make at least as good progress as those in special school (Strategic Manager during parental consultation meetings)	My child made no progress in mainstream but has made good progress in special (parent in a “MLD” School consultation meeting- 120 codings from the consultation meetings)
Pragmatic Approach	It improves the education of all pupils (comments from LEA Officer during a meeting at a “MLD” school consultation meeting)	Teachers will ignore the pupils from special because they will have too much else on to differentiate ( parent during a consultation meeting at the secondary “MLD” school) Pupils will not cope (120 codings from the consultation meetings)
Political Change	It is all dominated by the central government agenda and we have to change locally (presentation by the LEA Officers at the beginning of the 38 different consultation meeting presentations)	It is all political correctness and therefore not sensible (senior teacher at the case study “MLD” school). There were 48 separate coding in this area, including those concerning it being council/central government driven

When analysed most of the discourses around change could be categorised into the four areas suggested by Dyson, although the reasons against inclusion were dominated by individual pupil interest in terms of curriculum and safety. The trends are reasonably strong ones from the data, but my own influence on this narrative must be recognised, although the research model attempted to lesson this.

What was not part of the discourse was the concept of inclusion being a dynamic term, a process, not an end place (Ainscow, Dyson and Booth, 2000). This concept has many implications. The parents and special school staff looked on the closure or changing of the schools they identified with, as being an end point, as in many ways did the LEA. One reason for this could have been due to the intense pressure of the situation and the end of the consultation being the formal proposals re the restructuring of the specialist provision. However, there were signs that further work was being considered by the LEA with conferences to disseminate good inclusive practice in mainstream, the development of an inclusion standard kite mark, work on sharing good practice within LEA support services and the development of protocol for outreach from the “SLD” schools.

Ainscow (1999) and Ainscow, Farrell and Tweddle (1999) have documented change in other local authorities around inclusion. One of the most important factors has been forward planning and shared ownership. This appeared to be

lacking in Hibbing at the commencing of the process, but the factors above indicate that some development was occurring.

Within Hibbing, no shared vision (Senge, 1990) was established during the consultation. The parties different needs and constructs of the world were not taken into account, nor the full complexity of the change (Wallace and Pocklington 2002), shared discourses with mainstream schools did not occur until late in the day, leading to a lack of shared vision. Senge (1990) and Fullan (2001) have both outlined how this vision, and the process at arriving at it, are vital to move the agenda of change forward. A significant amount of the parties involved have to feel that they have things to gain from the change, and that they are part of the designing of the vision itself. The frequent changes in direction with different Assistant Directors also led to no strategic coherent vision being perceived by the special schools. Morrison (1998, p38) discusses how vital this is to enable change to occur within both a business and educational setting. The above areas are covered by Wallace and Pocklingtons' (2002) model in the Culture Building and Communication part of the Change Management Theme dimension.

Schools, LEAs and parents all had distinctive elements to their discourses, as described above, there were also common themes. These will be described in relation to Foucault, discourse and paradigms/epistemes.

Institutional similarities were often due to the influence of significant shared paradigms within the setting. It must be recognised that the feelings of threat and conflict that were occurring, could have made the discourses much more entrenched than they would have been if the case study had occurred within a different period of time. For instance a time period following the final decisions on specialist schools and discussions changing to the creation of new ways of working could have produced different discourse.

### **7.7 Theories Originating from Foucault**

Much of the modelling of the change process, and discourses surrounding it, can occur with reference to the work of Michel Foucault. Initially the theory, introduced in the Literature Review, will be expanded, before being applied in the case study/ies. Later it will be discussed in relation to other English LEA inclusion strategies.

Foucault's ideas were continually developing (McHoul and Grace, 1993), and are therefore difficult to outline as one theory. However, there are consistent elements to the body of work. For a fuller explanation of theories around Foucault refer to McHoul and Grace (1993), and Rabinow (1984) and to Strathern (2000) and Horrocks and Jevtic (1999) for biographical details.

Foucault came from a tradition of philosophy and psychology, working in Paris, Stockholm and Tunis, until his death in 1984. Much of the origins of Foucault's philosophy came from looking in depth at the historical development of practices

and the ideas and discourses surrounding them, and the paradigms that arose from shared discourses. Foucault looks on present day constructions in terms of the historical paradigm shifts that have occurred. For instance in terms of legal justice he comments on the paradigm shift from a physical punishment of the body by torture to the disciplinary nature of confinement and observation where evaluation and normalising judgements occur (Foucault, 1977, White and Epston, 1990, p24). The normalising “truths” of power, linked intrinsically with knowledge, act as a central mechanism. Power in Foucauldian terms can also be seen positively, for instance in giving structure to life.

Foucault viewed discourse as a wide concept, including such elements as disciplinary discourse, the language, rules and paradigms that lead to knowledge and power being intrinsically linked. Interconnecting discourses give rise to the episteme of the age, which in turn influences the discourse. I would, however, dispute the claim that there is one episteme for one age. Foucault investigated case studies, albeit large ones, of psychiatry, medicine and punishment. It is difficult to generalise from one case study to another in any way other than in a tentative one, as argued in chapter three. Foucault (1987) himself described how two epistemes existed during times of change and it is hard to argue, even with present day globalisation, that one episteme exists for all cultures. Therefore, within the models postulated later on in this chapter, the word paradigm will be used for underlying concepts. This implies a less all-encompassing value than an episteme.

Two methods are used to look at the development of the paradigms/epistemes. The earliest is archaeology (Foucault, 1969), whereby historical text, discourses and artefacts are analysed in depth. This is in order to dig beneath the text and discourses of the day to find the shared paradigms, termed by Foucault as epistemes. This methodology has been criticised for not fully taking into account agency, despite being relativist in approach (Besley, 2001). The second method, complementary to archaeology is genealogy (Foucault, 2003b), where investigation occurs once the discourse establishing the episteme of an age emerges, a shift away from the pure knowledge/ power paradigms discussed in earlier works. An example of this subjective knowledge is the writing out of women from much of history (Spender, 1980).

Archaeology can be viewed as investigating the history of statements leading to the recognised “truth” and genealogy as an investigation into how power operates within the system (Allan, 1996). Later work by the same author, (Allan, 2003) investigates how teachers’ social construction of a situation can help improve inclusion.

The paradigm shifts are similar to those described by Kuhn (1996) in terms of science. Discourses, or threads of discussion that occur around the epistemes maintain the disciplinary nature of them, and the discourses themselves are influenced by the epistemes they underpin. These discourses mean that the paradigm/episteme is maintained until a shift occurs, caused by the build up of

different discourses. Discourse acts as a social and cultural resource, helping people to explain others and their own activities (Billington, 2002).

Within disciplines, (for instance psychology, medicine, education and SEN), there is a disciplinary framework within which all discourse occurs, and' which people within that disciplinary framework find it hard to break out of (Foucault, 1973).

These in turn form the paradigms within which people form their ideas, and maintain the discipline. Ball (1994) views educational policy as a text, a written discourse reflecting the episteme that underpin the historical era within which they operate. Therefore written policies, such as Hibbing's on inclusion, continue disciplinary discourses and reflect the paradigms within which these operate.

There is also a language within which power is maintained, termed disciplinary discourse for areas such as medicine, and governmentality for governance (Foucault, 2003a).

In relation to the Norwegian Special Educational academic profession Nevoy (2003) has investigated the process of becoming a member of the academic discipline. She argues that the route into this is by a doctorate, and that this is restricted by a disciplinary discourse that constricts thought. Few new meanings are developed, with most research paradigms that conflict with the dominant paradigm of the individual-diagnostic model being rejected. This in turn leads to the control of the individual marked as different within a medical, within-person paradigm.

In Foucauldian theory there is no one over-riding mechanism of control, such as class (Marx and Engels, 1888) or gender (McNay, 1992). Discourse maintains paradigms with power and knowledge being impossible to separate, both being dependent upon each other. The concept of power is maintained by the discourses, rather than pure economics. There are also no absolutes, with language and its constructions of reality playing a key role. Foucault could be seen as belonging to the relativist side of the realist-relativist continuum.

The history of SEN and disability has been described in Foucauldian terms by authors such as Thomas and Loxley (2001), and Ball (1994), whilst others look at the historical context of disability, Rieser (2002), Humphries and Gordon (1992) and Corbett (1996). The history as described by Rieser is one in which disabled women have been burnt as witches in the middle ages, have been portrayed as villains in cartoons such as Dick Tracey and movies, such as Bond, and killed en masse in Nazi Germany. The methods of control have changed from incarceration in segregated schooling. The language has also changed, to that of care, but the overall control of the body is the same, being treated as different within a medical model of disability, where the disability is seen as part of the person, rather than an artefact of the culture within which they operate (Rieser 2002). These “*normalising truths*” (White and Epston, 1990) are an integral part of power/knowledge.

Foucault had some background in psychology, lecturing on the subject in his early career. However, much of his work has seen to be within the areas of history and philosophy. Despite this his work has much relevance for psychology, both in perceiving it as a disciplinary discourse, (Rose, 1999) and in looking at how humans model the world around them, influenced by the paradigms, narratives and discourse which they inhabit (White and Epston, 1990, Billington, 2000).

Besley (2001) has described Foucault in relation to narrative therapy. The therapy is built on meaning not being in the world, but the interpretation people put on this via language (Wittgenstein, 1953). Not all knowledge is open in discourse, there are also the types that are removed or hidden from popular history but are still buried within our discourses, acting within the knowledge/power paradigm.

These narratives can lead to conflicts as our own narrative comes into conflict with hidden ones, or others own narrative. This is especially so in regard to change, where traditions of narrative (Foucault's discourses) help put meaning onto change temporally (White and Epston, 1990, p35). Within Hibbing were conflicts between narratives, special school staff and parents having different narratives than LEA officers, but it will be argued later that the underlying core episteme remained constant.

Before the theories are described in detail in relation to the case studies, and previous discussion, some criticisms of Foucault need to be outlined.

Within his later works, regarding the history of sexuality (Foucault 1980, 1985, 1986), he was very phallicentric, viewing sexuality from a male perspective (Greene, 1996), and his whole concept of power has been criticised for being from this dominantly male perspective (Balbus, 1986, Greene, 1996, Ramazanoglu, 1993). Baudrillard (1987) argues that Foucault's own epistemes, from his own disciplines and history, are imposed on past events, not making them as objective as first seen. Horus (1998) indicate how Foucault's own upbringing influenced his views. This was recognised, in part, by Foucault in a 1982 interview (Martin 1988). In the interview he stated that "*each of my works is part of my own biography*" when he is asked why such emotive subjects, such as mental illness, are used as examples, and in regard to his past work in a psychiatric hospital. Despite his careful, thorough and well-documented searches of historical materials it has been argued that Foucault is fast and loose with history (McHoul and Grace, 1993). He also has been criticised for being too relativist, with no explanation of the real world, but of human constructions of it, although Foucault himself rejects the relativist label, seeing the contribution of discourse in shaping reality (Martin, 1988). Along with Kuhn (Chalmers, 1999), there is criticism in not being able to fully explain why paradigm shifts occur (McHoul and Grace 1993), other than the weak premise (Foucault, 1969) that it is when an accumulation of discourse occurs. If discourse is influenced by

epistemes in a dependent relationship then this exact process of change is difficult to define. Haber (1994) criticises him, along with post-modern relativism, of avoiding confrontational political action by the very nature of the theory that is espoused. It is difficult to know where Foucault's writings finish and others commentary takes over (O'Farrell, 1989) and he gives no sense of "right" or "wrong" (Patton, 1994), the death argument of Parker (1998).

Many of the points, relating to Foucault's own discourses being imposed on text were observed by myself when re-reading the first few pages of *Discipline and Punish* (1977), after reading about Foucault's private life. The first chapter describes in detail the public torture of a regicide, which took on a new angle when Foucault's personal sexual preference for power games was known.

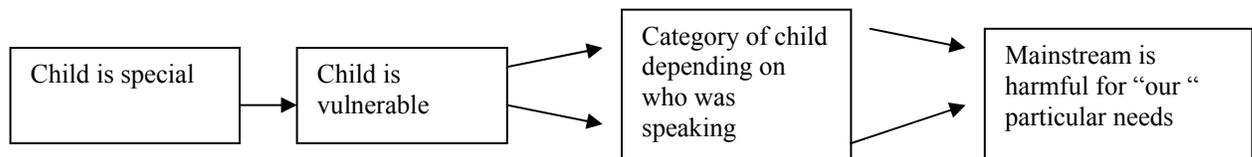
Despite these reservations, Foucauldian theory has proved an invaluable source of analysis in the area of special needs (Thomas and Loxley 2001, Ball, 1994, Billington, 2000) and will be used to further analyse and discuss the data.

The concept of the disciplinary nature of discourse is one that can be used to look at the different discourses that were occurring around the change. Foucault used disciplinary nature to describe how different professions were confined by the language and discourses that they used. For instance, psychology will be confined by these factors, as outlined by Rose (1998, 1999). However, disciplinary discourse also appeared in Hibbing to occur between groups and

within school cultures, as outlined earlier in the chapter. OfSTED targets confined the LEA Officers, with OfSTED orthodoxy around education (Ferguson, Earley, Fidler and Ouston, 2000). Other restrictions included the need to meet other targets such as a reduction in school places, reduce numbers in segregated provision in relation to DfES league tables, and legislative demands.

School disciplinary frameworks centred on the pupils needing extra help, not being able to cope in mainstream, needing protection from this, whilst the specialist, segregated setting they were in provided the extra care and curriculum required. A model for difference within the special school sector was :

**Figure 7.1 A Route of Difference for Pupils in Special Schools**



Ford (1993) outlines some further implications of Foucault for school based research.

Within disciplinary epistemes there were other layers, that of being a Head Teacher, Class Teacher, parent, parent-governor and so on. The best example can be seen in the following exchange between two LEA officers during an internal LEA meeting in July 2002. The first manager said :

*“It is quite hard to predict because a lot of the information is based on stats and (name) could predict from figures from the BPS from the amount of pupils that would be likely to qualify for SLD and MLD per 1000 population and we could do this for HI and everybody else and then we would need to know the number of births and predicted number of births from somewhere and then we would have to build in this factor on the increases that have taken place on the medical side and how the population has increased over the last four or five years and that would predict another increase over there .....if certain standard numbers on GLD, SLD intellectual numbers, autism you could probably do per thousand , EBD is more difficult, erm.. HI and VI should be straight forward per thousand “*

other discussion then followed and another senior LEA officer replied :

*“But.. Two comments on the discussion and building development.. one is it is all comparative, what is one person classifies for SLD, another person would not do , same for GLD etc and two there is not a real argument in there about if the pupils ought to be in mainstream and the argument the next decision ought to be not on there is this need but where needs are best met” .*

The disciplinary clashes are to do with one officer wanting to look at clear statistical categories, the other viewing this with some scepticism.

This can be mirrored in the history of SEN as described by Poplin (1988a and 1988b) and Thomas and Loxley (2001), although these authors do so in slightly different ways. The analysis of the shift of epistemes/paradigms provides some insight into the shared discourses between all the mini case studies in the larger one in Hibbing.

The work of Poplin (1988a) has been discussed in the Literature Review, but Special Educational Needs has travelled through several paradigms, ways of

modelling differences, from that of one off testing of “ability” and pathologising individuals to that of pathologising behaviour. Another major paradigm shift is that from segregation (people with additional needs are taught in separate environments because they are different), to integration (we mainstream the same people, but change them to match the environment), to inclusion (we change the environment so that all are seen as being able to access it). Rieser (2002) outlines the implications of all three approaches in far more detail.

Within Hibbing the history had been one where many resources for SEN were placed into special schools and statements. The traditions within the local authority were ones based upon former heavy industries and the need for a good education in order to escape from these. Traditional values of education as attainment, along with a mainly European white population had led to values that had not changed greatly over the years. Part of these values were the need to cater for students with any additional learning needs in segregated provision, the need to delegate resources via statements to do this and a culture of school dependence upon the LEA. Most new officers to the authority commented on the latter point in relation to their previous experience in other LEAs (for instance at a Department Management Meeting in October 2003, where this was the main topic of conversation). The statistics of having one of the largest proportionate special school populations and a large proportion of SEN money being administered by Statements of SEN reflect on the first two points.

As an authority Hibbing had a history of being part of a larger authority, then becoming a separate borough in 1974 dominated by one political party. This led to stability, but also paradigms of care for those “less fortunate”, and looking at individual need rather than the systems that surrounded pupils, as challenge from other political parties was minimal.

During the case study the shift occurred from a concentration within the LEA from SEN/disability inclusion to social inclusion. The two areas of inclusion have different starting points (Dyson, 2003), with SEN/disability coming from a human rights perspective (Rieser and Mason, 1992) and social inclusion from a political one, with governments wanting social cohesion to avoid civil unrest. This can be seen in the following quote from a parliamentary select committee report (House of Commons Select Committee on Education and Skills October 2003, submission, appendix 3).

*“Improving the profile of success at the cost of excluding the unsuccessful is not an option for an universal system.”*

Initially this quote could be seen as one purporting to include everyone. However, it is within the context of concern about discipline in schools, and a wish to halt civil unrest. Appendix 2 of the same report mixes up the concepts of SEN/Disability inclusion and social inclusion, as do such documents as the September 2003 OfSTED Inspection guidelines.

Within discourse social inclusion and SEN/disability inclusion are often confused. This was frequently the case in Hibbing, for instance in the LEA's self-assessment pack given to schools to prepare for OfSTED inspections. An example of the language of governmentality (Foucault, 2003a), where discourses remain within existing paradigms to govern. To govern, social cohesion must be maintained, and to confuse social inclusion and SEN/Disability removes the human rights perspective from SEN/disability.

In the following section of the dissertation I wish to argue from the data in the case study of Hibbing that no real paradigm shifts have occurred, and the data reflects changes around the periphery of the paradigm, much like the way Lakatos (1976) described science. The peripheral discussions are those listed as differences between the case studies (table 6.8), and the schemata (figures 6.1-6.3).

This is in part due to social inclusion becoming important. I will also look at a hierarchy of paradigms, with the dominant ones reacting to governmentality of the control of the body not shifting. It will be argued that Thomas and Loxley's (2001) assertion that inclusion, as a discourse, is a way of combating the control language (governmentality) of SEN has not in reality occurred. These will be related to other British inclusion policies from local authority web sites.

The overall overarching paradigm within Hibbing was one of separation, of people with additional needs being seen as vulnerable, a separate category and

not part of the whole. The discourses around SEN are such that shared views by all parties within the case studies wished to view pupils in the special schools as separate, whether or not they should be included. The disciplinary function of this discourse might have been different for different case studies (statistical convenience for the LEA, concern about the care for parents and need to be wanted by the special school staff), but overall it served the same overarching function. This was one of power within the system, maintaining a certain order, and ensuring that there was a group of pupils seen as being different in a quantitative way.

Exemplars of these discourses can be seen in the examples already quoted in earlier passages; where the parent in the consultation meeting expressed great fears over her son being bullied for being seen as different in a mainstream class environment; where pupils thought that those with special needs were in danger of being bullied either because they went to a segregated school; or to mainstream and were out of the ordinary, with teachers from the case study school perceiving the need for a unique curriculum; and within the LEA where discrete categories of need were sought. All of these helped to maintain the control of the body (Foucault, 1977), a way of power occurring by the use of knowledge. The prisoner loses control of their body by the observation by the Panopticon (a way of the warders being able to observe all in a prison) in the French prison system (Foucault, 1977). The person with mental illness has their body controlled by the disciplinary structures of psychiatry (Foucault, 1965) and

sexuality is controlled by discourse (Foucault, 1980b). In relation to SEN, the person with additional needs in schools has their body controlled by the language and disciplinary structure of education and psychology, for instance psychometrics, and school league tables for SAT results, (Billington, 2000, Thomas and Loxley, 2001). These produce disciplinary discourses of difference, separation and need for segregation.

By looking at the genealogy of the discourses that occur around special education, a structure of thought can be seen that mirrors many of the themes within Hibbing (see Thomas and Loxley, 2001, for more details of the national and international history of the discourses). The discourses are to do with a group being seen as being different along quantitative dimensions, being given discrete names such as “MLD” and “SLD”, pupils being unable to cope with the demands of mainstream, being in danger there, and needing different, separate educational experiences.

Inclusion, when initially proposed as an idea within the parameters of special education and disability in the 1980s and 1990s, appeared to be challenging many of the above concepts (Rieser and Mason, 1992). However, I would also argue that it was challenging the idea of the control of the body, by placing the emphasis on the social construction of disability, rather than the medical model. The social construction model views disability as being a construct of the society around it, rather than the control of the body by medical opinion and categories

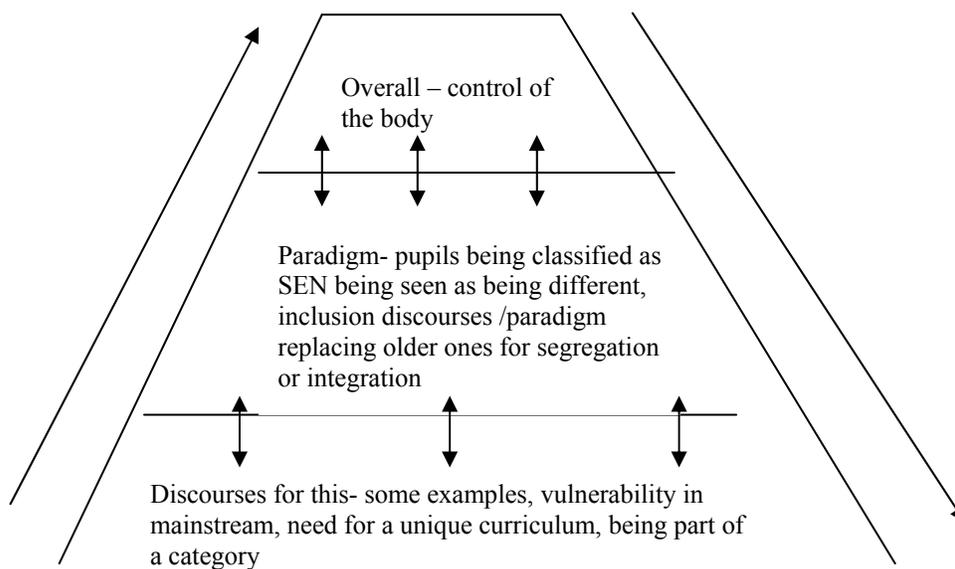
(Rieser, 2002). This model looks on disability as being a construct of people, for instance by people in wheelchairs having access difficulties to the height of desks, rather than due to discrete medical categories. These discourses only occurred infrequently within the Hibbing study.

The following models demonstrate in a ladder form how the various discourses inter-relate with the episteme of special education, and how this relates to the control of the body. From the results (figure 6.5) the objectification was seen as a central episteme, a way of controlling the body rather than one of inclusion. I will then go on to show, that as well as in Hibbing, other LEAs policies, sampled via the internet, also only deal with the peripheral parts of the episteme. Early work on inclusion (Rieser and Mason, 1992, Corbett, 1996) challenged segregation, leading to the hope of a new paradigm based on there being no perceived differences needing to segregate people because of disability. As the discourses surrounding inclusion have moved away from SEN/ Disability onto social inclusion, the core paradigms have tended to remain in place. Within Hibbing the inclusion debate only centred on the discourses, not the other levels, leading to little philosophical change, as the discourses remained fairly tame around issues of finance and buildings, rather than philosophy and human rights.

An important note to be made is that, within Foucault's work such a ladder, seemingly hierarchical, but not so because all aspects of it are self-sustaining, would not be made. This is because it would be viewed as too rigid, with the

discourses themselves being as important as the epistemes, both forming the power/knowledge system that sustains thought and discourse.

**Figure 7.2 A Model of the Relationship between Discourse and Paradigms in the Research**

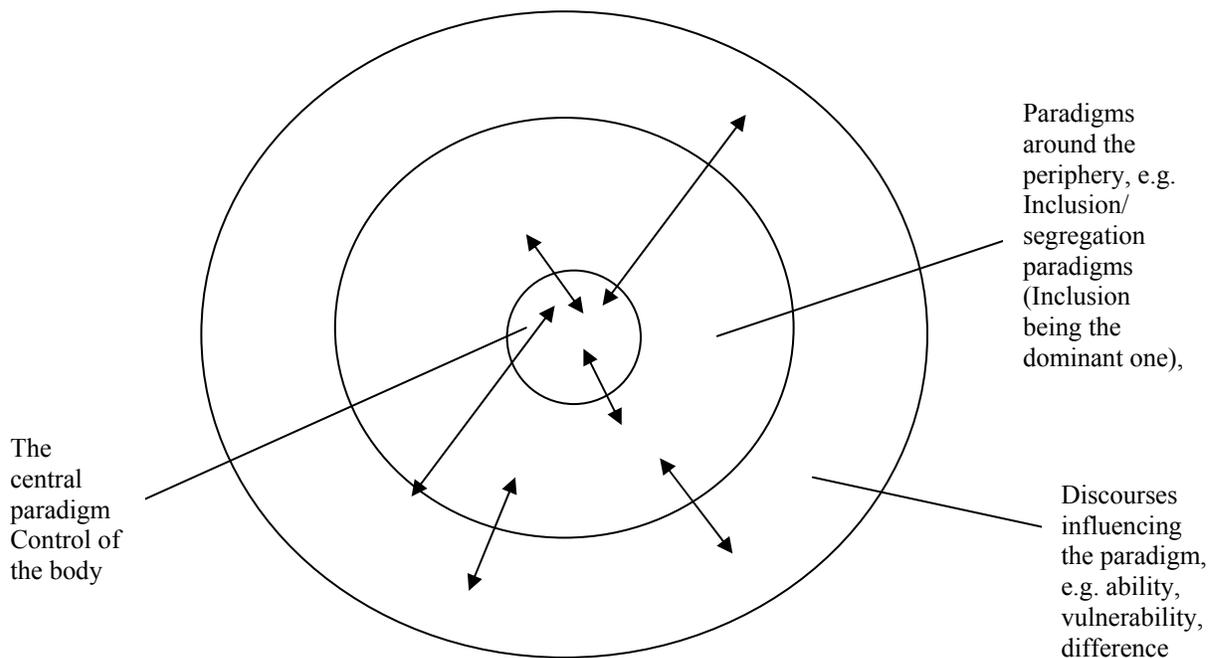


The underpinning discourses (and there are many, for instance medical diagnosis, difference, ability, bullying, vulnerability) influence the over-riding paradigms, which in turn influence the core paradigms and the discourses themselves.

Another model, with less hierarchy, could be the one below, which views the more symbiant nature of paradigms and discourse. It directly links into the work of the philosopher of science (Lakatos, 1976) with a core paradigm in the sense of Kuhn (1996), with “soft” edges that change without effecting the paradigm. The paradigm hard-core centre is the control of the body one, and softer ones being

relating to being seen as different/segregation, integration and inclusion that surround it. These change with discourses, but do not effect the hard core centre. Arrows indicate where there are influences between paradigms and discourse.

**Figure 7.3 A Second Model of the Relationship between Discourse and Paradigms in the Research**



Within the model there are arrows going in both directions because the overall function of the control of the body is formed by both the paradigms, and the discourses that in turn form the paradigms. Likewise the discourses are influenced by the paradigms and overall function, and the paradigms by the need to control the body. The original inclusion agenda was to sweep away all of the above, to have pupils with disability as part of a mainstream school with the school adapted to meet all pupil needs. The pupil with additional needs was to be

seen not as something apart from society and mainstream schooling, with the system of schooling itself removing all barriers so that diversity was celebrated for all pupils, and all needs were met. What has occurred in Hibbing, and many other LEAs, is *“the undignified scramble for recourses around SEN”* (Warnock 2000), with some of the discourses changing, but no challenge of the over-riding paradigm of difference and control of those who are seen as being different. Examples of this in Hibbing can be seen in the discussions by schools and parents concerning their fears that the removal of statements will lead to poorer provision, and that there are distinct groups of pupils (normally “their” children by birth or teaching) who specifically need these. Nationally there are discourses around wider social inclusion where disparate groups should be included in terms of political control (Dyson, 2003).

In other local authorities the lack of change of central paradigms can be seen within their SEN or Inclusion Strategy, both of which are in reality about identification, and ultimately controlling the body. Examples are given below from some of the LEAs who have espoused inclusion, as well as others claiming to be moving in this direction. For instance, although Nottinghamshire (2002), in their SEN and Inclusion policy, start off with principles that refer to all children, much of the policy concentrates on pupils with SEN as if they were a discrete and different group. The authority lists the special schools in the council *“for certain types of need”*. Newham (1996) highlight how all staff should have disability awareness training, and go further than any other LEA policy

investigated, in trying to keep inclusive principles for all children. However, SEN is also mentioned as a separate group, mainly in relation to the fact that pupils with discrete needs have legal obligations attached to them. The LEA is therefore confined by the DfES governmentality discourse.

Rutland (2002) and Cheshire (2003) also recognise inclusion as having wider issues other than different rights for a select group (whilst in Foucauldian terms still retaining the power structures by segregating them as a separate entity, such as labelling and segregated provision).

The picture of discrete groups of pupils can be seen in Devon's (2003) policy on Emotional and Behavioural Difficulties, which separates children by definition and placement. Northumberland (2003) and Sheffield (2003) do not even mention inclusion in their SEN policy whilst Newcastle (2002) has a policy, like that of Hibbing, which appears to be influenced more by central government directives than by disability rights, due to the stress put on legislation throughout the policy.

Both Staffordshire (2003) and Shropshire (2003) have a SEN and Inclusion strategy, one that links the two concepts together, whilst monitoring distinct groups. For instance Staffordshire have banded funding, placing pupils as a certain funding stream, and special schools as key learning centres for identified need (such as "*physical disability*").

Thomas and Loxley (2001) demonstrate how the concepts of SEN and inclusion are in conflict, because one (SEN) reinforces difference and separation, whilst inclusion is a particular discourse of belonging and acceptance. I will argue that, in fact, inclusion as a concept has changed so that it is not a paradigm shift, but that it is modifying the edges of the paradigm relating to control of the body / objectification around the concept of SEN.

Within the policies are no mention of removing the function and knowledge/power around the label of SEN, and in fact the discourses in the entire policies bar Newham (2003) and Rutland (2003) reinforce this by looking at separate categories of being, something seen throughout Hibbing's discourse.

Therefore the model of paradigms and discourses above has meant that some of the discourses (being accommodated in a separate building, being given a medical label) have changed. However, for most LEAs the paradigm of being different has remained, and for all the LEAs studied the overriding function of the control of the body is still in force backed up by the paradigms and discourses underneath them.

The move from SEN/disability inclusion towards a wider definition, including social inclusion, has pushed this process on further. This is because the emphasis has been taken away from disability onto a wider, more diffuse definition that means the more challenging aspects of SEN/disability inclusion, for

instance the inclusion of pupils with challenging behaviour, can be side-stepped by administrators and schools. In Foucauldian terms epistemes change when the discourses force them to do so. Around inclusion in the United Kingdom this may occur in the future but appears not to have done so yet.

The concepts of cognitive models do not sit easily with Foucauldian theory, since the theory would argue that discourse is the defining and ultimate model.

However, as has already been argued, this statement has serious limitations, since as humans we have to model events cognitively, otherwise the only time that we would be thinking is when entering into discourse. What is interesting though is in how these models are defined.

Despite some evidence that a few prototypes (Rosch, 1977) are defined from physiological parameters, many are formed from discourse and the constructs we have around us (Hardman, 2001). This is especially true when dealing with constructs that are further along the relativist end of the realist- relativist continuum, such as disability and inclusion. The schemata and heuristics that are built up in these areas are ones, as already seen, that are based on language, how we model events, and the paradigms that we work within. Therefore they could be seen as cognitive representations of the discourse and paradigms that surround us. Examples of this were seen in Hibbing in how the language used during the consultation meetings directed the direction of thought of both the parents/ school staff and the LEA Officers. The LEA Officers met regularly during

the meetings in order to look at the language they were using in relation to past meetings, and this was done in such a way as to clarify positions, as well as to further confirm thoughts such as pupils being in definitive categories. Parents and staff at the schools had discourses that had formed part of the culture of the establishment, such as the vulnerability of pupils in mainstream, how physical disability/learning disability (or whatever the need catered for in the school) could not be met in mainstream, and that they were not part of the decision making.

### **7.8 Implications for Cognitive Psychology**

Cognitive psychology can be viewed as a subset disciplinary discourse within psychology. It has its own terms of reference, paradigms (information processing, Lachman, Lachman and Butterfield, 1979, artificial intelligence, Boden 1977) and structures of operation, often modelling an objective world accessed by computer models or laboratory experiments. However, this can be different if some of the models such as those from Rosch (1977), Schank and Ableson (1977) and Bartlett (1932) are re-construed within a framework of paradigms. They can then be seen as models of how humans' model the world according to prototypes (most common examples of a paradigm) scripts and plans and schemata, (both good examples of common paradigms). The models demonstrate that it is not just discourse that models the world but physiology to some extent and the world itself having an influence. A real world which humans interpret, influenced not only by their philosophy but the language and paradigms they operate within.

## **7.9 Implications for School Improvement**

The school improvement movement also takes on a different dimension when viewed from Foucault's work. From a historical context, it is a method of control, around a paradigm based on knowledge/ power where definite parameters are laid around which discourses occur within a limited disciplinary context. The idea of OfSTED orthodoxy around school improvement (Ferguson, Early, Fidler and Ouston, 2000) can be reframed as OfSTED control of knowledge (a disciplinary discourse) and the way of doing things/ governmentality (Foucault, 2003b). It is a way of central government influencing the paradigms within which schools, and the staff employed within them, operate. Within this context, inclusion and the agenda around raising standards may be apparently in conflict. However, raising standards are all within a limited framework and inclusion in OfSTED terms is about needs being met in a mainstream environment, rather than about the need to do away with categories of control, such as SEN, learning difficulty and "EBD". Both operate as discourses backing the paradigm of the need for certain practices to be carried out in school.

## **7.10 Critique of the Methodology Used in the Study**

The descriptions above of how Foucauldian frameworks can explain much of the data link into the research methodology used. Both lie within the same paradigm, one in which there are elements of a hard, "real" world that exists outside of humans. However, the paradigms that humans use to explain the world, their disciplinary discourses, and narratives, all influence and shape the interpretation

of the world to a significant level. This is especially the case when researching how human beings model the world in an area that is socially construed, such as disability or inclusion.

Miles and Huberman (1994, p277) discuss how to ensure that research has “goodness” and data is of quality. They come from a tradition of “*critical realism*”, whilst my own orientation in this research is further towards the relativist end of the continuum. Where their approach conflicts with the one used in this research I will highlight this. The criteria were used post data analysis to ensure that the research was “not wrong” since they argue that in qualitative research you can not “get it all right”. Their “goodness” and quality criteria are outlined on the following two pages, matched against the research.

**Table 7.3 Ways of Ensuring “Goodness” of Data from Miles and Huberman 1994, Chapter 10.**

<b>Ways of Ensuring “Goodness”</b>	<b>Brief Explanation</b>	<b>How Achieved in the Research</b>
Representativeness	Good notes being made	Initial coding of actual discourse and checking back
Seek plausibility	Ensuring that relations imposed relate to the data	Foucault (1977) would argue that meaning gives rise to paradigms which in turn influence meanings. The main plausibility was in the reflection back to others of my narrative.
Clustering	Scan for meaning	Done by the use of nodes/codes
Make metaphors	Use of to reduce data	Links to my model coding level iii and memoing
Counting	Need for judgements on amounts	Done in terms of the codes but care was taken in that archaeology (Foucault, 1969) digs for meaning under the discourses and pure numerical amounts distract from this in that a seldom spoken discourse could be a fundamental one in terms of archaeology.
Contrast/comparisons	E.g. between case studies/schools/individuals	This was done- see tables 6.4 to 6.7
Partitioning variables	Reflection back to unpack earlier clusters	Part of the continual feedback loop in the model
Subsuming Particulars into the general	Look for class/groupings	Again, part of the continual feedback loop
Factoring	Looking for underpinning meaning	Done in the creative coding/synthesis phase
Relation between variables	E.g. during one case study situation	This coding occurred earlier, and as part of the reflective feed back loops in the research model
Finding intervening variables	What helps relate weakly related codes	Looked on as part of the creative synthesis and archaeology
Build logical chains of evidence	Look for chains	Done by creative synthesis and writing in the research model
Conceptual/theoretical coherence	Do the results make sense in terms of concept/ theories	Done in the Discussion, but note must be taken that this is my narrative of the case study and that other theories could also apply

**Table 7.4 How to Ensure Data Quality from Miles and Huberman (1994, Chapter 10)**

<b>How to Ensure Data Quality</b>	<b>Brief Explanation</b>	<b>How Used in the Research</b>
Representativeness	Is the data representative of what has occurred?	All meetings, interviews, newspaper articles, letters and meetings attended were transcribed and coded
Researcher effects	Is the researcher imposing their own values /ideas onto the research and/or becoming part of it, “going native”	Reflection loop tried to ensure against researchers views being imposed on the data but the effect of the research situation meant that I was very much an actor within it
Triangulation	Data should be triangulated- part of researchers life	Checking responses in a number of situations/ against a variety of data, e.g. booklets/newspapers/meetings/ interviews
Meaning of outliers	The exemplars away from the core of the data should be tested against the theory	There were few of these due to the nature of the data
Use of extreme cases	Use of people with known biases (need to weight evidence to take account of this)	Not done due to a) extreme positions being taken by most participants b) the assumption is that there is an objective core reality in the situation
Follow up surprises	Look at data that does this and do not ignore it	The main example of this was the similarities in parts of the LEA and special school staff/ parents underlying concepts
Look for negative evidence	Outliers may not do this- seek contradictory evidence	Done with core concepts e.g. those who did not want to categorise out of the LEA officers
If-then tests	Look for routes of meaning	Has a positivist feel (e.g. “logical” connections whilst discourse theory does not follow this.) However, followed up in terms of looking at routes of meaning to develop theory
Rule out spurious relations	Look for routes of meaning in relation to the data	Done, but in discourse with much meaning coming from discourse, not straightforward
Replicating a finding	Could the findings be replicated again?	A difficult concept in a unique case study (Gillham, 2000) but done in terms of other LEA inclusion/SEN policies
Check out rival explanations	Could other explanations make sense of the data?	Done in relation to, for instance, a socio- cultural explanation and explored in the Discussion
Feedback from informants	Describe findings with the people involved in the study to check out meaning	If looking at archaeology (hidden meaning) then this is not useful but transcripts were sent back to the interviewees to check they accurately represented views.

The methodology used had a few limitations, and these will be outlined below, along with the implications. Then a discussion around the benefits and implications of the research model used will be made.

Case study research as a method allowed detailed investigation to occur in three sub sets of one large case study. Some tentative generalisation has occurred in that findings have been compared and contrasted with published policies from other English LEAs. However, this has been done with caution, because of several factors. Stake (1995) and Gillham (2000) both say that generalisation is difficult because one case study is that, a bounded item of interest, which can only build up knowledge, rather than discover findings that can be generalised. However, the application of Foucauldian theory has meant that paradigms that are national (and international in many cases, Miejer, 2003) have been looked at. This again must be done with caution. It is a big leap from one case study, with firm time boundaries, to more national policies, although both exist within the same methods of control, Foucault's (2003b) governmentality. The case studies looked at in Hibbing were within discrete boundaries, and with inclusion being a process (Ainscow, Farrell and Tweddle, 2000), may have led to different discourses in the future.

Both validity and reliability are less clear-cut in research with the theoretical orientations I had, rather than a positivist background. Gillham (2000), in his view of case studies, views them as an interesting story, one that is valid in that it is

the discourse of the teller, and reliable in that it occurred at that particular point in time. The analysis of data was as rigorous as I could make it, with my own discourse being as clear for inspection as everyone else's, both as a participant in the case and as a researcher into it.

My influence, as a researcher, but also someone bound up in the process, as a senior LEA officer, cannot be underestimated. At all times, via the model of study outlined in figure 3.4, my own discourses, influences and theories were reflected upon as to how they influenced the study. During the individual school case study interviews, my position as a senior local authority officer was seen as being important and could have influenced what was said. A former Principal Educational Psychologist was on the governing body and, as a profession were therefore viewed as being supportive of the school, whilst my own personal philosophy was that pupils needs should be met within a mainstream environment as far as possible.

The results were valid in that the findings were checked from several sources, and reliable in that they were duplicated across them. However, both of these concepts are less secure when working in a more relativist framework than a psychological laboratory. Therefore the discussions above, along with the interpretation of the data are my interpretation, with rigour built in, but still my interpretation. I also had to be aware that I did not over compensate in negating views that were closer to mine. Full transcripts of all the data used are in the

appendices so that others can view them to put their own narrative on the data should they wish to. The questions in the interview were biased towards change, whilst the developing theory related to more than this, to the underpinning structures of discourse and paradigms. However, being semi-structured and only part of the data this was felt to be less of a problem than it would appear due to the varied sources of data.

Data itself came from different sources, with different audiences, in different formats and amounts for each of the case studies. In quantitative terms there was more data from the consultation sub case study due to the many meetings and newspaper articles. However the many sources of data represented people's discourse and narrative of the situation and were all valuable, with the source and amount of data being reflected in the feed back loop in the research methodology. The accuracy of data, for instance newspaper articles being edited, was also taken account of but it was also recognised that newspapers are a form of narrative and meaning making.

Robson (2002, p101-106) discusses reliability and validity in detail. One form of reliability is participant error (e.g. changes due to tiredness), another observer error/bias. Both of these were seen as being part of the discourse with triangulation and reflective feedback loops in the research model trying to mitigate against them.

In terms of validity there could be difficulties with construct validity (measuring what you want to, not what the data deems you should) which was felt to be less of a problem in the developing theory in that discourse determined the paradigms.

Internal validity can be threatened by many things, but once again was not a big issue in the research in that it was not into the effect of things, but the discourses around inclusion. The sampling techniques used, and the implications of these have been both covered in this section and the methodology chapter. However, when looking at underlying paradigms, note was taken of people's changing circumstances, whether they were saying particular things to myself due to perceived position, and in the selection of people to interview. The Fairclough (2001) method of analysing the situation for discourse, appendix four, provided this framework.

The case studies also had time limited boundaries, and as people began to assimilate the change more discourses may have changed.

The model based on grounded theory proved to be very useful in that at all stages reflection occurred on my own discourses. By combining elements of heuristic research (Moustakas, 1990) the periods of incubation and reflection could be further explored. The model would be rejected as grounded theory by Glaser and Strauss (1967) in that too much theory was imposed, but as has been

argued in the research methodology chapter, the idea that theory miraculously appears out of the study is one that is difficult to sustain. This is especially true if you take the view that thought arises out of the paradigms that surround us, and the discourses that surround these. Researchers come from paradigm based positions as much as those “researched” do.

The model was useful in that it could be adapted, for instance to include action research (Reason, 1988), and an extra loop in the model has been designed in order to accommodate this. The use of Fairclough’s (2001) model of the analysis of language was also useful in setting the initial context of conversations, meetings and consultations. However, it was only useful in this respect because it is more useful for naturalistic settings, other than the more artificial ones of interviews. NVivo (QSR, 2002) provided a useful tool for the initial analysis of data, especially when Gibbs (2002) was used to aid data analysis.

The whole process of the study was in contrast to the other forms of research that I had previously been involved in, changing my own paradigms of how humans relate to the world. The developed theory from the research, that people modelled the changes around inclusion in relation to their narratives of the world, clearly linked to the research model that had been developed to the social constructionist orientation underpinning it.

### **7.11 The Impact of the Research on the Local Authority**

To separate knowledge and power is difficult within the framework of Foucault, since concepts and paradigms relate to disciplinary discourse and actions.

However, the research had impacts in many practical ways within Hibbing, based on attempts to change paradigms, summarised below:

- The research methodology, especially the semi-structured interviews was used in order to design a project into how learners' views could impact on LEA and school policies.
- The review of literature fed directly into both the public consultations (in answering questions from a sound knowledge base) and in reviewing the policy.
- During the emotionally stressful times of the review of specialist provision, I was able to take a more dispassionate view, in seeing the paradigms and reasons for others discourse. This view allowed other LEA officers to also become less emotionally involved.
- The training and development strategy around SEN/Disability educational inclusion, currently being written by a group led by myself, looks at paradigms as being important, as well as skills.
- The Educational Psychology Service developed a model of consultation based on helping consultees view the paradigms that they were working within.
- My own practice has changed to be more reflective, and to look at digging into underlying paradigms of both individuals and organisations.

## 7.12 Implications for Educational Psychology

Educational psychology is a disciplinary discourse, with rites of passage relating to set course criteria, much as Norwegian academic SEN (Nevoy, 2003) has. This rite in England and Wales (2004) involves passing a course to give you a psychology degree, qualified teaching status, two years teaching and a post graduate course with supervision in the first year of practice. All elements are rigorous, e.g. the candidate has to perform at a certain level and to use certain concepts, regulated by bodies such as The British Psychological Society.

Knowledge is maintained, either by closed tests, by objectifying young people or by reducing them to a “problem” or “issue” in terms of a consultation.

The implications for the study are that , as a profession, educational psychology needs to review carefully the paradigms within which it operates, especially in relation to the power/knowledge concept, for instance in the use of normative assessments without understanding the paradigms within which they operate (Thomas and Loxley, 2001).

In regard to inclusion careful note needs to occur about the paradigms that surround the concept and how these are changing.

The profession can act as agents of change, as highlighted by Miller (2003) in relation to behaviour. Some discourse within Hibbing, for instance from a parent

in a consultation meeting who disagreed with two psychologists recommendations that her child's needs could be met in mainstream, indicates how the inclusion agenda was being facilitated on an individual basis in the LEA.

### **7.13 Implications for Further Research/ Alternative Explanations of the Data**

The paradigms and rites of passage for educational psychology could be a focus for future research, for instance in following a professional training course and looking at how the student discourse changes during the year.

The data described in the research only relates to one case study and other case studies need to occur to see if similar results occur. It could also be extended to see how epistemes/paradigms have changed in national documents on inclusion.

Alternative ways of viewing such data could occur. One example would be in the use of socio- cultural psychology (Daniels, 2000) or activity theory (Engestrom, Miettinen and Punamaki, 1999). By looking at the use of language or activities in Vygotskian terms a new slant on the data could be made in how language and /or activity mediated between the world and thought. It was not followed in this particular study because the research into paradigms was felt to have more use in the modelling of change, but could be an alternative way of modelling change around inclusion for future studies. Other possible research orientations are explored below.

**Table 7.4 Examples of Possible Alternative Theoretical Orientations**

<b>Theoretical Orientation</b>	<b>Advantages and Disadvantages</b>
Vygotskian approach (Daniels, 2000)	Could explore discourse around thought and language in more depth but could have moved away from looking at overall paradigms.
Activity Theory (Engestrom, Mietinen and Punamaki, 1999)	As above, but would have investigated the activities people engaged in , e.g. protest meetings, planning around LEA plans
Discourse Analysis (Edwards and Potter, 1992)	Would have provided in depth investigations of specific discourses but could have been too micro to miss out larger epistemes.
Narrative Theory (Crossley, 2000)	Could have investigated a few peoples' stories around events, but once again could have lost the underlying paradigms driving them.
Personal Construct Psychology (Kelly, 1955)	Could have given in-depth views again , but once again the driving epistemes could have been lost.
Cognitive Psychology (e.g. Schank and Ableson, 1977)	The assumption is of an objective truth to be investigated, without the discourses of the researcher being accounted for.
Management Theory and the Management of Change (Morrison, 1998)	Could have provided a picture of how change was managed, especially if the case study had been over several more years. However, once again it could have missed out on investigating underlying paradigms by focussing on the process.
School Improvement (Fullan, 2001)	The same arguments exist as in the management of change.
Participatory Research (Oliver, 1992)	Could have investigated areas disabled groups wished, but would not then have necessarily looked at underlying discourse, and disabled groups had various opinions during the inclusion strategy.
A more positivist approach such as the administration of questionnaires (Robson 2002, p227)	There is an assumption of an objective reality in this approach, one that is not influenced by the researcher

There have been few case studies on how complex educational change occurs around inclusion and a bigger picture needs to be developed on how this occurs, and how to ensure that change is manageable. Within the particular case study information was fed back to senior LEA officers on how to engage schools earlier, to engage parents in order to give them guarantees, and to incorporate philosophical reasons for inclusion.

## **CHAPTER EIGHT**

### **CONCLUSIONS AND CONTRIBUTION TO KNOWLEDGE**

The above discussion has concentrated on the implications of the research for both theory and practice. It has been argued that inclusion as a concept has changed, and that instead of a new paradigm, is in reality a continuation of an old one, albeit with different discourses. This enables the control/ objectification of the body by discourses relating to differences in people needing segregation, or different treatment.

The usefulness of the theories of Foucault has been argued for in understanding people's discourses around change and inclusion. These can incorporate many of the discourse that people in Hibbing had around the inclusion strategy.

A new model for research based on grounded theory and heuristic research has been formulated, and evaluated as being useful methodology within the context of this case study approach, where it took account of the researcher biases, and involvement within the study.

Differences in case study discourses relate to definitions of inclusion, funding, mainstream schools' ability to cater for all needs, central government agendas, parental choice, how needs are categorised, a us Vs. them culture and attributions for change. Similarities between the case studies were also defined, with a core paradigm being the control of the individual by defining them as being different.

The contributions to knowledge have been several. The process of changing the provision for pupils educated in special schools and units has been investigated, in relation to the discourse that various stakeholder groups had. This has been related to the various theories of the representation of knowledge, cognitive, social and work around school improvement. The most useful explanatory tool has been an investigation into the paradigms and epistemes, in Foucault's terms, that influence discourse, and in turn are influenced by it. An investigation of these has argued that inclusion looked to be a paradigm shift around special needs/disability a few years ago but has now turned into a change around the edges of a paradigm, rather than a more substantial shift of the paradigm itself. This has implications for local authorities that write policies that are in reality ones for special needs, rather than inclusion, but term them inclusion policies. It was felt justifiable to generalise some of the findings in the case study into other contexts due to an investigation of other local authorities policies in relation to those in Hibbing.

Change concerning inclusion seem to be complex in the case study LEA, and suggestions to improve the change process by reference to a model (Wallace and Pocklington, 2001) have been made.

**Appendix One**  
**Diary of Events Relating to the Inclusion Strategy and the Research Study 1999-January 2004**

*Events prior to my appointment within the borough have been taken from interviews from other LEA officers and analysis of documents*

Date	National events	Events relating to the Inclusion Strategy	Events relating to my own involvement
December 1999	Prior to 1999, Warnock Committee report (HMSO 1979), 1981 Education Act, 1996 Education Act and the code of Practice on SEN (1994) all increased moves towards inclusive education	First Inclusion Strategy	
2000	Second Code of Practice on SEN in several draft formats		
July 2001	Second Code of Practice on SEN and SEN and Disability Act Code for schools published	Second Inclusion Strategy published	
Oct 2001		AD(SEN) leaves to be replaced by the Chief Advisor	
June 2001		LEA OfSTED inspection published-compliments LEA but has some criticisms of Inclusion Strategy	
February 2002		Third Inclusion Strategy published	
April 2002		Consultation document published Chief Advisor (also Deputy Director ) heads up new branch of Social Inclusion-Head of Pupil	

<p>May 2002</p>		<p>support services becomes AD for school inclusion- the old branch splits into two Comments on inclusion consultation</p>	<p>1<sup>st</sup> commenced appointment within the LEA 2<sup>nd</sup> attended special HTs meeting – agenda mainly on the restraint policy not on inclusion 9<sup>th</sup> SIS (way of delegating funds to mainstream) meeting on alternative ways of funding special provision Visit specialist provision- SLD heads argue for their provision to continue, MLD that they should take some SLD pupils as part of their pupil population ISSG group discuss strategy 23<sup>rd</sup> SIS group discuss reducing paper work 25<sup>th</sup> meeting SJ and chief advisor re challenging schools</p>
<p>June 2002</p>		<p>Special Heads asked in groups (MLD,SLD/PD) to submit their own ideas- EBD schools are in a later review Individual meetings with specialist schools and resourced schools occurs</p>	
<p>July 2002</p>		<p>Special Heads submit their proposals</p>	<p>9<sup>th</sup> Inclusion Strategy Steering Group confirm some of the ideas in the strategy 15<sup>th</sup>-16<sup>th</sup> detailed time lines are produced by the strategic managers- one meeting is taped 17<sup>th</sup> Schools of concern strategy agree that new</p>

August 2002		<p>Consultation replies are analysed by one officer</p> <p>Special Heads comments are analysed in terms of pupil numbers</p>	<p>criteria for special schools and units is required- meeting in August look at this</p> <p>SJ analyses consultation responses in terms of comments relation to change</p>
September 2002	<p>Most of the elements of the Code on the SEN and Disability Act for schools become legally binding</p>	<p>Feedback of the inclusion strategy consultation to council</p>	<p>13<sup>th</sup> Meeting re the inclusion strategy, how it fitted into individual service plans and new proposals for specialist schools</p> <p>23<sup>rd</sup> Presentation of proposed new specialist structure to special school HTs</p> <p>end of month strategic managers submitted their various plans to deliver aspects of the inclusion strategy</p>
October 2002		<p>Heads presented structure to their staff and governors (one MLD Head did not)</p> <p>The local paper runs a front page headline concerning the shutting of the school for physical disabilities</p> <p>The next week it is on page 4 including a reply from the Director of Education that it is just proposals at the moment and are one of many options</p>	<p>9<sup>th</sup> Meeting to discuss comments further with Special HTs- two Heads against the strategy- most agree with it- former allegiances are broken depending upon the position of the particular school in the strategy</p> <p>14<sup>th</sup> School Inclusion and Social Inclusion branches meet for the day to discuss strategic decisions like the area inclusion model- I produce the first draft of the model for inclusion areas</p>
November 2002		<p>8<sup>th</sup> – one MLD Head who was very much against the strategy</p>	<p>LEA case study</p> <p>individual interviews</p>

<p>December 2002</p>	<p>Publication of the Audit Commission report on SEN recommending that more pupils are educated in mainstream</p>	<p>meets the Assistant Director for direct talks to out line concerns that a very good school is to be changed</p> <p>12<sup>th</sup> ISSG meeting- area model sub group formed with SJ leading- the idea of inclusion areas is suggested to the group as a model</p> <p>Dep. Director meets governors of Case study MLD school- promises that there is a future for the school on the site and the staff are far happier</p> <p>13<sup>th</sup> Special HTs meeting- they are annoyed that the parental consultation summary has gone out when not all of them have felt able to send it to their schools parents (past agreements were although they were unhappy with some of the language they would send it out)</p> <p>15<sup>th</sup> SJ, AD, Head of SEN and parent partnership meet to revise the school plan to go to Heads week ending 22-11-02. They work on new policy for schools also looking at finances of unit provision and what schools should provide</p> <p>2/12 week AD, head SEN and SJ (for part) spend 2 ½ days writing final version of special school review report- due to go to council 6/12 but AD told by chair of education to put draft on it (he had seen</p>	<p>commence</p>
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<p>January 2003</p>	<p>Comparative Performance Review Places Hibbing in top category</p>	<p>earlier versions) Units that are proposed to close are met (HT of the schools plus chair of governors) 9/12 Discussed in branch and AD told by Chair of Education committee to put options in it for the council 10/12 went to special schools and the units 12/12 At the Special HT meeting (I could not attend) the MLD HTs were very angry with the proposals, and the HT of Case study MLD school walked out of the meeting (the quote from someone there was "He stormed out muttering under his breath"). They put together a paper that they want to present to the DOE and to bypass the AD . The DOE does not agree to this and stated that he will only see them if with the AD as well – he tells them that he will attend the next special school HT meeting in January, along with the deputy director and AD.</p> <p>13<sup>th</sup> School and Social inclusion branches decide to trial Inclusion Quality Mark with schools- came from an influential primary Head who had seen it advertised 14<sup>th</sup> Goes to ISSG for Head volunteers to trial in their schools and suggest adaptations before being launched in the LEA – aim for September 2004</p>	<p>11/12 SJ visits Case study MLD school to discuss the research with staff- described grounded theory and the DHT felt that this was unusual because his version of research was to decide on what he wanted to find then to get the evidence for it. They said they were very angry and would be swearing a lot if the inclusion document was to be discussed. One LEA Officer was personalised as being responsible for the events ("If that-name-comes here we will give her a piece of our mind") Agreed to work in pairs and single interviews</p> <p>One pair and three individual interviews occur</p>
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		<p>Special School Head meeting where Chair of Education committee, director and Deputy director all give the same message</p> <p>Debate between a MLD school and SLD school with the MLD school refusing to accept some SLD pupils</p> <p>Press reports on a weekly basis about the PD school saying consultation is a sham. The UNISON rep had told her members in the school to look for other jobs- this led to an official complaint from the LEA and disciplinary action.</p>	<p>Interviews are completed and analysis commences using NVivo</p>
February 2003	The LEA look at national statistics which place them in the 20 most segregated LEAs in the country for the last four years, but with “improving” figures	<p>Start of meetings to be held in every special school, for parents and open meetings – these are transcribed. Special school staff turn up to all the parental and open meetings for the public, raising the same issues. The first public meeting scheduled for a 8 pm finish ends at 9.45 pm- similar pattern with group of staff and parents going to each public meeting</p> <p>Meetings are transcribed – the MLD schools and PD school are the most angry- much discourse around bullying/ safety and that mainstream do not want the pupils</p>	<p>I attend about two thirds of the consultations representing the LEA but not the school the research is occurring in- consultations that are school based have a parent, governor/SMT and staff meeting</p> <p>I am involved in several meetings to look at next steps</p> <p>Involved in a meeting to discuss the protocol for outreach that is already occurring from the SLD schools</p>
March 2003	Statistics for 2002 are found- still low in league tables for	Consultations with pupils occur. The informal	

<p>April 2003</p>	<p>amount of pupils in special schools but improved ratios</p> <p>Baroness Ashtons Role of Special Schools report published</p>	<p>consultations cease- a safe our special school web site is started by parents linking in with another LEA's campaign. School for PD launch a campaign backed by the local paper with yellow ribbons to save the school 28<sup>th</sup> A pledge to protect the right to special for those in it. This is changed a day later to read specialist provision rather than special school already attending agreed to not pursue option 3- quick closure of the MLD schools</p> <p>3<sup>rd</sup>- at a special Heads meeting a SLD Head said that should have continued with option 3<sup>rd</sup>- a MLD Head was unhappy re the change from special school to specialist provision Director meets MLD head who had written a letter of complaint 7<sup>th</sup> AD meets council and general agreement with all the proposals bar the outreach should be from the special schools. One councillor said did not wish for specials to close another involved in transitions said many of those he had talked to wish they could have gone to mainstream 8<sup>th</sup> Early Years Panel- still have medics arguing for special One SLD</p>	<p>Am informed that School for PD used to be looked on as a school for the terminally ill and is still by some Hibbing people</p> <p>Meeting with school places officer to discuss the closure of schools/ change of function and the process- planning around this- School Organisation Committee has 5 groups with one vote each- governors, councillors, Cof E reps, RC reps and LSC- need all to agree or max 2 abstain to go forward otherwise goes to arbitration – plans are made for all eventualities</p> <p>I run a meeting with the special school Heads on Baroness Ashton's report</p> <p>Presentation by</p>
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<p>May 2003</p>		<p>Head who had refused to have more pupils in Sept wanted as many as possible but for the money to be redistributed from MLD schools</p> <p>School for PD request a meeting with Baroness Ashton- DFES telephone LEA and are surprised with the large number of special schools</p> <p>Final report written and public 19<sup>th</sup> School for PD complain that they have done a condition survey and that the cost was £600k, not the £1,500k in the report.</p> <p>Deputy Director of Education seconded for 0.5 to develop children's services</p> <p>Local elections- Labour lose several seats but still major party in the local authority</p> <p>Report goes to lifelong learning panel and is passed- some of the members were new ones and members of the Save our Special schools campaign 15 000 signatures on petition to save School for PD presented to chair of Education</p>	<p>myself to the Schools Organisation Committee on history, national and international perspectives on inclusion</p> <p>Told by school admission section that there is no need to go to face to face consultation again- just formal written notices</p>
<p>June 2003</p>		<p>End of month- report goes to cabinet and agreed to go to formal consultation- Leader of the Council states that it will give parents far more</p>	

July 2003		<p>choice</p> <p>The School for PD action group state that the repair bill is half what was quoted and that the council are making money out of out of borough pupils</p>	
August 2003		<p>An ongoing newspaper debate between the chair of Lifelong Learning and the chair of Save School for PD occurs</p>	<p>My involvement in this, especially area</p>
September 2003	<p>Children's Services Green Paper published</p>	<p>Proposals to close several primary schools and to build new ones to replace them (normally involving an amalgamation) are published</p> <p>Initial discussions on an EBD strategy alongside the inclusion one occur</p> <p>LEA/Health and SSD have ongoing work related to this</p> <p>22<sup>nd</sup> Meeting between Save our School for PD and cabinet member for Lifelong Learning The council opposition parties table a motion to keep school for PD open. It is defeated by a large majority and the local paper announces that the campaign to save the school is near its end Formal notices are</p>	<p>delivery of services (inc. SEN), and disseminating good inclusive practice</p>

<p>October 2003</p>	<p>Minimum Funding Guarantee for schools sent by the DFES to the LEA</p>	<p>prepared to close schools One unit uses money to prop up financial problems- one staff member early retirement, another full time in class, another SENCo</p> <p>Formal notices are written and the paper publishes a few letters but has a new education page educated by another reporter than the one who had led the campaign to save the PD school</p> <p>Audit commission Report into Hibblings SEN spending published where, in relation to statistical neighbours, it spends more per pupil on SEN, has the most in primary special schools, and the second most in secondary</p>	
<p>November 2003</p>		<p>5<sup>th</sup> Meeting with all special and unit heads where 2 units funding to cease in April 2003 and all surplus places to be funded to a 70% level and the 2 special schools with extra places to be given more funding</p>	<p>6<sup>th</sup> I lead a discussion with several Heads on reducing statements in mainstream</p>
<p>December 2003</p>		<p>New Director of Education commences- says that inclusion and SEN are still the main areas to be worked on according to the LEA CPA ratings The formal notices</p>	

<p>January 2004</p>	<p>Locally and nationally the Children's Service agenda becomes a major priority.</p>	<p>relating to the re-organisation of specialist provision are written</p> <p>Local plans are produced to move to area teams of a multi-disciplinary nature including special school outreach</p> <p>21<sup>st</sup> formal notices relating to the re-organisation of specialist provision are published, several Head Teachers send them to parents with a covering letter, causing some confusion, e.g. giving different closure dates.</p> <p>The newspaper campaign to Save the school for physical disabilities intensifies.</p>	<p>Data gathering ceases on the 31<sup>st</sup> January 2004 following initial reactions to the formal notices, mainly by the local press.</p>
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## Appendix Two. Example of the Letter to Gain Permission from Research Participants

date

Dear (name),

Thank you for agreeing to be part of the investigation being taken by myself (Simon Jenner) as part of a research study into how people are modelling change in relation to inclusion. The research will form part of a doctoral study, based at Birmingham University Department of Education. It will also help Hibbing in the inclusion strategy and yourselves as individuals and an organisation in reflecting upon the changes you are undergoing in relation to Inclusive initiatives both locally and nationally. A short summary report for the LEA is likely to be produced at the end of the research.

I will tape the discussions we have, and transcribe it into a written document. However, you will not be identified by name and strict confidentiality will be adhered to. Only statements relating to change will be put into the dissertation, once again with no way of identifying the speaker other than by terms such as Head Teacher, LEA Officer and so on.

If, at any point, you wish your comments not to form part of the research you can withdraw your consent.

The interview tape will be only listened to by myself, kept in a secure filing cabinet, and destroyed within five years of the discussion. Explicit ethical guidelines from The British Psychological Society and the British Educational Research Association will be followed.

Yours Sincerely,

Simon Jenner,(role).

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I, \_\_\_\_\_, am happy to be part of the above research and understand that I can withdraw my consent at any stage.

Signed \_\_\_\_\_ - Name \_\_\_\_\_ Date \_\_\_\_\_

### Appendix Three i

*Group Interview -Special School semi-structured. If the conversation took a relevant route then it was allowed to go along that avenue*

Date, venue and Participant

#### *Introduction*

- Can I introduce myself, my name is Simon Jenner and I am carrying out research into how people are modelling change, (this means how you view and feel about change), around the Inclusion Strategy in (name). The research will help the LEA to model how to best carry out any change in the future as well helping improve academic knowledge concerning the change process. My job is as the (name) in the borough, but my role here is as a researcher undertaking a doctoral study at Birmingham University. I will tape-record and transcribe the conversation, but only I will hear the tapes, and care will be taken that neither the school or individual concerned will be able to be identified from the transcript. Ethical guidelines on research from the British Psychological Society and British Educational Research Association will be followed. You can withdraw from the study at any time. The benefits to you as a school are hoped to be....

Have you any questions that you would like to ask?

For my records can you indicate how many of you are a LSA, teacher or manager within the school?

*Philosophy of Inclusion*

What do you think the word inclusion in the context of education means?

As a school do you feel there is an agreed view about inclusion? If so what is it? If not what are they and how do the different models relate to each other?

*The Concept of Change*

What is your view as a group about the (name) strategy?

In the past what have been some of the ways in which change has occurred positively in school and the LEA?

And some of the negative ways?

What made the positive things so and the negative things so?

*The future*

How would you like to see things happen in the future regarding the authority inclusion strategy?

What role will the school have a new role in the future?

And yourselves?

What things will enable and block these things occurring?

enable	block

Imagine that you have just woken up and you see a perfect inclusion strategy? Describe it. Does this differ in any way from the LEA strategy?

How honest do you as a group feel that you have been able to be concerning these questions? You do not need to tell me anything that you feel you have to have hold back but it will be useful to know why you have done so.

Have you anything else to add?

## Appendix Three ii

*Individual Interview- Special School semi-structured. If the conversation took a relevant route then it was allowed to go along that avenue*

Date, venue and participant

### *Introduction*

- Can I introduce myself, my name is Simon Jenner and I am carrying out research into how people are modelling change, (this means how you view feel about change), around the Inclusion Strategy in (name). The research will help the LEA to model how to best carry out any change in the future as well as improving academic world knowledge around change. My job is as the (name) in the borough, but my role here is as a researcher undertaking a doctoral study at Birmingham University. I will tape-record and transcribe the conversation, but only I will hear the tapes, and care will be taken that neither yourself as an individual or the LEA will be able to be identified from the transcript. Ethical guidelines on research from the British Psychological Society and British Educational Research Association will be followed. You can withdraw from the study at any time. Have you any questions that you would like to ask?

How have you been involved in the inclusion strategy so far?

*Philosophy of Inclusion*

What do you think the word inclusion in the context of education means?

As an LEA do you feel there is an agreed view about inclusion? If so what is it? If not what are the different views and are they in conflict?

Does this view agree with your own?- How? And why?

*The Concept of Change*

What is your view about the (name) strategy?

In the past what have been some of the ways in which change has occurred positively in work and your work life, especially regarding the inclusion strategy?

And some of the negative ways?

--

What made the positive things so and the negative things so?

positive
----------

negative
----------

*The future*

How would you like to see things happen in the future regarding the authority inclusion strategy?

--

What actions need to occur in order for positive change to occur in the future?

--

What things will enable and block these things occurring? What role do you think you will have?

enable	block

Imagine that you have just woken up and you see a perfect inclusion strategy? Describe it. Does this differ in any way from the LEA strategy?

What role do you see special schools, mainstream schools and the LEA having in the future?

How honest do you feel that you have been able to be concerning these questions? You do not need to tell me anything that you feel you have to have hold back but it will be useful to know why you have done so.

Is there anything else that you wish to add?

### Appendix Three iii

*Individual Interview- LEA semi-structured. If the conversation took a relevant route then it was allowed to go along that avenue*

Date and venue- participant

#### *Introduction*

Can I introduce myself, my name is Simon Jenner and I am carrying out research into how people are modelling change, (this means how you view any changes and how you feel about them), around the Inclusion Strategy in (name). The research will help us be able to model as an LEA how to best carry out any change needed to be made in the future as well helping people in the academic world understand the change process better. My work role is as the (title) in the borough, but my role here is as a researcher undertaking a doctoral study at Birmingham University. I will tape-record and transcribe the conversation, but only I will hear the tapes, and care will be taken that neither the school or individual concerned will be able to be identified from the transcript. Ethical guidelines on research from the British Psychological Society and British Educational Research Association will be followed. You can withdraw from the study at any time. The benefits to you as a school are hoped to be to be able to make your points of view known to myself

Have you any questions that you would like to ask?

For my records can you indicate if you are a NNEB, teacher or manager within the school

*Philosophy of Inclusion*

What do you think the word inclusion in the context of education means?

As a LEA do you feel there is an agreed view about inclusion. If so what is it?

Does this view agree with your own?- How? And why?

*The Concept of Change*

What is your view about the (name) strategy?

In the past what have been some of the ways in which change has occurred positively in the LEA and your work life, especially regarding inclusion?

And some of the negative ways?

What made the positive things so and the negative things so?

positive

negative

*The future*

How would you like to see things happen in the future regarding the authority inclusion strategy?

What role will the LEA have in the future?

And yourself?

--

What things will enable and block these things occurring? What role do you think you will have?

enable	block

Imagine that you have just woken up and you see a perfect inclusion strategy? Describe it. Does this differ in any way from the LEA strategy?

--

What role do you see special schools, mainstream schools and the LEA having in the future?

--

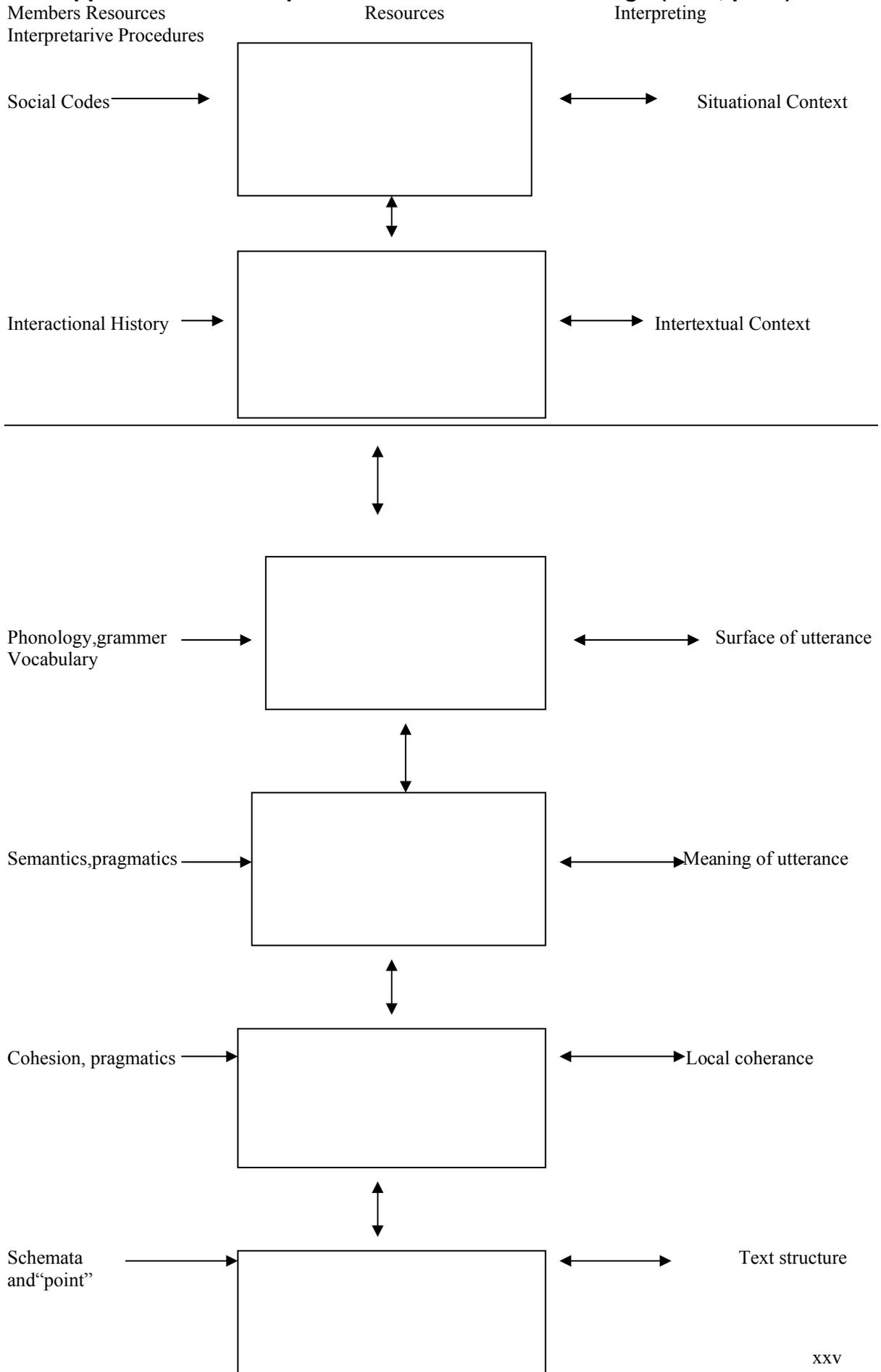
How honest do you feel that you have been able to be concerning these questions? You do not need to tell me anything that you feel you have to have hold back but it will be useful to know why you have done so.

--

Is there anything else that you would like to add

--

## Appendix Four: Interpretation of Text from Fairclough (2001, p119)



From page 92

*Vocabulary*

1. What experiential values do words have (classification schemes, rewording, ideologically significant meanings)
  
2. Relational values- formal/informal/eupemisms
  
3. Expressive values
  
4. Use of methaphors

*Grammar*

5. Experiential values- agency unclear, normalizations, active or passive, positive or negative
  
6. Relational value eg we /you, relationship modality
  
7. Expreesive value
  
8. Linking of sentences

*Textual Structure*

9. Interactional conventions eg controlling of turns
  
10. Larger scale structures

## **Appendix Five- Exemplars of Discourse Under Each of the Free Codes in the NVivo Analysis**

The only script changes from the original documents are that role, rather than name, identifies individuals and schools, with the LEA being given a fictitious name. There has also been some contextual change where required to protect the identification of individuals, LEA or schools. Only one example within each node is given below in order to give a flavour of the discourse, please refer to the Results section for quantitative amounts of each code.. The examples have been chosen as representative exemplars. Note must be made that several of the exemplars were coded in more than one node, for example where “no special school closures”, and “funding” formed part of the same piece of discourse. The discourse given here is at times an extract from a far larger piece, given in a shorter version here for sake of brevity.

The full transcripts, and coding, are in appendix six. To access the data on this CD-ROM the Nvivo 2.0 programme is required

The headings in bold type refer to tree nodes, in italics to the free nodes.

When a school is referred to as “name of “SLD” school” it refers to the present name, not the proposed new role.

*Consultation Case Study*

***Local Policy***

*Access*

At a Public Meeting :

*“As a parent/governor, I am worried about the future of my child's school. I've listened in the three meetings, and there are gaps all over the place. How many barrier-free schools do we have?”*

Response from the Chair

*“Very few that are completely barrier-free.”*

### *Area Based Model*

A comment was made during a parents consultation meeting at a school for pupils with severe learning difficulties

*“So, will (an SLD school name) be the same as (name of new proposed SLD/“MLD” school)?”*

LEA Officer:

*“No. It will have to be based on the number of children in the authority. We can't make the provision the same in each area because there are just not enough children. The (name of “SLD” School) will be for those with learning difficulties, complex medical needs, wheelchair users. The new provision in the centre of the borough will be for pre-school, primary, secondary and will have similar facilities to the school.*

*The three schools for general learning difficulties would be for those with learning difficulties but not complex medical needs. They may have other difficulties but not severe / complex. Alternative options are still there if they are appropriate.”*

### *Awareness Raising*

Comment from pupil consultation re disability in mainstream:

*“Children may understand their difficulties more.”*

### *Building*

Comment from a parent at a “MLD” school

*“The main problem seems to be that the SLD schools are overcrowded and in bad repair. Can (named “SLD” school) not be improved? To me it seems like it's their problem.”*

### *Cost Cutting*

Comment from parent at a unit attached to a primary school:

*“Take the money off them and give it to us.” (referring to a request to recycle money from mainstream into the unit)*

LEA representative:

*“We are paying for 26 places here and there are 11 children. Parents are just not asking for places in the Unit. We have to respond to what parents are asking for.”*

Response:

*“You can’t say that year by year.”*

### *Decisions Already Made*

Comment from teacher in a “MLD” school:

*“I know (“SLD” school name) meetings aren’t until 10th March, but parents have been to as many meetings as possible. One of my colleagues has been on a course today with a member of that schools staff, who said that they were moving to this school next year. It looks as if everything’s cut and dried.”*

### *Definition of Inclusion*

Comment from a Governor at the “PD” school:

*“There is a brand new school in (name of non Hibbing town) catering for both mainstream primary pupils on the outside and pupils with special needs on the inside all on one site. It has cost £4.4 million. The hand-over is in June and we have had an invitation to visit.”*

Comment from another governor

*“That’s not real inclusion - if those with special needs are outside and the others inside. Inclusion means sharing the classroom.”*

### *Early Intervention*

A comment from a member of staff in a Nursery Unit:

*“Early intervention is a wonderful idea but as far as (name of pre-statementing system) and statements go, we are fighting all the time. The goal posts are forever changing.”*

LEA representative:

*“Yes, and (the name of the pre-statementing funding system) is going to change again. We have to do away with lots of the unnecessary paper work linked to it; we need continuity of funding, and we need to come up with ideas of how the system can be improved. It has been refined over the last two years but the great concern is around continuity of funding. We need a simple system, which will allow us to target funding where it is needed.”*

### *Future Numbers*

Head teacher during a meeting for mainstream teachers:

*“The document indicates that in the special schools / unit places are not all being taken up. This is, in fact, misleading. At (name of school with a Nursery unit), for example, we have chosen not to fill all the places so that we can better care for those pupils currently there who have particularly complex needs”*

### *Mainstream Delivery of Services*

Parent at a primary school unit:

*“ It took me years to get 1:1 help.”*

LEA representative:

*“Yes, but we were paying for empty places. One problem at the moment is that we are doubly-funding. We can't pay for empty places and put the money into mainstream as well.”*

### *No Special School Closures*

Parent comment at a “MLD” school:

*“Children are being told there are no places in special schools when we know there are. We want to send our children to a place of our choice. Parents are being told there are no places here at this school so they have to go through mainstream. At the end of the day all we want is for*

*our children to be able to function as adults. Teachers in mainstream can't cope with them. You're saying it is not cost-cutting, but I think children will suffer. In a few years' time you will regret changing the system and you won't be able to give the children back what they've got now."*

*Nuture Group* (there are 4 in Hibbing schools)

Comment from a teacher in a primary school with a unit:

*"We have set up a nurture group on the other site and would love one on this site as well, but we don't know what will happen."*

LEA Representative:

*"We want to encourage nurture groups to be spread across the authority and would like them to keep going because we know it works but of course I can't lay money on the table."*

*Local Policy*

LEA Representative:

*"Yes, and (the name of the pre-statementing funding system) is going to change again. We have to do away with lots of the unnecessary paper work linked to it; we need continuity of funding, and we need to come up with ideas of how the system can be improved. It has been refined over the last two years but the great concern is around continuity of funding. We need a simple system, which will allow us to target funding where it is needed."*

*Out of Borough*

Comment from a teacher at a "SLD" school:

*"What about the extra-district pupils? There are 12 here and 30 at (name of the school for pupils with a physical disability). Do they play a factor in this decision? What future do you see for them?"*

LEA Representative:

*"We have consulted with the authorities that are our direct neighbours and it is up to them to decide what to do to best provide for those youngsters. They may still ask us to provide, but they too are altering their provision and may not find it necessary. Ultimately, they are responsible for them."*

## *Outreach*

Senior Teacher at a “MLD” School:

*“ Outreach isn't inclusion, it's segregation. Mainstream teachers don't want that group of children in their schools. Schools like ours are geared to them, their needs and their level of achievement. What you're proposing won't compare to what we've got.”*

## *Racism*

There was a long quote from a local election leaflet from the Conservative Party linking racism (the candidate stated he was not but was against asylum seekers) and the closure of the school for pupils with physical disabilities. This has been expanded upon in the Discussion Section.

## *Central Government Driven*

Parent at a “MLD” school:

*“The general feeling is that parents want to keep these schools open. Would the LEA go against the government?”*

## **Change**

Senior Teacher at a “MLD” School:

*“I went through that reorganisation, and have always considered Hibbing to be forward thinking and strategic. How have we got it so wrong that we are now faced with having to go through it all again?”*

## *Children-Parents Happy (with present placement)*

Parent at the “PD” school :

*“I don't think you realise how this will all affect our families. Once I've brought my daughter into here in a morning and handed her over to the people she is familiar with, and who care for her, and I know she is with all her friends, it's then*

*that I can switch off. If she goes to mainstream all that will have gone. She will be different in mainstream. This is a brilliant school and I can't see why it can't stay open."*

### Choice

Parent at a "MLD" School:

*"Do you not think you are taking choices away from parents and children by putting them into mainstream? A lot of children suffer great emotional stress through mainstream placement"*

LEA representative:

*"We need to get the balance right. We need to be very careful we don't reduce options. If a parent asks for mainstream placement for their child we have to make sure that it is available to them. If they want special school placement, and it is the most appropriate placement for them, then we have to make sure that it's available."*

Comment

*"That'll be difficult if there are no schools there"*

Response

*"But there will be."*

### Future Salary/Job

Teacher at a "MLD" school :

*"When special schools were reorganised before some staff didn't get jobs. If five schools are to become three, some of the office staff won't be needed."*

Another member of staff

*"You need to be aware of how staff feel."*

### Government Agenda

Parent at a "MLD" school:

*"What does the government want from us? What's their opinion? Changes!"*

LEA Representative:

*“ The changes they are asking for have been driven by disability rights and we need to be able to fund and support those changes.”*

*Hostility to LEA*

LEA officer response to a parent at a “MLD” school

*“Write in to the Director with your comments.”*

Parent

*“Answer the question.”*

Response

*“Either behave orderly or I will not continue.”*

Comment

*“Answer the lady's question”.*

Response

*“There is a process. If a mainstream school is not supporting the needs of the pupils then you need to write in to the Director. We should not be taking children out of special schools and putting them into mainstream. I can hear that is not what you want.”*

Comment

*“You should be selling double glazing mate.”*

Response

*“I've done my best.”*

Another example during another parental meeting at a “MLD” School from a parent

*“Can I just inform parents that a website has been set up – (gave the address). It's not only for (name of school) but for all of us. It's still us against them.”*

## *LEA Decisions*

Governor at a “MLD” School:

*“There has been a 30 per cent reduction in statements. This is what has starved our school of the pupil population. Our Outreach has been very, very successful. The concept of the revolving door will work. No-one is against inclusion. Children are included here - which is not the case in mainstream.”*

## *Need Clear Staff Structure*

Written reply to the consultation document:

*“Clear staff career structures should be established.”*

## *No Consultation Has Occurred*

Parent quoted in a local newspaper article:

*“There has been no consultation and this is my sons education we are talking about”*

## *No SLD-MLD Mix*

Teacher at a “MLD” School:

*“If (name of school) is made into a mixed MLD/SLD school some of the less severe ones here now will go into mainstream and have their world turned upside down. All parents want is the best for their children. I was at the meeting (public one) last night and listened and you're going to hang yourselves. Children and parents will suffer. Continuity is the main priority. Parents can't live forever. Not with all the special support in the world will you make this work. Classroom assistants will have a couple of months training. The mainstream staff don't want it.”*

## *Staff Morale*

Teacher at the “PD” school

*“I don't want this school to close and I don't like the 'phasing-out' idea. All this will do is lead to low morale amongst staff.”*

## *Too Much Change*

Written Response to the Consultation Document from a Head teacher in a

“MLD” School:

*“Concern that changes being proposed only 3 years after major re-organisation therefore, a lack of confidence in the LEA’s strategic vision”*

## *Statements*

Education Department Representative at a “MLD” School

*“When OfSTED inspected us, they criticised us for the number of statements that we have in Hibbing”.*

Senior manager:

*“The reason we have so many statements may be because we do our jobs properly.”*

## *Concern About a Return to Mainstream*

Parental written reply to the consultation document:

*” Concern about return to mainstream”*

## *Ability to Cope in Mainstream*

Written response by a parent to the consultation document:

*“Concern about exclusion from mainstream classes.”*

## *Academic Progress*

Written response by a teacher to the consultation document :

*“Children in the unit achieve ‘full potential’”*

## *Bullying*

Parent at a “MLD” School :

*“I have first hand experience. My son went to (name of primary Hibbing “MLD” School ). My husband is in the forces and got a posting in Wales, so the family moved. In Wales, there were only mainstream schools and an SLD school, so my children went to mainstream. My son tried to kill himself three times. He was bullied, physically and psychologically. The school couldn't cope with it and said he had to go to another school, but they wouldn't have him either. Mainstream doesn't work for every child. I was so happy when we moved back and I knew he was coming to (name of Secondary Hibbing “MLD” School). He has come on leaps and bounds here. I think it would be cruel to put these children into mainstream. More of them would have emotional problems.”*

## *Friends*

Comment from pupils regarding friendships of those pupils to be included in the future:

*“Left out, no friends because of disabilities - need clubs, friendship groups. Not as many trips.”*

## *Fund Raising for the School*

Article in a local newspaper concerning the “PD” school:

*“The chair of governors highlighted the hundreds of thousands of pounds people in the town had put into the buckets to raise money. Now this good will be gone for ever.”*

## *Mainstream Pressure*

Governor at a “MLD” School:

*“You say 'mainstream, where appropriate'. In my experience no parent wants their child to go back into a mainstream school. They've been there. They get left in a class and left to their own devices and this is not education.”*

### *Mainstream Vs. Special*

Teacher/ Head teacher during The Mainstream School

Consultation Meeting: *“We have children in school with MLD and I have absolutely no problem with this, but what support will the LEA give when results plummet?”*

LEA representative:

*” Yes, this is a big problem. Head teachers and LEAs are saying that it’s not fair. The DfES are aware of the problem and are looking towards developing P scales to provide value-added information. They’re trying to think of another measure of success. The thing is, schools can’t be inclusive to the detriment of other pupils. There are, and always will be, times when other provision is necessary.”*

### *Need Special Treatment*

Conservative Party Local Election leaflet discussing the closure of the “PD” school:

*“Whether these children are relocated in mainstream or other special schools, they will be disorientated and left behind as they come to terms with the strange, and often alien, environment.”*

### *Not wanting to be seen as Different*

Pupil re friendships:

*“May feel 'left-out' when they are an adult - easier to do it now, rather than when older - preparation for mainstream - limitations.”*

### *Stigmatisation*

Mainstream teacher/ Head teacher:

*“In my experience, I have found that pupils at the lower end of the ability range - as they get further up the school - are very conscious about their self esteem. This is what greatly concerns me.”*

## *Toileting*

Parent at a Nursery Unit

*“Two Educational Psychologists have said that my child could be educated in mainstream but I disagree with that I don’t think he could, and they won’t take him. He has toileting needs and I am not sending him to school in a nappy I’m just not doing it”*

## *LEA Case Study*

### *Local Policy*

### *Access*

Meeting 23-9-03 LEA Officer:

*“Schools are to provide barrier free schools on a rolling programme. In the first instance quick fix solutions so parents can indicate a preference for a school”.*

### *Area Based*

Strategic Manager - LEA:

*” you see I have.. I .... erm.. I don’t refer to it as special schools but to me if we are talking about integrated children’s services we are talking about a cluster of services to deliver to meet the needs of that particular community I you know I we need to get away from some of these particular labels and say that the school you know you were talking about the university of life or whatever..”*

## *Buildings*

Department Management Meeting 3-10-02. LEA Officer:

*“Two things about inclusion. .. one is the whole building thing... the other is exclusion over (names three EBD schools where EBD pupils are)”*

## *Mainstream Improvement*

Meeting 23-9-02. Special School Head teacher:

*“Have you got information re those schools that are going to be developed in the mainstream. About those mainstream schools being on board”*

LEA Officer:

*“ yes it is about ethos and culture in the school. The money is in the bank really. We are starting to put together criteria this year. Asking schools to self refer. Money is ready for a feasibility study for some school ramps, door frames for other types of adaptations.”*

### *Outreach Team*

Meeting 13-9-02. LEA Strategic Manager:

*“Idea from schools re MLD heads controlling outreach not feasible- they can do outreach for their pupil population, other pupils will need outreach from central LEA team”*

### *Change*

#### *Training*

Senior LEA Officer

*“I think that there ought to have been a programme of local training that is much more apparent within the department with our schools about what inclusion actually is and what the disability discrimination act means and all that and I don't think that the LEA has been clear enough about what our message is”*

### *Change in Management Policy*

Strategic Manager - LEA:

*“I have had five line managers in four and a half years and the agenda around early years and child care is such a massive one that it takes them a good twelve to eighteen months to understand all of that area.. .. so I don't think that anyone can say that they have had a hands on strategy around inclusion it just has not been there they have shifted it on a bit and then fallen out with such and such so cleared off it has happened and has not been led but has occurred through a series of crisis from my perspective anyway..”*

## *Pace of Change*

Principal Officer - LEA:

*“Erm.. inclusion.. just while I can be honest I think I would just like to say that I have been working in special needs for eight years and everybody has been talking about inclusion but we have never got there”*

## *Perfectionism*

Senior LEA Officer (concerning a “MLD” school):

*“seven years ago there was an allegation of bullying against the Head from some staff.. the feeling was that there was no foundation...(name) spent forty days investigating it and there was no foundation to it at all...feeling that this was due to his (the Heads) perfectionism about himself and others”*

## *Views*

### *Attitudes*

Strategic Manager- LEA:

*“.what would I like to see happen ..... I think that what we have got to do is a lot more training to change hearts and minds first because inclusion starts with the heart and the head erm and then you have got to work on to skills I can teach you skills until you are blue in the face but if you still do not think that is important you are not going to use those skills and you are going to be cynical about those skills so I think that it is a changing hearts and minds and that is through training”*

## *Categorisation*

Meeting 12-7-02 Strategic Manager - LEA:

*“It is quite hard to predict because a lot of the information is based on stats and (name) could predict from figures from*

*the BPS from the amount of pupils that would be likely to qualify for SLD and MLD per 1000 population and we could do this for HI and everybody else and then we would need to know the number of births and predicted number of births from somewhere and then we would have to build in this factor on the increases that have taken place on the medical side and how the population has increased over the last four or five years and that would predict another increase over there it certain standard numbers on GLD, SLD intellectual numbers, autism you could probably do per thousand, EBD is more difficult, erm.. HI and VI should be straight forward per thousand and then we get the population trend and then we need to factor in the changes that have taken place and fundamental to all this."*

### *Children's Needs*

Strategic Manager - LEA:

*"yes you have got (name) people like her have arrived and are pushing it forward and at the end of the day it is for the kids it is not you know you have got to look after your staff but all this is about the children and at the end of the day it is all about the children and I think at some times in some schools they forget that is about the children"*

### *Parental- Pupil Involvement*

Principal Officer- LEA:

*"I think that we need to involve parents and pupils in all of what we have done and we have not done this well pupils not at all really parents we are trying to get more involved and (name) action plan is trying to develop that"*

### *Views on Inclusion*

Principal Officer- LEA:

*"All pupils educated in mainstream schools with support where necessary no segregated provision ultimately I suppose erm everybody having the same opportunities within their local schools..."*

## Policy

### *Government Directive*

Senior LEA Officer:

*“ I suppose in one sense fundamental my role was to rethink the strategy following the inspection of the LEA there were some pretty significant issues around some legislation that were pretty critical and one of the issues was that there was not really a proper strategy that would take us several years ahead and there were elements bits and pieces but they wouldn't come together so I suppose my involvement during the first year was to show what we needed to move on in the future and I suppose my other involvement at that level is to recognise that and in the fullest sense word that there is a school inclusion agenda but that there is also a social inclusion agenda and I think the pressure on us is to work on a school inclusion agendas and to do that in an absence of thought and action around the community angle would not give the result we want and so that is the reason why we went for the restructuring ..”*

### *School Closure*

Senior LEA Officer:

*” issue is what is the role and function of the special schools and we did not touch that and we all knew in our heart of hearts that we would have to come back to that and we missed an opportunity to take that bull by the horns but that is history so missed opportunity inadequate management lack of vision those are the negatives the positives the LEA inspection process undoubtedly enabled us to focus much more creating that agenda as been really one of the main drivers behind the department now and in the future”*

### *School Improvement*

Senior LEA Officer:

*”I am attracted by the idea of bringing people together as a corporate view to build inclusion into school improvement plans”*

### *Statements*

Written reply to the LEA Consultation Document:

*“How are you going to reduce numbers of statements? Take away right to statements?”*

**School Case Study** (a “MLD” school for pupils aged eight to sixteen years)

*Local Policy*

*Area Teams*

Letter from Senior Manager to the Director of Education:

*“The (title of LEA officer) has, as recently as November 2002, called me a “Stalwart” in moving the Inclusion Agenda forward. You may recall it was I, who also gave support at the meeting in January to the concept of ‘generic’ area-based special schools?”*

*Choice*

Letter to the Education Department:

*“retain the principle of choice for those pupils and parents who would prefer educational provision within the special sector”*

*Different Messages*

Senior Teacher:

*“ If someone could tell me what the Hibbing strategy is at the moment I would be delighted to hear it because I have several roles in school I am a teacher I am a member of the management team I am union representative I am teacher governor and a member of the governing body and we have had several different versions of the strategy put to us and we don’t know which one we are looking at really and the thing that I find most disturbing about the Hibbing strategy is that the people in authority don’t appear to know themselves what the strategy is what they are going for and what the educational rationale is and that worries me somewhat”*

*Finance*

Senior Manager response to the 1996 Education Department Strategy:

*“Options are too vague; just how will the units develop/operate - if practicable, are they affordable? Without appropriate levels of resourcing any plans are doomed to failure”*

LEA not Clear (in terms of messages and policy)

Letter from Senior Manager to Director of Education:

*“At this meeting, without the knowledge of the Head teachers who could not be there or who needed to leave early (at least five, I recall), a decision was taken to circulate a set of plans to Staff and Governors. Those of us absent were not told of this decision. After proposals in the document appeared in the press, it caused a loss in trust between the school staff and me, as I had not briefed them about what was, as far as I knew, a confidential document.”*

LEA Wrong

Senior Manager of the “MLD” School:

*“you could actually put something forward I could have put something on the back of a fag packet that would stand a better chance of delivering what the LEA wants”*

OfSTED

Senior Manager of the “MLD” school:

*“I suggest that there is a need to look at what the LEA's OfSTED report actually says, especially how narrowing the scope of the review has led to a less than coherent review of SEN provision.”*

Outreach

“MLD” School Senior Teacher:

*“ if they are going to be supported in mainstream not only for the continuity of the child's learning but for the continuity of relationships which we have built up with parents and the trust and of the continuity of what you have presumably you have set up between mainstream staff and staff working here then it would be far more sensible to have outreach staff and support teams being based in the school”*

## Statements

Senior Manager in the “MLD” school:

*“er the authority has constantly been changing the exit criteria for statements and special schools until they reach a target they have set a numerical targets as I understand it for the number of children who should have statements and how many there should be and what they have done is change the criteria until the targets are met and it goes against all that I believe in education because if the children need have needs that require particular provision then I thought that is why the statementing process started in 1981”*

## Change

Letter from Senior Manager in the “MLD” School to the Director of Education:

*“Confidence tumbled yet further when the A/D performed ,a volte-face on the aforementioned 'pledges' made by the D/D who had said he was hoping to avoid the damaging closure of schools. Gone too were the notions of 'Centres of Excellence', revolving doors, and so on.”*

## Emotions

Letter from Senior Manager in the “MLD” School to the Director of Education:

*“I have endeavoured to avoid arguments that are either emotional or self-seeking.”*

## Job Losses

Letter from Senior Manager of the “MLD” School to the Director of Education:

*“we will all 'lose our jobs' (although, I understand that the Deputy Director stated that there is the promise of no redundancies and redeployment)”*

## Parents

School response to the 1996 Consultation Document:

*“ Parents must be allowed genuine choices, based on full and unbiased information; such choice should be extended*

*to the children themselves, as mandated by the 1989 Children Act.”*

### *School Closure*

Letter from Senior Manager in the “MLD” School to the Director of Education:

*“As to leading any opposition to change, I would point out that it doesn't require any leading! Opposition is entirely self-inflicted! In particular, parents' wrath has been stirred up by the insertion of Option 3 - the immediate closure of schools.”*

### *Categorisation*

Senior Teacher in the “MLD” school:

*“there is a wide range.. broad continuum of need from as I said gifted and talented pupils through to the worst attaining SLD pupils.”*

### *School Skills*

Senior Teacher at the “MLD” school discussing possible closure:

*“remove the MLD provision away from the special schools then that provision will not be there the expertise that has grown will be dissipated and expertise grows from being with people who have got expertise and the sum of the school here is greater than the parts”*

### *View of Inclusion*

Learning Support Assistant at the “MLD” School:

*“..For me really inclusion means the right to be included as an individual no matter where it is and if that right is being fulfilled for the individual that is inclusion”*

### *LEA Role*

Senior Manager in the “MLD” School:

*“I will pick that up because trying to run a central team to deliver the education is counter to this in my view and the*

*LEA should be a co-ordinator holding schools accountable it can not deliver it can not be a provider”*

Needs of Children

Teacher at the “MLD” School:

*“I think that some people say that they believe that it is for the best in the children I can not see how anybody with any intelligence can believe that I can not see how any child can benefit from including other children with very different abilities other than making some children more sympathetic to less advantaged children”*

*Pupil Failure to Cope*

Senior Teacher at the “MLD” School

*: “ the sheer size of schools mitigates against our children that is why I have very grave doubts about a lot of the children being put into a mainstream setting they would find difficulties getting from one end of the school to another”*

*Researchers Role*

Report from myself following the meeting at the “MLD” School to set up the semi- structured interviews

*“(name of senior manager) saw the only benefit to them as a staff was in influencing my thoughts with their views”*

## **Appendix Six The Full Data**

The Full data and Coding is located on the CD-ROM, enclosed in the dissertation.

In order to access the data the programme NVivo, version 2.0, is required, and the files will have to be loaded onto the host PC to be accessed. Please note that when originally coded each piece of data, and the discourse made, was identified by a clear marker (usually a name or job description) in order to make it easy to code. These have all been removed or changed in order to protect confidentiality. Full agreement was given for all data to be used, other than where it was already in the public domain e.g. newspaper articles, election leaflets and consultation meetings, (where participants were told that their comments would be transcribed and published for council minutes, so were public documents).

The data is arranged in the following files, which are transcripts of meetings or text (with occasional summaries done by the LEA for data collection, for instance the list of consultees). Data is listed by title, which gives the audience and the type of need catered for by the school, then a brief explanation e.g. the age range catered for.

**Consultation-** all consultation meetings took place over a time period of two hours per meeting (sometimes longer, and were transcribed by a short hand typist).

- Consultees- who was consulted with

- Data Summary- a summary of the May 2002 consultation on the philosophy document
- Election leaflets- transcript of relevant parts of the local May 2003 elections
- Full page Advert- local newspaper article from 13-12-03
- Hibbing con 5-02a- comments from the formal written consultation on the early 2002 document
- Local newspaper articlesa- from 1-7-03 to 29-10-03 (13 articles and letters)
- Local newspaper articlesb- from 11-03 to 27-1-04 (17 articles and letters)
- Local paper- 8-10-02 to 25-5-03 (11 articles)
- Local paper seven Dec 2003 (1article 7-12-03)
- Mainstream Headteachers 14 Feb a- consultation meeting with mainstream heads meeting am
- Mainstream Headteachers 14 Feb b- consultation meeting with mainstream heads meeting pm
- Meeting to discuss EBD provision 8- one comment transcribed
- MLD Parents 3 March- MLD Primary consultation meeting
- MLD SMT Govs 3 march- as above
- MLD school Parents 26 Feb- secondary School consultation meeting
- MLD SMT Govs 26 Feb- as above
- MLD school Feb- primary school consultation
- MLD school staff 26 Feb- secondary consultation meeting
- MLD SMT Govs 27 Feb- Primary school consultation meeting
- MLD staff 27 Feb- primary school consultation meeting

- MLD staff 3 March- primary school consultation
- MLD staff 27 Feb – secondary consultation meeting
- Nd SEN responses to consultation- reports on the consultation summary
- PD school parents 24 Feb- consultation meeting
- PD school SMT Govs 24 Feb- as above
- PD school Staff 24 Feb- as above
- Prim unit staff 13 march- unit 1 consultation
- Prim unit SMT govts 17 march- unit 2 consultation
- Prim unit 17 march- unit 2 consultation with parents
- Prim unit parents 13 march- unit 1 consultation
- Prim unit 17 March- unit 2 consultation with staff
- Prim unit Parents 18 March- unit 3 consultation
- Prim unit Parents 19 March- unit 4 consultation
- Prim unit staff 18 March- unit 3 consultation
- Prim unit SMT 13 March- unit 1 consultation
- Prim Unit SMT Govs 19 March- consultation unit 4
- Pupil consultation- summary of 3 meetings
- SEN responses to consultation document- written responses to the early 2003 document from health, SSD, LEA staff
- SLD staff 12 March- consultation SLD school 1
- SLD parents 10 March- consultation SLD school 2
- SLD parents 11 March- consultation SLD school 3
- SLD parents 12 March- consultation SLD school 1
- SLD SMT/govs 12 March- consultation SLD school 1
- SLD SMT/govs 10 March- consultation SLD school 2

- SLD SMT/govs 11 March- consultation SLD school 3
- SLD staff 10 March- consultation SLD school 2
- SLD staff 11 March- consultation SLD school 3
- 

### **“MLD” Case Study School**

All semi-structured interviews were typed and transcribed by myself, written documents were scanned into Microsoft Word 2000.

- Brief reply 4-96a- a reply by the school to an earlier LEA inclusion strategy
- Case study sc letter- letter from the school to the LEA
- Discussion sen man 10-02a- semi-structured interview with senior manager
- Gr21-1a-- semi-structured interview with teacher
- Long 4-96aa- a long written response by the school to an earlier LEA inclusion strategy
- Long 4-96ba- as above- a continuation
- Long 4-96ca- as above- a continuation
- Long 4-96da- as above- a continuation
- LSA- semi-structured interview
- Mida- semi-structured interview with teacher in the school
- Misc let- letter from the school concerning the strategy
- Sen man- semi-structured interview with manager in the school
- Sen man-- semi-structured interview with manager 2 in the school
- Sen man 29-3-03 - semi-structured interview with manager 3 in the school
- Sen teac- semi-structured interview with a teacher in the school
- Special Heads Meeting 15-1-03a- comments transcribed from the school

- Special Heads Meeting 9-10-02a- comments transcribed from the school

### **LEA Case Study**

All meetings and interviews were taped and transcribed by myself. Written documents were either scanned into Microsoft Word 2000, or copied from the original software.

- 13-9 comments new model- transcript of meeting on Special School  
Heads ideas for a model of provision
- 15<sup>th</sup> Jan 03 agenda- agenda of a meeting concerning change
- 23-9-03- comments transcribed for a Special School Heads- LEA meeting
- 9-10-02- as above
- branch meeting 30-9-02- as above
- Comments on change- LEA reaction to the submissions re change
- Comments on the Council Inclusion Strategy- note of a conversation with a senior LEA officer
- DceoINT- semi-structured interview with senior officer
- DMT meet 25-9-02- comments transcribed
- DMT meeting 3-10-02- as above
- Hib con 5-02a- comments on meeting
- Hibbing ic pol- copy of the consultation document on the philosophy
- Hibb inc pol 3-00- copy of an earlier policy
- Hib strategy 6-01 – document
- Interview sm 323-10-02- semi-structured interview with strategic manager
- Interview sm 14-11-02- semi-structured interview with strategic manager 2
- OohoffiINT- semi-structured interview with strategic manager 3

- Parental consultation 5-02- transcript of a feedback meeting
- School inclusion Branch meeting 6- transcript of a full days meeting
- SelfINT- an interview with myself
- Sen Man2- semi-structured interview with senior manager 1
- SenoffINT- semi-structured interview with strategic manager 4
- SM behava- semi-structured interview with strategic manager 5
- Transcript of meeting 12-7-02- transcript of a full days meeting

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