SCHOOL OF EDUCATION

TEACHERS’ ATTITUDES TOWARDS THE INCLUSION OF CHILDREN WITH SPECIAL EDUCATIONAL NEEDS IN JORDANIAN ORDINARY SCHOOLS

By

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Thesis submitted to the University of Nottingham for the degree of Doctor of Philosophy

January, 2017
Abstract

The purpose of this study is to investigate the attitudes of teachers towards inclusive education in Jordanian ‘ordinary’ schools. The first phase of the project reports questionnaire data from 367 teachers. Attitudes are examined in terms of three components: their beliefs and knowledge, feelings and behaviour. The results of the questionnaire revealed that ordinary teachers in Jordan hold relatively neutral views towards inclusive education. Several variables are found which relate to teachers’ attitudes; including training, experience of inclusive education and the type of disability.

The qualitative phase of the project involves a series of semi-structured interviews with nineteen teachers to explore their understanding, concerns and suggestions for improvement, regarding inclusive education. Findings suggest that although teachers are not against inclusion per se, they express concerns about implementation. Most teachers perceive they are unprepared and appear to need to be told ‘how to be’ inclusive.

A number of recommendations are made, these include: promoting a more positive attitude towards inclusion amongst the teaching profession, improving pre- and- in service training and support, and extending the role of resource rooms as provision for children with SEN.
Acknowledgments

I would like to express my deep gratitude to the many people who have given me their help and support during the years I worked on this thesis. I am especially grateful to my first supervisor Dr Edward Sellman, whose insight, valuable guidance, and moral support have been of great significance throughout this work. Without his continued assistance and orientation, this work could not have materialised.

I would also like to express my deep appreciation to my second supervisor Dr Anne Emerson and Dr Jackie Dearden for their valuable advice and guidance. Further, it is my privilege and pleasure to acknowledge the help and advice of my examiners Professor Brahm Norwich-University of Exeter and Dr Max Biddulph - The University of Nottingham; without their critical comments this thesis would not have been so complete. Special thanks also go to my colleagues and friends for their advice and contributions to my thesis.

Last, but by no means least, I wish to express my deepest gratitude to my beloved family who gave me every support and encouragement over this long journey. My heartful thanks go to my parents, my wife Kawthar, my daughter Ghada and my sons Hitham, Mohammed and Momen. This thesis is dedicated to you for your love and support.

God bless you all.
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List of Abbreviations

ADHD  Attention Deficit Hyperactivity Disorder
BERA  British Educational Research Association
DFES  Department for Education and Skills
EBD   Emotional and Behavioural Difficulties
GTQ   General teaching qualification
IEP   Individual education plan
LD    Learning Difficulties
ME    Middle East
MOE   Ministry of Education
MOSD  Ministry of Social Development
NASEN National Association for Special Educational Needs
NCFED National Conference for Educational Development
NCLD  National Centre for Learning Difficulties
ORM   Opinions Relative to Mainstreaming Scale
SD    Standard Deviation
SEN   Special Education Needs
SENCO Special Educational Needs Coordinators
UAE   United Arab Emirates
UNESCO United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organisation
UNRWA United Nations Relief and Works Agency
UPIAS The Union of the Physically Impaired Against Segregation
Chapter One—Introduction and Research Context

1.1 Research Background and Statement of the Problem
Internationally, the movement towards developing an inclusive approach to education provision has grown phenomenally over the past few decades (Ainscow, 1997). While shaped by the particular culture, economic history, social and political aspirations, and physical conditions within individual countries, this movement has been informed by a broader global discourse on inclusion and debates about democracy and human rights. While debates around inclusion are undoubtedly relevant to my focus and study, my research will converge on children whose needs were previously addressed within the special education needs (SEN) sector and the shift to the ‘mainstreaming’ of their educational needs (Al-Khatib & Al Khatib, 2008). More specifically, my study will explore teachers’ attitudes towards including children with SEN in Jordanian ordinary (mainstream) schools, which offer educational services for all, including children with mild to moderate disability. Here, it is worth noting that the terms ordinary or mainstream schools sometimes used interchangeably within Jordanian educational policies and literature contexts. These terms are used to describe the schools that offer free education for children ages 6-18 years. This thesis uses ‘ordinary’ to refer to schools and classes which are not ‘special’ i.e. which are not intended to cater specifically for children with special needs as this is the term commonly used in a Jordanian educational context.

In this study my focus is informed by a large number of studies (e.g. Mittler, 1995; Ainscow, 1997; Knight, 1999; Dyson, 2001; Friederickson and Cline, 2002; Lindsay, 2003; Ainscow, Booth, and Dyson, 2006; Avramidis and Kalyva, 2007; Black-Hawkins, Florian & Rouse, 2007; Hodkinson, 2010; Armstrong et al. 2011) that have in recent times grappled with debates around the impact of inclusive approaches to education, and the role of teachers values and attitudes as important variables in that process. Studies discussed more fully in Chapter 2, note that the philosophy of inclusion involves recognising the right of all
children to be educated in a typical environment typical for their peers. Nevertheless, they do not offer any final conclusion on whether the inclusion of all children within ordinary schools/classrooms is an achievable way forward, or whether this situation is fit for the entire school community. Many researchers, (e.g. Scruggs and Mastropieri, 1996; Ainscow, 1997; Knight, 1999; Dyson, 2001; Lindsay, 2003; Black-Hawkins, Florian & Rouse; 2007; Hodkinson, 2010; Armstrong et al., 2011; and Mah and Radford, 2012), note that inclusion is a right that all children should demand. Such a philosophy as suggested by Frederickson and Cline, (2002) can lead to an attitude towards difference that is positive and celebratory and a movement away from the isolation of a category of children, towards greater community participation and acceptance.

Although these perspectives towards inclusive education express, in general, a widespread support for inclusion at a philosophical level, yet inclusion is not about gaining access to schooling only, but rather questions of securing a meaningful participation to all children, including these with special needs (Black-Hawkins, Florian & Rouse, 2007). Moreover, there are concerns, as will be discussed in chapter 2, that inclusion has accumulated various meanings and understandings, which should be understood in the context of societies that are highly diverse internally and yet globally interconnected (Armstrong et al, 2011).

Research in many countries has highlighted a range of factors that help or hinder successful inclusion. Such difficulties, which will be discussed further in chapter 2, have been blamed on a variety of factors, including competing policies that stress competition and ever-higher standards; a lack of funding and resources; premises and space (Gaad, 2011); existing special education practices; and a lack of research evidence (Forlin, 2001). It has also been suggested that one of the greatest barriers to the development of inclusion is that most teachers think that they do not have the necessary knowledge and confidence to apply this work or confident to apply them if they do (Frostad & Pijl, 2007).
It is argued that teachers have direct responsibility for implementing inclusion in the context of the classroom, and so their commitment and motivation are essential to effecting the necessary change, and bringing more positive outcomes to inclusive education. Attention has also been drawn in particular to the importance of teachers’ attitudes and the relationship between positive attitudes and successful implementation of inclusion (Avramidis and Norwich, 2002; Norwich, 2002). In this regard, Wolstenholme (2010) pointed out that teachers’ positive attitudes are seen as a key factor in effective inclusive practice and that negative attitudes were seen to be a barrier to inclusion.

Jordan has, in recent times, promulgated a number of legislative policies and instruments around the issue of inclusion that open the doors for a wide range of children with SEN and disability. Teachers in Jordan are increasingly implementing ministry policies aimed at promoting inclusive policies in schools. These include the Jordanian Laws for the Welfare of Disabled Persons (1993) and the Law on the Rights of Persons with Disabilities (2007). The laws, which will be discussed further in this chapter, notes that a person with a disability had to be provided with an appropriate education according to his/her disability within ordinary schools, and should no longer be isolated within a particular category of schools. The current state of inclusion in Jordan reflects attempts towards a form of inclusion, where a wide range of children are placed together, with the provision of gender separation for most, if not all, age groups. The principle being that, children including those with SEN and disability should be able to access the national curriculum, although some may work through it more slowly.

It is within this context that I will conduct my study. Many teachers have had a relatively lengthy experience regarding the inclusion of children with SEN, and it will be my task to explore their attitudes towards the inclusion of these children some ten years after formal legislation was passed. I seek to identify the particular personal and social/societal factors that influence their attitudes. An understanding of current perspectives and practices on inclusion in Jordan is essential for creating an environment,
where inclusion has the best possible chance of success, which is why this study is encompass.

1.2 My Professional Experience and Positionality in the Context of the Study

Having presented the context of this study, I believe it is noteworthy to provide a brief to my working background, in order to shed light on my positionality in this study and consider any possible impacts - positive and/or negative – that this might have had on this study. Bogdan and Biklen (2007) suggest that researchers cannot divorce their research and writing from their past experience, no matter how much they try. It is therefore important for me to share my background and experiences that have in some way influenced this thesis.

During my professional experience, I had the opportunity to work as a teacher in a number of schools in Jordan and the UK, where in both countries most children are placed together within a system reflecting attempts towards more inclusion, but with different understanding. When I started work at Jordanian schools between 1993 and 2001, like many other teachers in Jordan, I had no or little knowledge about the inclusive education. However, when I started my job in the UK, in comparison to Jordan, I realised that there is an advanced system and much to say about the provision put in place in the UK to address the needs of children with SEN, be it legislation, human or physical resources. This working experience inspired me to develop the idea to research the experience of inclusion in Jordan and to explore ordinary teachers’ attitude towards its implementation.

My previous experiences as a teacher in Jordan positions me as an insider\(^1\) in my Ph.D study. The insider’s data can claim to have greater validity

\(^{1}\) Merton (1972, p. 11) defines an insider researcher as a group member of a particular collective characterised with ‘specified social statuses’.
than the outsider's due to their originality and their not being distorted by an externally imposed framework of concepts (Marion, 2001). As an insider researcher, I share the common language, experiences and socio-cultural background with many participants. This position allows me to be closer to participant teachers; to understand and interpret their attitudes and assumptions in the context of their school’s culture in their practice of including children with SEN in everyday school life. The sharing of similar backgrounds can be an advantage for data collection as a certain special connection can be formed between an insider and participants (Palmer, 2006). Moreover, being immersed in the local context, including the education system, gave me not only deep insight and awareness that allowed me to research the topic with sensitivity and in great depth, but also facilitated access to schools making data gathering easier.

Besides being a teacher, I was also positioned by my own status as a villager, which allowed me to approach the study with more knowledge about the subject and the rural context in Jordan in particular. For instance, during the interviews, I used common vocabulary and terms from the educational literature and from the Jordanian school culture which the respondents and the researcher know very well. Moreover, sharing the experience with many participants enhanced my willingness and ability to grasp interviewees’ expressions. For instance some participants expressed their willingness to support children with SEN by commenting ‘he is my neighbour’, or ‘relative’. Such expressions often act under the assumption that ‘you know how …’ (e.g. these children need care and attention). As such, my position as an ‘insider’ and teacher in this study created a research environment in which teachers were open about their attitudes towards children with SEN and perceived limits to inclusive education.

Despite its advantages, my insider status encountered some disadvantages. With knowledge acquired from reading the international literature and exposure to special and inclusive education in the UK, there was a risk that I may make assumptions about my participants, and to portray a biased perspective since personal characteristics can indeed
influence the way one conducts research (Hodkinson, 2005). Nevertheless, some scholars argue that research cannot be free of values, and even that the researcher inevitably plays a part in the analysis of findings (Bryman, 2006; and Denscombe, 2008). The suggested solution is that the researcher should make their position clear, and record where possible their own comments and interpretations differ from the general findings derived directly from respondents (Cohen et al., 2000) and to reflect the voices of those who participate in research (Bourke, 2014). In this regard, Berger, (2015) has highlighted that researchers, as ‘insiders’, need to be constantly alert and rigorously reflect on how their presence affects conversations as well as mindful when sharing their experience with some participants. Therefore, during interviews I was careful that I did not attempt to speak for the research participants and I did not attempt to stimulate certain responses or directions within the conversation. During interviews, I made sure that these biases were explained and made clear before the beginning of each session.

Moreover, in the data analysis process, I was aware of how potential bias could affect the process. Following the systematic guidelines of qualitative research analysis for each participant (as outlined in the qualitative data analysis chapter3, section3.9and Appendix 3) greatly aided making these interviews more objective in their analysis of subjective meaning and understanding and led to new and insightful interpretations of participants’ perspectives.

1.3 Rationale and Importance of this Study

Elliott and McKenney (1998) note that before researching and choosing approaches to inclusion, it is important to determine what attitudes individual staff members have about students with SEN. This research however, is underpinned by the arguments that, firstly, the main goal of inclusive education is to provide an educational environment for children with SEN that is effective, supportive and meets the needs of all, and secondly that teachers’ positive attitudes are seen as a key factor in effective inclusive practice (Gaad, 2001; Al Khatib and Al Khatib, 2008; Boer et al, 2011).
Ellins and Porter (2005) explained that if children with SEN and disabilities are to succeed in an inclusive educational setting, then their needs should be met and teachers must be willing to address these needs. If teachers, however, are not willing to meet their needs due to negative attitudes, the child could be placed in the classroom, yet little would be achieved. In this regard, Gyimah (2006) pointed out that teachers’ lack of interest in inclusive education might have serious impacts, especially on those for whom it is intended.

Numerous research studies, from different parts of the world, have considered teachers’ attitudes towards inclusion (Leyser, Kapperman and Keller, 1994; Forlin, 1995; Antonak and Larrivee, 1995; Fathyha, 1998; Avramidis, Bayliss and Burden, 2000; Kuester, 2000; Gaad, 2001; Macleod, 2001; Al-Khateeb, 2002; Gaad and Alghazo, 2004; Al-Zyoudi, 2006; Gyimah, 2006; Obeng, 2007; Lambe, 2007; Al-Khatib and Al-Khatib, 2008; Hamidi et al, 2012; Boer et al, 2011; Alanazi, 2012; Almotairi, 2013). However, with the exception of a few studies addressing teachers’ attitudes towards inclusion in Jordan, (e.g. Randa, 1994; Al-Zyoudi, 2006; and Khatib, 2007), no empirical studies have been conducted to explore, in-depth, Jordanian teachers’ attitudes towards the inclusion of children with SEN and, involved deeply with the cognitive, affective and behavioural components of attitudes towards inclusion.

Despite this lack of research in Jordan, my experience is that within the ordinary education there are concerns about the quality and effectiveness of inclusive education in schools. My own education at a primary, secondary, as well as my work in the field of ordinary teacher education for eight years before moving to the UK, has given me first-hand experience of Jordanian ordinary school teaching, and has left me with an understanding that inclusive education in Jordan is questionable and that it is premature to judge if it has been or is going to be introduced effectively into practice or not. While concerns seem to be prevalent, the evidence is lacking, as my initial literature review will indicate.
The intention, therefore, is to provide some insight into some of the difficulties and dilemmas that shape teachers’ attitudes towards this issue, and also how they have accommodated the inclusion agenda into their everyday routine and teaching practice. At the heart of the initial seeds of my research planning, the assumption was that understanding teachers’ attitudes and the factors surrounding such attitudes are prerequisites for the development of an appropriate model of inclusive practice in Jordanian ordinary schools. It is my hope that this study will be supportive of provisions for the inclusive agenda in Jordan; how inclusion should be implemented in schools and how ordinary teachers should be prepared for such situation. A study with this focus is timely in a period of national educational reform in the field of inclusive educational practices in Jordan.

1.4 Purposes of the Study and Research Questions in Each Phase

The purpose of this study is to explore teachers’ attitudes towards the inclusion of children with SEN in Jordanian ordinary schools and to assess the level of existing attitudinal factors affecting their attitudes towards inclusion. The major findings of this study, as indicated earlier, could inform future policy direction and identify strategies to foster positive attitudes among teachers.

In order to achieve these goals, this study starts with the following three research questions:

1. What are the current attitudes that teachers hold towards the inclusion of children with Special Education Needs (SEN) in ordinary schools in Jordan?

This first phase(questionnaire) was thus concerned with exploring Jordanian teachers’ attitudes (beliefs, feeling and behaviour) towards inclusive education in Jordanian ordinary schools; and if there are any significant differences in teachers’ attitudes towards inclusion that might
be related to the variables of gender, age, type of school, experience, training and school location.

The second phase of the study (semi-structured interviews) was introduced to explore in depth Jordanian teachers’ understandings and interpretations of inclusive education, process and requirements, barriers to its implementation and changes needed to bring about successful inclusion practices in Jordan. Hence, the second phase addressed the two following specific research questions:

2. What factors influence teachers’ attitudes towards the inclusion of children with SEN?

3. What challenges have to be overcome to enhance the efficacy of teaching for children with SEN in Jordanian ordinary schools?

1.5 Jordan: the Context of the Study
To fully understand this study, it is necessary to provide an illustration of its context and to explore the recent interest in providing an ‘inclusive’ experience for pupils with SEN. It sets to present a general background about Jordan; the education system, and the educational services for children with SEN. It starts with a brief introduction about the Islamic context, as one of the principles within the education philosophy in Jordan.

1.6 Religions in Jordan
There are two main religions in Jordan: Islam and Christianity, with the majority of the population being Muslim; 93% are Sunni Muslim. Christians, make up 6% of the total, with 1% representing other religions (http://jordanembassyus.org/page/culture-and-religion). Religion in Jordan has always been one of the primary cultural influences in the country, particularly on rural people (Al-Zyoud, 2001). Islam is the official religion in Jordan. As the majority of Jordanians are Muslims, the education system in Jordan is derived from, and influenced by Islamic principles and morals. The following section outlines some of the Islamic
principles regarding education and equality. This section is not a critique of the Qur’an or Islam but an examination of Qur’anic text to understand its perspective on education and equality.

**Education and equality in Islam**

The word ‘Islam’ is derived from the Arabic root, "Silm", which means submission to the Will of Allah (God) and obedience of His Law (Al-Zyoud, 2001). In Islam, education is compulsory for children and young people, the first word revealed in the Qur’an was in an imperative mood, "Iqra", which means read, seek knowledge, educate yourselves and be educated (Abdulai, 2014). Allah, the Almighty in the Noble Quran said: ‘Are those equal, those who know and those who do not know’ [Qur’an 39: 9].

Al-Attas (1979) pointed out that the word "education" in Arabic and Islamic culture has three meanings: the most widely used word for education in a formal sense is ‘Ta'līm’, (to know, to be aware, to perceive, to learn), which is used to denote knowledge being sought or imparted through instruction and teaching, ‘Tarbiyah’, (to increase, to grow, to rear), implies a state of spiritual and ethical nurturing in accordance with the will of God and ‘Ta'dīb’, which means (to be cultured, refined and well-mannered). Al-Attas, (1979) regarded education in the Islamic context as a process that involves the person comprehensively, including the rational, spiritual, and social dimensions. In this regard, Naser (1984, p.7) pointed that "the goal of Islamic education is to prepare humankind for happiness in this life, and the ultimate goal is the abode of permanence and all education points to the permanent world of eternity".

One of the most important teachings of Islam is that all people are equal although not the same, Islam opposes prejudice against and exclusion of any group of people; all people, men and women, able and disabled, poor and rich and so forth, have an equal status and value before God, and piety alone differentiates one individual from another (Bazna & Hatab, 2005). The Qur’an addresses all of the humanity in this way:

“O mankind, We created you from a single [pair] of a male and a female, and made you into nations and tribes, that
you may know each other [not that you may despise each other]. Verily the most honoured of you in the sight of Allah is [he who is] the most righteous of you” (Qur’an, 49:13).

Islam teaches that everyone deserves love, care, and respect, and this does not change when a person has a disability. What really matters is his or her heart and conduct (Guvercin, 2008). In Islam, it is the duty and responsibility of everyone to serve the needs of others (Guvercin, 2008) through the command that the strong and wealthy must take care of the weak and poor. Allah tells in the Qur’an:

"And in their wealth there is acknowledged right for the needy and the destitute" (Qur’an, 5:1:19).

As such, Islamic precepts recognise difference, and instruct Muslims with ‘advantages’ in life to help those who lack such advantages and urges acceptance of all people regardless of their disability (Bazna & Hatab, 2005). Islamic principles as indicated earlier, opposes prejudice against and exclusion of any group of people. Nevertheless, there is an informal practice where people practise Islam as they understand it, but not necessarily the exact meaning of its value, where culture contributes in forming views of disability rather than religion. The relation between cultural views of disability and Islamic values will be discussed in greater details in Chapter 2 (Section 2.6.2).

1.7 The Education System in Jordan

The philosophy of education in Jordan is based upon the Jordanian Constitution, the Islamic Arab civilisation, the principles of the Great Arab Revolt², and Jordanian national heritage (AL-Rashdan, 2002). The general objectives of education in Jordan emanate from this philosophy, and are demonstrated in preparing a citizen with faith in God, adherent to the homeland and nation, endowed with virtues and human perfections and physically, mentally, spiritually and socially mature (MOE, 2006).

² The Arab Revolt (1916–1918) was initiated by the Sherif Hussein bin Ali (Emir of Mecca and King of the Arabs) with the aim of securing independence from the ruling Ottoman Turks and creating a single unified Arab state spanning from Aleppo in Syria to Aden in Yemen. (http://www.kinghussein.gov.jo/his_arabrevolt.html).
The education system in Jordan provides every person with school education and lifelong learning experiences that are perceived to be relevant to their current and future needs. Therefore, the key principles of this philosophy were that education must be responsive to both current and future needs, and support the social and economic development of the country (MOE, 2011).

**Educational legislation and initiatives**

Educational legislation in Jordan defines the goals of the educational institutions. Since the MOE has been implementing compulsory education; it has issued legislation towards the continuous development and urbanisation of Jordanian society, starting with Act no. (2)/1939, which defined the general framework for promoting the compulsory education system, then the 1952 legislation, which guaranteed the right of education for all. In its articles related to education stated that:

"The government shall ensure work and education within the limits of its possibilities and it shall ensure a state of tranquillity and equal opportunities to all Jordanians" Article (2/6,).

"Primary education shall be compulsory for Jordanians and free of charge in government schools" Article (20/6).

Then, ending with the 1994 legislations, Act no. (3), which emphasises expanding the basic education stage to include the first ten grades (from year one to year ten) and dividing educational stages, as will be discussed in the coming section, into three stages: Early Childhood Education, Basic Education, and Secondary Education.

Here, it is worth noting that, the development of educational legislation has reflected on Jordanian society. For instance, in 1960, only 33 per cent of Jordanians aged fifteen and over could functionally read and write. However, after 34 years of pro-education government policies, the 1996 literacy rate had reached to 85.4 per cent (MOE, 2006). Then later, as a response to the Dakar Conference (2000), ‘Education for All’, 99 per cent of Jordanians aged fifteen and over of both genders can functionally read and write (The United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization, UNESCO, 2008).
Types of schools and the structure of education in Jordan

According to MOE statistics, Jordan has a total of 5,831 schools for the year 2009/2010, and a total of 99,449 teachers and around 1,628,481 pupils, with an average of 25 pupils per class (MOE, 2010). Jordan has four kinds of schools: government (ordinary) schools, private schools, UNRWA (United Nation Relief and Work Agency) schools, which have been built for the Palestinian pupils living in the refugee camps. In addition, there are special schools, which support pupils with SEN and exceptional needs; these schools are few and mainly centred in the capital, Amman. Additionally, some charitable organisations, based in the main cities, have established some schools, and work together with the MOE to support different pupils with a range of disabilities and learning needs.

As informed previously, education in Jordan is free for all primary and secondary school pupils. The system of schooling in Jordan, as figure 1.1 shows, is divided into three stages:

**Early Childhood Education:** The 1994 Education Act has introduced the kindergarten stage as a formal, but not a compulsory stage in the educational ladder.

**Basic Education:** This is free and compulsory for all Jordanian pupils to the age of sixteen, i.e. ten years of compulsory education. Study books for this level are standard and distributed by MOE. The gross enrolment rate in this stage is 95.7 per cent (MOE, 2010). Most schools in this level are mainly single sex schools. However, at this stage, there are many mixed schools distributed in all districts; such schools permit co-education until the age of ten years. Mixed schools are more prevalent in rural compared to urban areas, due to the low population size compared to the cities.

**Secondary Education:** The Secondary Education stage is also free, but not compulsory. This level consists of two years' study for pupils aged 16 to 18, who have completed the basic cycle (10 years). It comprises two
major tracks, namely Secondary Education and Vocational Secondary Education.

The recommendations of the First National Conference for Educational Development in 1987 stressed the need for providing schools in Jordan with the necessities: teaching aids, trained and qualified teachers in each primary or secondary school and providing modern buildings with educational facilities to meet pupils' needs. Nevertheless, schools in Jordan still lack many elements that help children with physical disability in the ease of movement (Rashdan & Hamshari, 2002). Recently, there is a trend for schools to be adapted to meet the needs of pupils with physical impairments, and to create classrooms for special education pupils with hearing or visual impairments (MOE, 2010).

Figure 1.1 Structure of the organisation of the education system in Jordan

Source: Jordan MOE, 2013
Financing public education
Public education in Jordan is financed mainly through the government’s general budget, according to educational objectives and priorities. Part of the budget is allocated annually for educational services, improving curricula and teachers' training. The expenditure on public education for the fiscal year 1997 represented 12.7% of the government’s general budget (USAID, 2011).

Administration of the education system in Jordan
Jordan has a centralised system of education. The MOE is responsible for implementing the broad objectives of education in the country, the main tasks of the MOE are: a) establishing public education institutions and administering them; b) supervising general and private educational institutions; c) providing appropriate school buildings; d) providing appropriate training; and e) encouraging pupil activities and providing them with counselling, health care, and national examinations (MOE, 2011).

The MOE is constituted of 39 district directorates of education (MOE, 2011). Each directorate mainly executes the policies of the MOE, and they supervise educational policy at the directorate level in the district, and make efforts to improve education. Each directorate is headed by the director of education, assisted by directors for technical and administrative affairs. Schools are looked at as central units of the educational process, managed by a principal and assisted by staff to provide the necessary services.

1.8 Teachers’ Training Programmes
A great deal of research, as will be discussed in Chapter 2, mentioned that on-going professional development is an important factor in improving teachers’ attitudes towards teaching. In Jordan, prior to the National Conference for Educational Development (NCFED, 1987), the MOE held training programmes for all teachers. Then later, the NCFED (1987) recommended a review of teacher preparation at all levels of education through new professional development programmes that directly target
teachers’ needs, making them more effective in performing teaching tasks. These trends were accompanied by a synchronised attempt with Jordanian universities aiming to find successful ways to develop a modern educational process, both quantitatively and qualitatively (Obidat & Rahdan, 1993). Nevertheless, educators from Jordanian universities, MOE and teachers themselves found this large-scale training was often highly theoretical, and often failed to address specific problems that teachers were facing during teaching process (Rashdan & Hamshari). Concerns about the quality of education arose and lead to several calls for reforming education teachers’ professionally (Khasawneh et al., 2008).

In 2010 the MOE started the application of the pre-service Certificate of Education programme, which aims to establish an institutional framework for the preparation of university graduates, who opt for the teaching profession. There are two main tracks for this programme: The first is for the lower basic level children (grades one to four) and the second is for the upper basic levels (grades five to ten). Students completing either of these programmes receive a Bachelor’s degree in Education.

Within the pre-service teacher education programs: student teachers are enrolled in general undergraduate courses and in educational courses simultaneously. Faculties of Educational Sciences in Jordanian universities adopt the concurrent model in teacher education. It includes responsibilities like making the arrangements with schools that cooperate with the university, liaising with the directorate of education which is a part of the Ministry of Education. After completing successfully 90 credit hours of the study, student teachers are ready to start their workshop courses in schools (Abu-Hamour & Al-Hmouz, 2014).

The main aim of pre-service teacher education program is to empower teachers with the knowledge, skills and modern educational pedagogies necessary to perform the profession of teaching competently. The programme includes two main paths: academic and practice. The academic aspect involved matters relating to public education, such
as philosophy of education, educational psychology and learning theories. The practical aspect focuses on testing these concepts through application and dissemination. At the end of the four years, the graduate receives a Bachelor in Education degree (MOE, 2010)

On the other hand, the MOE developed a strategy for training in-service teaching staff in order to improve their management, administration, teaching and learning for pupils. Moreover, The MOE has offered training programmes for some teachers to work as special education teachers (resources room teachers) in ordinary schools. Their roles, as will be discussed in the coming section, are to serve as co-teachers in ordinary education classrooms, and provide direct and indirect consultation services to ordinary teachers, who teach pupils with special educational needs.

Universities in Jordan have been offering undergraduate programmes in special education for many years also. It is a four-year teacher education programme aims to train special education teachers to make them qualified to teach children with special needs. This field in special education programs consists of an introduction to special education course then 10 courses that cover all categories of special education. Students teachers are requested to register in the pre-service field experience in the last semester before graduation (Abu-Hamour & Al-Hmouz, 2014).

1.9 Children with SEN and Educational Services in Jordan

Background
Initial services for special education in Jordan were started at the end of the 1960’s (Abu-Hamour & Al-Hmouz, 2014) were an institute was established offering services to persons who are Deaf, Blind, and Mental impairment (Al Jabery and Marshall, 2008). However, the earliest governmental initiative to serve the needs of children with SEN came by the Ministry of Social Development (MOSD) in 1979. The MOSD was established to be responsible for providing the educational, vocational, care, and accommodation services for the disabled via institutions, schools
and centres under the immediate supervision of the Ministry (Abu-Hamour & Al-Hmouz, 2014).

After the declaration of United Nations in 1981, as many other countries, Jordanian Government paid more interest to individuals with disabilities (El-Zraigat, & Smadi, 2012). The provision was then expanded in 1993 when the educational law made it clear that all children with SEN had the right to be taught and served to the utmost of their abilities (Al Khatib, 2007). One year later, the Ministry of Education in cooperation with The National Centre For Learning Difficulties in (NCLD) initiated programme, with the main task, were training a number of ordinary teachers in the field of learning difficulties to support children with SEN (Al-Waqfi, 2003). This had led to a change in provision for children with learning difficulties in term of adding resource rooms and procedures of educational supervision. One reason for that is to bring better educational life for these children and to improve their learning skills.

The next sections give an account of the support offered by the MOE for children with SEN and disability in Jordan; this includes legislation and resources rooms.

1.9.1 Legislation

Until 1993, individuals with disabilities in Jordan were the responsibility of the MOSD (Al-Hiary., et al, 2015). In 1993, the government of Jordan passed a law for the Welfare of Disabled Persons. The philosophy underpins the intervention for individuals with disabilities stems from Arab-Islamic values, the Jordanian constitution, the World Declaration of Human Rights, and the International Declaration of Disabled Persons (Jordan Information Bureau, 2000). Therefore, among the general principles that the law emphasised is the entitlement of people with

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3 Learning Difficulties is a general concept that involves a heterogeneous group of disorders manifested in the form of significant difficulties in acquiring the skills of listening, speaking, reading, writing, reasoning, and mathematics. These are developmental disorders that may emerge at any stage of life and are more common among males (NCLD, 1994.)
special needs to equal care, health, work, and education opportunities.

The law stresses the following principles:

a) The right of disabled persons to be integrated into the general life of the society.

b) The right of education and higher education commensurate with his/her abilities

c) The right of disabled persons to employment commensurate with their capabilities and qualifications, and their right to sports and recreation.

d) The right of disabled persons to obtain such aids, equipment and materials that assist them in education, training, movement and transportation.

e) The right of those who have multiple and severe disabilities to education, training and rehabilitation. (Laws for the Welfare of Disabled Persons, 1993, Article 3)

Under the effect of this law, governmental and nongovernmental organisations in Jordan have expanded their provisions and funding of services for people with disabilities, including early detection services, special education services, vocational training, and rehabilitation services (Al-Hiary et al. 2015). It recognised the necessity to improve the educational system, institutionally and methodologically, to meet the needs of children with disabilities. For instance, it required the Ministry of Education (MOE) to provide primary and secondary education to children with disabilities and to adjust its educational programmes to include special education services (Turmusani 2003, Amr, 2011).

It is worth noting that this law shifted most services to the MOE and ordinary schools (Al Khatib, 2007). However, there are some children still served in some special education centres that are administrated and supervised by the MOSD; some other centres are administrative by the private sector but supervised by MOSD (Al-Hiary et al. 2015).

In general, principles in the 1993 Law support the equal rights of individuals with disabilities in obtaining a free and appropriate education. This intervention gives precedence to the ‘inclusion’ and opened the door for a wide range of children with special educational needs to attend ordinary schools. However, this new situation, according to the
MOE (2006) report, has led to difficulties in meeting the academic and social needs of these children. Abu-Hamour & Al-Hmouz (2014) attributed that, this law is not practised in the real ground with children with disabilities in Jordan. They reported that:

'It would be easy to think that legislation in itself has created an environment that can accommodate the educational needs of students with disabilities in Jordan, but this is not true... Most of the children with special needs infiltrate the regular education system in Jordan without being provided with adequate educational support (Abu-Hamour & Al-Hmouz, 2014. P106).

To enforce the right to education of children with disabilities, the old law was amended in 2007 by the introduction of the Law on the Rights of Disabled People (2007) (Amr, 2011). This law explicitly asserted the right of children with special needs and disability to inclusive education with adaptations to accommodate their needs at school. This law stresses the following principles:

a) Providing persons with disabilities with general education in accordance with the level of disability through inclusion.
b) Adopting inclusion programmes between the pupils with disabilities and their peers from the non-disabled pupils and implementing these programmes within the framework of the educational institutions.
c) Carrying out educational diagnosis within the overall comprehensive diagnosis to determine the nature of the disability, its degree and needs.
d) Making available qualified technical cadres deal with pupils with disabilities.
e) Carrying out guidance, awareness and education programme geared towards pupils with disabilities and their families.
f) Providing new techniques in educating pupils with disabilities in the public and the private sectors, including teaching mathematics and computer skills. (Law on the Rights of Persons with Disabilities, 2007, Article 4)

Through the latest legislation, Jordan echoed the international call for more inclusive education which in turn has led to endorsing the concept of inclusion in its general education system (Al Khatib, 2007). Consistent with this legislation, inclusive education should become an important aspect within the educational system in Jordan. Nevertheless, Abu-Hamour & Al-Hmouz (2014) again raised a point that the lack of the
effective implementation to the principles of legislation has created a gap between the framework of this legislation and its objectives to meet the diverse needs of children, including those with SEN and disability. Thus, the growth in the number of children with special needs attending ordinary schools has made it necessary for the government to implement efforts to prepare these schools for inclusive agenda. This issue, alongside others, will be discussed further within the implication of the final chapter in this study.

1.9.2 Resource Rooms

The MOE, through the Directorate of Special Education (DSE), offers educational services to children with SEN through 531 resource rooms distributed in various directorates of education (MOE, 2010). ‘Resource Rooms’ are small units in some ordinary schools in Jordan; these facilities have been put in place to provide support to small groups of children with learning difficulties and sensory impairments (Al-Waqfi, 2003). It offers support and special education services to 12,460 children from second (Year 2) to sixth (Year 6) grades children with special needs, including children with mild intellectual disabilities (MOE, 2010). Resource rooms teachers are required to be well qualified with a university degree in teaching and a minimum of three years-experience in the classroom (MOE, 2008). These teachers have also received intensive training at the Learning Difficulty Centre, located in Amman, the capital and funded by the Ministry of Education. The resource rooms’ teacher and the regular classroom teacher should cooperate to establish an appropriate learning environment for each child in both educational settings (AlKhatib, 2007).

Aims and advantages of resource rooms

The aims of resource rooms have been defined, according to the Ministry of Education in Jordan, as follows:

- To present educational support individually or in a small group for children with LD and more exceptional needs in order to enable them to follow up and coping with their ordinary peers.
To motivate pupils in having more active role in the ordinary classrooms hence to
Enable them to enjoy normal days at school, which could result in elevating their sense of weakness if they were left without support.
To present advice and guidance for ordinary teachers in some issues related to the materials and methodology of teaching that fulfils the needs of pupils with LD.
To present advice and guidance for parents of how it is important to continue monitoring their pupils at both the school and home. (MOE, 2010)

**Method of support:**

Pupils in resource rooms are supported in two ways:

- Individual teaching (One-to-One) offering intensive teaching for the child, mainly aimed at those who have specific learning difficulties that demand regular daily attendance in the resource room.
- Group teaching, where a group of 4-6 who have similar difficulties but may be different ages, experience a programme of teaching to match their identified needs. In both these cases, the focus is mainly on literacy and numeracy (Al-Waqfi, 2003).

It is worth noting here that the resource rooms are one of the major forms of provision put in place to support the inclusion of children with SEN in Jordan, and an evaluation of its impact could be seen as essential to this study. Different studies conducted in Jordan indicate to limitations of this provision. For instance (Amr, 2011) perceived that only children with mild difficulties, who already attend the ordinary schools, are accepted in the resource rooms, so children with more severe learning disabilities and sensory impairments are often excluded, attributed that the pattern of this provision has limited the opportunities of children with special needs to receive intervention elsewhere e.g. ordinary classroom. This results in these children experiencing a form of ‘internal exclusion’ in their ordinary classrooms. Amr (2011) also noticed that the intervention provided in these rooms is arbitrary: decisions about child referrals and assessment,
and the planning and delivery of their educational interventions, are largely left to a given teacher’s experiences and knowledge.

Another limitation reported that some of resource rooms are occupied by teachers with poor preparation to teach children with special needs (Al-Hiary & Kinnison, 2008). In this regard, Al-Bataineh (2002) suggested that Jordan needs more comprehensive policies to meet the needs of children with disabilities through the recruiting of more qualified teachers, development of in-service training, and increased funding of special education.

1.9.3 Placement Services for Children with SEN and Disability in Jordan

Generally, special education in Jordan is provided through three placement services, these placements offered for children with special needs at the ordinary and private schools. These educational placements are (a) special schools or centres with and without residential provisions; (b) special classes in integrated schools; and (c) integrated programmes that are supported by resource rooms (Hamour & Al-Hmouz, 2014). Table 1.1 shows the category and the area of placement:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Category/description</th>
<th>Area of placement/support</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Severe learning difficulties e.g. intellectual disability</td>
<td>Residential schools</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mild intellectual disabilities (slow learners and learning difficulties)</td>
<td>Resource rooms in ordinary schools</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Wide range of disabilities (moderate and severe intellectual impairments, autism and developmental delays)</td>
<td>Public and private centres with or without residential services</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Most students with visual impairments</td>
<td>Special schools</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Children with hearing loss</td>
<td>Special schools</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Children with speech and language impairments</td>
<td>Private sector (e.g. hospital and special education and language centre)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Emotional and behavioural disabilities and other health impairments such as Attention Deficit Hyperactivity Disorder (ADHD)</td>
<td>Ordinary schools</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Physical disabilities</td>
<td>Ordinary and special schools</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
It is worth noting that responsibility for special education is shared between the MOE and the MOSD. The MOE is responsible for providing all kinds of primary and secondary education for those with special education needs, whereas the MOSD is responsible for the care, training and support services for those with severe learning difficulties. Special education is organised within the MOE and the MOSD with each one running a directorate of special education for its respective responsibilities (Abu-Hamour & Al-Hmouz, 2014).

‘Integration’/ ‘Inclusion’ programmes for children with SEN and disability:

The MOE with the help of UNESCO and cooperation with the MOSD have established 18 integrated programmes for children with special needs in ordinary schools (Al Jabery & Zumberg 2008). These programmes include accepting children with mild to moderate disability, deaf and blind in regular schools. According to the MOE statistics, there are around 700 children with physical disabilities in ordinary and specialised schools (MOE, 2010). It also established 10 special schools for children who are deaf and hard-of-hearing located in most populated cities. The Ministry of Education represented by The Directorate of Special Education assumed full responsibility of educating children who are deaf and hard-of-hearing and supplies these schools with resources deemed necessary to meet the needs of these children (Ministry of Education, 2010).

As an attempt to increase the scope of inclusion, the MOE has implemented the ‘partial inclusion’ within some schools for a small number of children with mental disability; there are five classrooms within ordinary schools that serve a total of 35 to 40 children who have a severe mental disability (MOE, 2010). These schools accept these children with their normal peers within the framework of the ordinary school and they share

\[\text{\footnotesize\cite{MOE, 2010}}\]

4 The terms ‘inclusion’, ‘integration’ often used interchangeably in Jordanian policy documents and research. This will be discussed further in chapter 2.
with them collective activities during rest times, playing, art education, physical education, trips and other activities. While these programmes represent promising trends, the main responsibility for such kinds of needs usually resides with special teachers, and their inclusion is generally limited to non-academic activities. In some respects this makes for greater obstacles to understanding the blurry meaning of inclusion.

1.10 Organisation of the Thesis
This thesis is organised into seven chapters.

Chapter One introduces the study and the research background and states the purposes of the research and the research questions, the rationale and importance of the study. The chapter also presents a brief description of the structure of the Jordanian education system and the educational legislation and initiatives regarding children with special education needs.

Chapter Two: literature review, the primary aim in this chapter is threefold: To provide a framework for data collection and analysis in this study; to serve as a platform for examining teachers’ attitudes towards inclusive education, and to investigate the concept and importance of inclusive education for ordinary schools. The chapter also attempts to provide a review of relevant studies done in this field to situate and explain the place of this study within that body of literature, and to demonstrate the links between the research questions and the main themes in the literature

Chapter Three explains the methodological perspectives and approaches of the study. It discusses the methodological issues and procedures involved in the research design and data collection and analysis. It justifies the mixed methods approach adopted for this study, describes the data collection instruments and their development. In addition, it describes the population and sample of the study, presents the data collection procedures and the phases of the investigation. Furthermore, it
outlines the methods and actions taken to promote the validity and reliability of the research findings, along with the mechanism and process of data analysis, and also considers ethical issues.

Chapter four provides the analysis and a summary of the quantitative phase regarding teachers’ attitudes towards inclusive education in Jordan.

Chapter Five presents the first phase of qualitative analysis and discusses teachers’ attitudes towards inclusion with an explanation of the factors and context that shape teachers’ attitude towards inclusive education in Jordanian ordinary schools.

Chapter Six presents the second phase of qualitative analyses and discusses teachers’ suggestions of possible ways to improve inclusive education in Jordanian ordinary schools, and their perspectives on factors within the Jordanian context that might either facilitate or impede efforts to promote teachers’ attitudes towards inclusion. This chapter also provides a discussion of the research findings on Jordanian teachers’ attitude towards inclusion. It presents both the quantitative and qualitative findings, comparisons between them, in relation to the literature.

Finally Chapter Seven spells out the conclusions and implications of the study. It provides a brief summary of the main findings, draws the conclusions of the study, with emphasis on the significance of the findings for the Jordanian context. It also provides possible implications of the study for inclusive education in Jordan. Furthermore, this chapter addresses the limitations of the study, and suggestions for future research in this area.
Chapter Two: Literature Review

2.1 Introduction
The following literature review aims to survey relevant work in the field of attitudes to inclusive education and special educational needs (SEN). It intends to elucidate the importance of teachers’ attitudes to inclusive education and how attitudes can be understood in relation to teachers’ every day practice in schools. The review also, explores inclusion from a range of different perspectives and examines the models of disability and its implications for inclusive education in this study. International studies in this field, with an emphasis those conducted in the Middle East and Jordan, will be evaluated in order to locate the place of this study within that body of literature, suggest areas needing further research and to identify appropriate methods by which to do this study also.

Structuring literature: general-to-specific pattern review
Researchers can structure their literature review in different ways or patterns (Newman et al., 1997 and Cone & Foster, 2006), there are no right or wrong order other than that of the researcher’s sense of logical order. The ‘general-to-specific way’ (Newman et al., 1997) is one of the patterns that is common in structuring a review. In this approach researchers begin by discussing the topic in the most general of terms, and then gradually narrow the focus of the discussion to become closer and closer to the topic or purpose of the present study (Newman et al., 1997). This study will adopt such an approach. For instance, the first sections of this review provide a general overview of attitude, special educational needs and inclusive education, then research conducted about teachers’ attitude towards inclusive education and disability internationally, then in the Middle East. it concludes with Jordanian studies. This pattern makes it much easier to write because it provides a built-in structure for this chapter.
2.2 Literature Search Strategy and Ethical Reviewing

A search of the literature is an essential part of every research project (Hart, 1998). According to Hart (1998) a literature review is:

"The selection of available documents ... on the topic, which contain information, ideas, data and evidence written from a particular standpoint to fulfil certain aims or express certain views on the nature of the topic and how it is to be investigated, and the effective evaluation of these documents in relation to the research being proposed" (Hart 1998, P. 13).

In this research project, relevant studies concerning teachers’ attitudes towards inclusive education were identified by searching the international literature. Two databases were searched for publications describing teachers’ attitude towards inclusive education; British Education Index BEI (1996-2014) and Education Resources Information Centre ERIC (2004-2014). More general web based searches, in English and Arabic, were also made using such engines as Google Scholar. In order to ensure that relevant studies were not missed, the search parameters remained broad. These were "Attitude", plus "Inclusion", plus "Special educational needs" anywhere in the title or abstract. Moreover, the following international journals were searched electronically for more relevant reports helping the review: Disability and Society, British Journal of Special Education, International Journal of Inclusive Education, Support for Learning, International Journal of Special Education, Educational Psychology and European Journal of Special Needs Education. In this study, journals as sources of information are regarded as being more up-to-date than books. Yet, this review was also supplemented by key books, dissertations and conferences that were relevant to the area of study.

Efforts developed also to search for any relevant dissertations, whether in Arabic or English in Jordanian universities and internationally. Two studies were identified and both include ‘teachers’ attitudes’, ‘inclusion’ and ‘ordinary school/classes in Jordan’ within their titles. One study conducted in Arabic for a master degree requirement and the second was a Ph.D. study in English from the University of Illinois, Urban-
Campaign, USA. Through a request to the Interlibrary Loans, several attempts were conducted between the University of Nottingham and the University of Illinois to obtain a copy of the Ph.D. study. Finally, it returns to me that the British library was unable to carry on the request due to no final reply from the University of Illinois, and therefore, the request has been cancelled. Whilst, the MA dissertation was obtained successfully.

Overall, a total of 113 studies were revealed from this search. The next step was a detailed examination of papers. International studies were eligible for consideration in this review if the focus was on teachers’ attitudes towards inclusive education or children with special needs. From this examination, around 87 studies investigating teachers’ attitudes towards inclusive education have been reviewed; 13 of these studies have been conducted in Arabic and/or Islamic culture countries and four studies in Jordan. This selection endeavours to present as many international studies as possible. In doing so, the aim is to represent a fair, representative selection and to highlight multiple interpretations of inclusive education worldwide.

It is worth noting that the selected Jordanian studies, which investigated ordinary teachers’ attitude towards the inclusive education of children with SEN and disability, were seen as a particularly valuable resource and contributes primary information to this study. Such studies facilitate the testing of relationships between teachers’ attitudes towards inclusive education in comparison to this study and also identifying areas that needs more investigation in this field. Cross-cultural studies and meta-analysis studies as ‘a statistical method of combining quantitative data from several different studies to produce new data’ (Jesson, Matheson and Lacey 2011, P. 129) were also seen as crucial studies, because such studies provide extensive information through the summary of several studies that have been done on the topic.
Reviewing and interpreting literature also demands consideration to the ethics of writing. Therefore, during this review, I intend to read critically and interpret the work of others, while gaining an appreciation for their views and genres of interpretation. In this review, I adopt the form of a critical discussion, showing insight and an awareness of differing arguments, theories and approaches linked at all times to my own rationale and research questions. During the review, I wrote a short summary of each article including the key thoughts, comments, strengths and weaknesses of the publication. To ensure a balance of viewpoints, specific counter-searches were carried out when it was felt that one side of an argument was under-represented. For instance, to balance between the international studies and the four Jordanian studies regarding teachers’ attitudes to inclusive education, I searched the relevant literature in countries in the Middle East region, that have a similar norm of cultural and educational patterns to Jordan. These studies, therefore, were considered as a supplement serve to balance between the viewpoints more fairly.

The British Educational Research Association (BERA, 2000) suggest that, writers should write with certain freedoms; interpreting the work of others according to the ethics of truth and academic integrity and where possible, educational researchers must seek to communicate their findings and the practical significance of their research, in a clear manner, and in a language judged appropriate to the intended audience (BERA, 2011). In this research, endeavours have been made to follow the BERA Ethical Guidelines for Educational Research. This is through the three stages of my research; searching the literature and both quantitative and qualitative phases which will be discussed further in chapter 4.
2.3 Why Do Attitude towards Special Needs and Disability Matter? Putting the Study in Context.

2.3.1 Definition of Attitude

Attitudes are important, they influence how we view the world, what we think and do (Maio & Haddock, 2009). Social psychologists as Table 2.1 shows have defined the concept of attitude in many ways.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Psychologists</th>
<th>Definitions of attitude</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Petty and Cacioppo (1981, p7)</td>
<td>A general and enduring positive or negative feeling about some person, object, or issue.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Eagly &amp; Chaiken (1993, p.1)</td>
<td>A psychological tendency that is expressed by evaluating a particular entity with some degree of favour or disfavour.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ajzen (2005, p.3)</td>
<td>A disposition to respond favourably or unfavourably to an object, person, institution, or event.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Maio &amp; Haddock (2009, p. 4)</td>
<td>An overall evaluation of an object that is based on cognitive, affective and behavioural information.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Although social psychology describes the concept in various ways, Maio & Haddock (2009) argue, they all highlighted the notion that an attitude involves individual’s viewpoint about an object, an attitude object can be anything a person, thing or hold in mind. In this regard, Avramidis (2001) notes that one of the major theoretical issues in the study of attitudes is the difference of opinion between psychologists who assume, by definition, that attitudes are related to behaviour, and those who define it as just another response which may or may not be related to the behaviour of interest. The problem of correspondence between attitude and behaviour will be dealt with later on in this chapter; before that the three component views will be presented.
2.3.2 The Three Components of Attitude

Attitudes, as figure 2.1 shows, are considered to have three components: cognitive, affective and behavioural (Eagly and Chaiken, 1993).

Figure 2.1: The concept ‘attitude’ and its three components. Adopted from de Boer et al., (2011).

Social psychologists assume that responses that express people’s attitudes were divided into three components; cognitive, affective and behavioural (McGuire, 1985; Eagly & Chaiken, 1993; Ajzen, 2005; Bohner & Wanke, 2002; and Maio & Haddock, 2009). Breckler, (1984) noted that these three components of attitude were moderately correlated. On the other hand, Bohner and Wanke (2002) explained that the three components of attitudes are not necessarily separable from each other and attitude may consist entirely of cognitive or of effective components and it is not necessary that all three are represented. Whatever the case is, Eagly & Chaiken (1993) explains that gaining more meaning to peoples’ attitudes towards any objects; the use of the terms cognitive, affective, and behavioural should help researchers evolve an understanding of the conditions under which attitudes truly have varying numbers of components.
The cognitive component however, consists of the individual’s beliefs, opinions, thoughts or knowledge about the attitude object (Eagly & Chaiken, 1993). In this regard, Maio & Haddock (2009) pointed out that people’ attitudes are influenced by the information and experiences that an individual has about an attitude object’s attributes and properties. In this study for instance, the cognitive component of attitudes would be a guiding factor for teacher’s attitudes and reactions towards inclusion implementation. Teacher’s attitudes would be influenced by their perceived knowledge of children with SEN or/and could have been developed through actual experience of interacting with these children. If the experience had been positive, it could be assumed that they might have developed a positive outlook about the children and they would have a favourable view of the inclusion process. But if their experience had been negative, they might eventually view the concept of inclusion in a negative light. In this context, teachers’ positive or negative attitudes towards children with SEN and disabilities may be informed by their knowledge and experiences.

On the other hand, the affective component of attitudes consisting of feelings, moods, sympathies or emotions that people have in relation to the object can be evaluated from extremely positive to extremely negative (Eagly & Chaiken, 1993). In relation to inclusive education, Jantan (2007) argue that the affective component of attitudes would in some measure relate to the humanitarian side of teachers’ characteristics. Jantan (2007) attribute that, even if the teachers have negative feelings about the inclusion process; repeated exposure to the emotional experiences of children with SEN might change their expectations and might gradually shift their feelings from negative to positive.

The behavioural component refers to peoples’ action with respect to the object in a particular way. Eagly & Chaiken (1993) explain that people who evaluate an attitude toward any object favourably are likely to express positive reactions towards this object and are unlikely to
express a negative attitude. Here, in relation to teachers’ attitudes towards inclusive education, teachers’ past behavioural responses towards children with SEN and disability, or what they had heard or read about them could have moulded their attitudes, and this in turn could determine their behavioural predisposition towards these children. This predisposition to act is usually derived or inferred from the affective and cognitive elements of teachers' attitudes.

Consequently, these three components of attitudes reflect the way in which the individual goes about looking at the object and with his way of dealing with the bits of information he has about himself and his environment (McGuire, 1985). It has been argued that attitudes can be formed primarily or exclusively on the basis of any one of the three components (Eagly & Chaiken, 1993). As such, people’s responses toward attitude object does not mean a combination of the three component, individual may have belief towards object but never engage in overt behavioural. For example, in inclusive education, teachers may believe that children with SEN should be socially merged into the ordinary school environment; at the same time, teachers may not engage with selecting learning tasks those children with SEN and disability can do. In this sense, the issue of consistency that people tend to express the same degree of evaluation of an attitude object through the three components is limited.

In a review to different studies, (Haddock & Maio, 2009) attempted to find a correlation between the three components and a person overall attitude. They concluded that the relation between these studies are that positive beliefs about an attitude object is associated with a positive affect responses about that object, whereas negative beliefs about that object is associated with unfavourable feelings. Further, they comprehend that most of these studies are concerned of how the cognitive and affective components related to predicting an attitude with the absence of the behavioural component. Thus, they assume that the existence of positive belief, feeling and behaviours is likely to inhibit the occurrence of negative belief, feeling and behaviours. For
example, with regards to this study, this assumption implies that a teacher with positive belief, feeling and behaviours about children with SEN and disability is unlikely to have negative belief, feeling and behaviours about these children.

2.3.3 The Consistency between Attitude and Behaviour

One of the underlying assumptions about the link between attitudes and behaviour, as indicated earlier, is that of consistency. This means that we often or usually expect the behaviour of a person to be consistent with the attitudes that they hold. Psychologists (Eagly & Chaiken, 1993; and Kraus, 1995) assume that people’s attitudes are correlated with the evaluative implications of their behaviour and the relation between attitude and overt behaviour is stronger when the measures of attitude and behaviour are correspondent. However, the size of correlation between attitude and behaviour is a complex matter in social science. In an old but relevant previous meta-analysis of 42 empirical studies of attitude-behaviour relation, Wicker (1969) concluded that it is more likely that peoples’ attitudes were unrelated or only slightly related to their overt behaviour. Wicker’s (1969) findings led a number of psychologists (e.g., Eagly & Chaiken, 1993; and Kraus, 1995) to highlight the relation between attitude and overt behaviour again. For instance, Kraus (1995), in a meta-analytic review of 100 studies, found that attitudes do predict behaviour, but only in some conditions. In a later meta-analysis, Laura & Dolore’s (2006) results suggest that attitudes influence behaviour when they are easy to retrieve from memory and are stable over time. In addition, their meta-analysis shows that having direct experience with the attitude object influences the attitude–behaviour relation by bringing higher understanding. It also indicates that being motivated to think about an object strengthens the attitude–behaviour relation via greater attitude stability.

In the case of teachers’ attitudes towards inclusion, numerous studies (e.g. Le Mare and de la Ronde, 2000; Cook, 2001; Bramston et al.,
2002; Alghazo and Gaad’s, 2004; Pijl, Frostad and Flem, 2008; and Boar et al., 2011), as will be discussed later in this chapter, found a high level of correlation between teachers’ attitudes towards inclusion and their acceptance for children with SEN. On the other hand, these studies indicted a low correlation when related to some type of disability, e.g. children with emotional and behavioural difficulties. The discussion, therefore about whether attitudes predict behaviour is misleading and not all the variability in behaviour is predictable from attitudes. Hila et al., (2014) attributes that factors include differences in patterns of social interaction; policies and practices; as well as differences in foundational religious and philosophical ideas, may be different in cultural contexts where attitudes are not construed as the main drivers of an individuals’ actions. Consequently, as Avramidis (2001, P45) indicates, “once we act a few times in a certain way, because of social factors or because we expect good consequences, our behaviour in a situation may escape self-instruction. Our attitudes then may be shaped to conform to our behaviour, and we can acquire attitudes that justify what we do”. Therefore, the relation between attitudes and behaviour is a reciprocal one; attitudes prompt actions and actions shape attitudes.

2.3.4 Significance of the Three Components of Attitudes for the Study

As indicated earlier, teachers' attitudes towards the innovation of inclusion could be determined by their beliefs or knowledge, feelings and actions towards children with SEN. These three elements could, either patently or inadvertently, determine both their actual and potential responses to inclusive education implementation. For the purpose of this study, I have employed the three-component model of attitudes because of its potential to reflect the complexity of teachers' attitudes towards inclusion. The multidimensional model of attitudes offers a holistic way of understanding and a dynamic conceptual framework, which affords multiple and sometimes contradictory
response, without regard to whether the types prove separable in appropriate statistical analysis (Elshabrawy, 2008).

The placement of children with SEN in schools in Jordan is developing, but is still at early stage, thus more information is required in order to implement it more effectively. Accordingly, analysing teachers’ attitudes in terms of their beliefs, knowledge, feelings and ‘actions’ will help to find out the relative strength of each of these three dimensions and gives more weight than a model. The results of some studies which have utilised this approach in the field of special education and disability (e.g. Avramidis et al., 2000; Gyimah, 2006; Jantan (2007; Elshabrawy, 2010; and Al-Shahrani, 2014) indicate that multidimensional attitude scales capture the complexity of attitudes more appropriately.

The following section highlights the development in attitudes towards disability through the history.

2.4 Brief History of Attitudes towards Disability and Special Needs

Throughout history, disabled people have experienced social discrimination, segregation and exclusion (Barnes, 1997). They have been described as incomplete or defective human beings, subjected at one extreme to neglect, persecution and death (Doyle, 1995). It is argued that the historiography of disability has been informed by the understanding of disability as a cause of social oppression, rather than an individual pathology (Barnes, 1997). In the ancient world, particularly among the Greeks, the link between impairment and punishment for sins was rooted in their culture. Greek society’s aspiration to perfection shaped the way in which impairments were perceived; as the pursuit of physical and intellectual fitness was essential, there was little room for people with any form of ‘flaw’ (Barnes, 1997). Likewise, in seeking purity, infanticide in the form of exposure to the elements for sickly or weak infants was also
widespread, and in some states mandatory (Tooley, 1983). Following the Greeks, the Romans also adopted this view of impairment, and were enthusiastic advocates of infanticide for ‘sickly or ‘weak’ children, drowning them in the river Tiber (Barnes, 1997).

In the context of western culture, it is argued that little has been written about the oppression of disabled people, due to the lack of accessible information, and the rarity of historians with a particular interest in this field Pfeiffer (2000). Nevertheless, history has witnessed the recording of some evidence about the oppression of disabled people. Doyle (1995) observed that during the 16th century, Christians such as Luther and John Calvin indicated that the mentally retarded and other persons with disabilities were possessed by evil spirits. Thus, these men and other religious leaders of the time often subjected people with disabilities to mental and/or physical pain as a means of exorcising the spirits. Similarly, Pfeiffer (2000) noted that until the seventeenth century, people with severe impairment were admitted to one of the very small hospitals in which the poor, the sick and the bedridden were gathered later, in the nineteenth century, and due to the industrial revolution, many people with impairment were excluded from the community and kept in institutional settings.

In the UK, for example, during the nineteenth century, special schools began to emerge and offered support for children with impairment, such as the blind, deaf and ‘dumb’ (Thomas & Loxley, 2001). This growth in provision might be considered a step forward towards addressing the needs of these children. Nevertheless, Thomas & Loxley (2001) also stated, it could be interpreted as part of a process of segregation of special needs children into special schools, thus excluding them from the community. Similarly, Pfeiffer (2000) makes the case that this oppression can be seen as an outcome of the industrial revolution, which, led to the institutionalisation of disabled persons with the purpose of custodial care, not education.

This era also witnessed the rejection by ordinary schools of ‘slow’ learners and intellectual impaired children. These children were seen as
different from others, and therefore a different education system for them was demanded (Pfeiffer, 2000). Subsequently, at the beginning of the twentieth century, some attempts were made to serve the needs of children with disabilities, such as the UK 1921 Education Act, which provided education for children with special needs as previously they did not have a right to it. Furthermore, new language was used, with wider use of the word ‘disability’. However, by the mid-1960s, demands were being made for ‘normalisation’ and a change in the conceptualisation of disability. It was introduced through The Principle of Normalisation in the Human Services in 1972 (Booth, 1983). This included ideas about integration in education within a wider range of provisions for people with disability and advocated that people with disabilities should have access to the same opportunities and options as other members of society.

The 1970s witnessed a major movement in the field of special needs education, towards including all children with disabilities and special needs in ‘mainstream’ schools, along with a change in the attitudes of societies towards disability (Barnes, 1997). The inclusion of people with impairments, whether physical, sensory or cognitive, into the mainstream of everyday life has become a major consideration for politicians and policy-makers across many countries (Borsay, 2005). It is argued that since 1979 there has been a move away from the traditional approach to disability as an individual problem, which prevails in the field of professionals like teachers, social workers and doctors, to the notion that disability is socially constructed (Oliver, 1996). Thus from the mid-1980s onwards, some Western countries have ratified legislation that seeks to address issues of social justice and discrimination. Later, the early 1990s witnessed a global movement within the history of disability towards the necessity and desirability of inclusion within societies and signalling a shift in the language and terminology used in identifying and defining disability (Vislie, 2003).
Following the 1994 Salamanca World Statement, which was signed by the representatives of 92 governments and 25 international organisations, disability gained more space in the political agenda across more countries worldwide. The statements asserted that ‘inclusion and participation are essential to human dignity and the enjoyment and exercise of human rights’ (UNESCO, 1994: 11). Following these international efforts to improve living conditions for persons with disabilities, several nations, including both developed and developing countries began to formulate some form of legislative policy framework to combat discrimination on the grounds of impairment (Borsay, 2005). For example, in Jordan, the promulgation of the Jordan Laws for the Welfare of Disabled Persons in 1993 allowed children with disabilities and special needs learners a legal right to education in government schools (ordinary schools), as well as a right to employment following their graduation. The most recent legislation, the Law on the Rights of Persons with Disabilities (2007) crystallised the right of pupils with special needs more clearly and stressed that inclusive education should be provided for the needs of children with SEN in ordinary Jordanian schools.

2.5 Teachers’ Attitudes Matter

As stated earlier, history suggests that attitudes matter; people with disabilities have been prey to society’s misconceptions, stereotypes, stigma, and prejudices in many different ways. Such perceptions have led to exclusion, mistreatment, and deprivation of their rights to equal opportunities for education, jobs, and essential services (Al Thani, 2006). However, recent years have witnessed a shift in attitudes and improvements to the nature of provision for those with disabilities with more acceptance into society. For instance, Hornby and Stakes (1997) point out that development in the provision for children with special needs shows attitudinal changes towards the disabled within society as a whole.
Teachers, as part of the wider society, reflect the perspectives of society at large as well as of their own professional cultures (Ellins, 2004). Thus, teachers are widely considered one of the most influential factors in school effectiveness. In other words, the mechanisms by which teachers interact with children and how children perceive teachers’ attitudes influences their motivation and attitudes toward school and learning. If teachers’ attitudes are positive, it makes it easier for the implementation of policies that promote the child’s right to be educated in ordinary classrooms (Alghazo and Gaad, 2004). In contrast, when teachers adopt a negative attitude towards inclusive education, it can be very difficult to achieve a sound inclusive practice (Ferrante, 2012).

Several studies (e.g. Leyser et al., 1994; Bender et al., 1995; Hornby and Stakes, 1997; Avramidis, Bayliss and Burden, 2000; Ellins and Porter, 2005; and Wolstenholme’s, 2010) established that negative attitudes of teachers towards children with SEN and disabilities are a major barrier to children. Ellins and Porter’s (2005) study, for instance, shows that negative attitudes towards children with SEN and disability will have discouraged a sense of urgency in this area and will therefore, badly affecting the nature and quality of provision for these people.

It is therefore, agreed that the success of inclusive education depends strongly on teachers’ attitudes, because they play a central role in developing an effective inclusive environment. On the basis of this view, Alghazo and Gaad (2004) maintain that for inclusion to be practical, efforts should be made to promote positive attitudes to inclusion. But the question is asked about the way to achieve this? It may be reasonable to assume that increasing teachers’ knowledge and skills in this field could be one the effective tool to overcome negative attitudes. When teachers learn about SEN, as research seems to suggest, the outcomes become positive. It is implied by this that if teachers have a direct contact with children with SEN and disabilities, for example, teaching them and learning about the value of
differences, they are likely to form attitudes that may favour the child with SEN.

2.6 Special Education Needs (SEN) and Disability

2.6.1 Special Education Needs Terminology

As indicated earlier, the shift within the history of disability from segregation to inclusion has led to a correspondingly strong movement towards including pupils with SEN and disability into regular schools. Parallel to these developments in attitudes towards disability has been a change in the terminology used to denote those pupils. In the UK, for example, The Warnock Report (1978) suggested moving the focus away from handicaps and disabilities and replacing these with the term ‘special educational needs’, which later started to be used widely within the language of educational discourse and legislation. The Special Educational Needs Code of Practice (DFES, 2001) defines the term 'special educational needs' as: “Children have special educational needs if they have a learning difficulty which calls for special educational provision to be made for them” (p. 6). This definition makes the needs of the child ‘special’ when there is a mismatch between the learner’s characteristics and the other interacting forces of the classroom.

The term SEN continues to be used from time to time in the developing discussion about inclusive education, it is the language commonly used in legislation and is therefore, difficult to avoid (Jantain, 2007). Nevertheless, it has been argued that categorising children as having SEN is seen as stigmatising and therefore, according to inclusionists, it should be avoided (Hornby, 2012). There is then a dilemma, since if children are identified as having SEN, there is a risk of negative labelling and stigma, while if they are not identified there is a risk that they will not get the teaching they require and their special needs will not be met (Ibid, 2012:54). In the UK, the National Association for Special Educational Needs (NASEN) opines that if categorisation is used wisely, it can be helpful to describe a condition, indicate a cause and predict the long-term future in order to address children’s needs.
(Gyimah, 2006). Categorising children as having intellectual difficulties or emotional and behavioural difficulties or any type of category would therefore continue for some time since many professionals within special needs education consider categorisation as 'necessary' to address their unique needs (Hunt and Marshall, 2002).

In this study of teachers’ attitudes towards the inclusion of children with SEN in Jordanian ordinary schools, the term special educational needs (SEN) will be used to refer to the needs of children who have a significantly greater difficulty in learning than their peers in the class, or have a disability or emotional and behavioural difficulties which prevents or hinders them from making use of educational facilities, suggesting that the categorisation of or the differentiation to their needs, in a positive sense, is important in order to ensure that they are receiving the education they need in an appropriate setting.

2.6.2 Disability in Arabic and Islamic Context: Middle East Region

Although there is a wide range of diversity and differences among the Middle East (ME) countries economically, socially and politically, much of their history, the social and religious context may be identical or have a large overlap (Miles, 2007). These norms constitute both an advantage and a disadvantage for the situation of persons with disabilities. Al Thani (2006) pointed out that, as most Arab societies in the ME countries are family and community oriented, there is a strong belief particularly in rural areas that "People take care of their own". Yet, this kind of care most often a personal effort on the part of a family that possesses financial resources and the person with disabilities has to overcome obstacles, whether they are social, physical, environmental or attitudinal.

Moreover, some people in the Middle East society feel that disability is a divine tribulation visited upon the family to test their belief in God and they believe that they have to accept such misfortune with faith
and forbearance (Miles, 1995). Barnes (1997) attributed these to the commands of Islam that shape some believers' thinking. It should be noted, however, that this view does not explain differences in attitudes towards those with different disability; rather it applies to attitudes in general.

On the other hand, Al-Thani (2006) makes the point that persons with disabilities in the Middle East region historically, have suffered no more and no less of the discrimination and marginalisation that all persons with disabilities have suffered throughout the world. Al-Thani (2006) attributed that persons with disabilities in ME were motivated by pity and charity, and predominantly provided by religious-based institutions and organisations, their needs are not rights-based and do not happen in response to the equalisation initiatives. Even more, Turmusani (2001) claimed that disability in ME culture has traditionally been seen as something shameful, Arab families have often failed to admit that they include a disabled person for fear that this would be considered a disgrace and lower the family's standing in the neighbourhood. Similarly, Al Thani (2006) stated that people with disabilities in the Arab world are seen as a curse on their families; people are often identified by their disability, or their disability replaces their given name. In Jordan for instance, a study by Qaryouti (1984) indicated that the attitudes of rural people towards disabled people were generally negative, suggesting that these families are afraid that having a child with a disability in the family will reduce their social status and limit their marriage opportunities.

However, it is worth noting that such stigma and attitudes surrounding disability in the ME region, including Jordan are no longer as prevalent as they used to be a decade or so ago. Cultural mentalities in the region are shifting (Bazna and Reid, 2009; Gaad, 2011; and ALmotairi, 2013). Nevertheless, according to the findings of the Global Survey on Government Implementation of the Standard Rules on the Equalisation of Opportunities for Persons with Disabilities (2006), persons with disabilities in the ME region, face a great deal of challenges. These
include raising public awareness about the causes and prevention of disability, and the rights and potentials of persons with disabilities; passing legislation; gathering and using information and statistics on disability; supporting organisations of persons with disabilities, and ensuring their representation; and creating an accessible physical environment. Thus, one of the main themes highlighted in this study was to increase the awareness regarding special needs; the pronounced need for the dismantling of the negative view against those with disabilities and also working towards integrating Islamic principles of equality, which also supports international standards for persons with disabilities.

**Islamic religion**

Islamic religion also has an impact upon society’s perception towards disability. A core message of Islam is that anything that occurs and everything that exists in the world can be attributed to the will of God (Turmusani, 2001). This perception of disability as a test of the faith and as God’s will plays a major part in shaping attitudes towards disabled people. Islamic principles, as indicated in chapter one, emphasises the community's responsibility to protect and care for those needing assistance, and it encourages the inclusion of all people, regardless of ability, in the larger society (Guvercin, 2008). In Islam, therefore, people with disabilities are part of society and have their rights to participate fully and equally in all kinds of activities according to their abilities. A person's worth is based not on any physical or material characteristics but on piety. Piety includes both faith in the tenets of Islam and a genuine attempt to adhere to Islam's obligations to the best of one's ability, everyone deserves love, care, and respect, and this fact does not change when a person is impaired (Hasnain, Shaikh & Shanawani, 2008).

Islamic text, in fact, makes few references to disability; the mentions of disability - such as blindness or deafness - in the Quran are metaphorical references. Even though, Bazna and Hatab (2005) evaluated the position of the Qur'an and Hadith (Prophet Mohammed's
saying) on disability and concluded that disability is considered morally neutral; it is neither a punishment from God nor a blessing, and it does not reflect any spiritual deformity. A human’s worth in the sight of God, they point out, depends on spiritual development rather than any physical or material attributes. Islam therefore, sees disability as being an inevitable part of the human condition and a fact of life which has to be addressed and supported appropriately by the society.

As such, taking into account that most Muslim people are religious, religion plays a crucial role in Muslim’s understanding and interpretation of having a disabled child in their families or societies (Al-Aoufi, Al-Zyoud & Shahminan, 2012). However, despite Islam’s call for protecting the rights of people with disabilities and including them in society, they observe that there is a differentiation between the Islamic outlook regarding disability and cultural perceptions. There is an informal practice where people practise Islam as they understand it, but not necessarily the exact meaning of its value, where culture contributes in forming views of disability rather than religion (Al-Aoufi, Al-Zyoud & Shahminan, 2012). Consequently, this understanding and interpretation could lead to a contradiction between Islamic perspectives and local culture and therefore, be seen as one of the influential factors that affect attitudes towards disability and then, the development of special needs provision in the region.

Moreover, in the Arab world Mosques and faith institutions reflect a limited awareness of measures to accommodate the needs of people with disabilities, making those people relatively more isolated (Bazna and Hatab, 2005). This situation, therefore, presents a challenge: how to change attitudes so that mosques and faith institutions in Arab world work to support persons with disabilities as equal and contributing citizens of their community. Religion and cultural context are important factors to inclusive education. Integrating Islamic principles of equality regarding disability in the Arab world might predict a ‘religious model’ that also supports the international standards for
persons with disabilities. This might imply that inclusive philosophy becomes a natural part of society with less recourse to legislation.

### 2.6.3 Models of Special Needs and Disability

There are a number of models of disability which have been defined over the last few years. The two most frequently cited are the social and the medical models of disability. In the education field, these are often referred to as individual and environmental models. The two models, as figure 2.2 shows, have different underlying assumptions about the causes and responses to the ‘problem’ of disability.

#### Figure 2.2: Medical and Social Model Thinking in schools. Adapted from (Mason and Rieser, 1994)

**The Medical Model of Disability**

The medical model of disability views it as a ‘problem’ belonging to the disabled individual: an individual with an impairment is seen as having a problem that needs treating medically so that they fit into society,
rather than changing society to suit them (Oliver, 1996). Thus, within the medical model, the individual’s limitations in functioning or participation in society are seen as the direct result of a medical condition (Lindsay, 2003). It has been argued that the medical model is useful: in education, to assess curriculum design; and in social policy, to aid in social security planning and compensation (Denison, 1999). It contributes to improving the health and quality of life of disabled people. Moreover, Alanazi (2012) claim that medical models tend to interpret barriers to learning as a feature of the individual child, and to compare children’s development and attainment against a series of norms, such as norms of speech, psychomotor skills and social skills.

Nevertheless, the medical model of disability has been criticised for the way in which it views disabled people or those with special needs as somehow ‘lacking’, unable to play a ‘full role’ in society (Dewsbury et al., 2004). It does not acknowledge the cultural aspects of disability and does not take into account social, environmental and economic factors affecting disability (Oliver, 1990). It is based on a medical understanding of disability in the sense that it begins from the body's systems. Lindsay (2003) pointed out that the medical model has, at least, two quite different elements. The first concerns the medical profession, rather than educationalists, effectively running the system as the key decision-makers in respect of needs and necessary intervention provisions. The second element is the focus of the medical model on the impairment as a 'within-child' factor and underplaying the impact of environmental issues. Farrell and Ainscow (2002) suggest that explaining the child's educational difficulties in terms of 'deficits' not only prevents progress in the field of special needs education, but also distracts attention from questions about why schools fail to teach so many such children successfully. Therefore, the view has moved towards the idea that, due to political factors, the education system has failed to educate all children (Ellins, 2004). Individual intervention strategies are therefore no longer seen to be the only answer. The education system needs to change. This view is allied with a social model of special needs.
Social Model of Disability
The social model of disability is a reaction to the medical model of disability. The benefit of social model is that it shifts attention away from individuals and their physical or mental deficits to the ways in which society includes or excludes them, and enables the focus to be widened from studying individuals to exposing broader social and cultural processes (Shakespeare, 2014). Within the social model, the idea is that people with disabilities are not disabled by their impairments, but rather disability is the result of the way society is organised, which disadvantages and excludes people with impairments (Armstrong et al. 2011; and Campbell & Oliver, 2013). Here, it is worth noting that the social model defines disability in terms of oppression and barriers and makes a distinction between impairment and disability. The Union of the Physically Impaired Against Segregation (UPIAS) was amongst the first to provide this distinction in its 1976 Fundamental Principle document (Shakespeare, 2014). According to this document, impairment means 'lacking or having a defect in a body part while disability is the exclusion of people from mainstream social activities by contemporary social organisation’ UPIAS, p.20). It is therefore, the society that disables people, through designing everything to meet the needs of the majority of people who are not disabled, both in terms of the physical and the attitudinal (Oliver, 1996; Brandon and Pritchard, 2011).

It is not individuals’ limitations, of whatever kind, which are the cause of the problem, but society’s failure to provide appropriate service and adequately ensure the needs of disabled people are fully taken into account in its social organisation. (Oliver, 1996:32).

Similarly, the Union of the Physically Impaired Against Segregation (UPIAS) elaborated their position on Disability:

Disability is something imposed on top of our impairment; by the way we are unnecessarily isolated and excluded from full participation in society. Disabled people are therefore an oppressed group in society (UPIAS, 1976:3).
Therefore, according to the advocates of a social model, there is a great deal that society can do to reduce some of these disabling barriers and that this task is the responsibility of society, rather than the disabled person. By drawing attention to economic, social and physical barriers, the social model leads to demands for greater accessibility and provision which is necessary to meet the needs of people with disabilities.

Although the social model has been excitedly embraced by many advocates within the literature (e.g. Oliver, 2004; Thomas 2007; Oliver and Barnes, 2012), this model has also been subject to criticism for neglecting the role of impairment. For instance, (Marks, 1997a and Shakespeare, 2006) have raised questions and suggested developments which they regard as necessary to make the model relevant to disabled people's lives. Namely, they have advocated the inclusion of discussion of impairments and personal experience within the social analysis of disability. For instance, Shakespeare (2014) indicated that even in the most accessible world practically possible, there will always be residual disadvantage attached to many impairments:

> If people suffer from fatigue, there is a limited amount that can be done to help: motivated scooters and other aids help increase the range and scope of activities, but ultimately the individuals will be disadvantaged when compared to others, (Shakespeare, 2014:p42).

In this regards Campbell & Oliver (2013) highlighted two main areas of concern within the social model. The first of these suggests that there is no place for impairment within the social model of disability. The second alleges that the social model strives to take account of difference and presents disabled people as one unitary group, whereas in reality their needs and lives, as indicated by (Shakespeare, 2014:26), are a much more complex interaction of biological, psychological, cultural and socio-political factors which cannot be extricated except with imprecision.
The social model of disability has significant implications for inclusive education; perhaps the social model could have an influence in policy formulation, particularly in developing legislation based on children’s right to inclusion and the tension inherent in implementing that right in practice. Through drawing attention to economic, social and physical barriers, the social model could lead to demands for greater accessibility and provision necessary to meet the needs of people with SEN. As Prey and Nash (2006) argue that the adoption of this model in educational settings is more useful, as it is more likely to lead to a more constructive attitude towards the difficulties the young people experience. In the UK, for example, the social model has appeared as a powerful political tool for change, not just as a part of academic literature (Koca-Atabey, 2013). However, in Jordan, the term ‘social model of disability’ is not used by academics, politicians or even disability activists (Abu-Hamour & Muhaidat, 2013). Chappell (1998) argues that children with special needs have been marginalised within the social model, suggesting that some social model arguments are ‘partial’ because they exclude the experiences of these children; the social model has not focused specifically on services or support received by individual people with special needs, but has instead concentrated on theoretical and ideological differences between the two approaches.

In summary, although each model has its contribution to the understanding of disability, no one model on its own can explain disability (Shakespeare, 1999). These two models of disability play a partial role in the understanding of disability, giving us an idea of what it means to be a disabled person (Turmusani, 2003). As such, while disability, from the social perspective, is about social issues, this does not rule out the fact that people with disability have medical needs as emphasised by the medical model. Thus the medical model retains an important place in explaining and dealing with impairment related issues at least in respect of the provision of medical needs. However, as one of the aims in this study is to address the multifaceted challenges to inclusive education in Jordan, there is a need to look at
the cultural and socio-political factors of Jordanian society, and the introduction of policies that focus on the material conditions of children with SEN and disability in terms of education and benefits issues. For this purpose, the perspective of the social model is particularly crucial also.

As such, concerning inclusive education, the medical model is not all bad nor the social model all good (Corbett, 1998). Both the medical and social models of disability can be inhumane and unacceptably detached in their most intense forms. At this point, Lindsay (2003) points out that relying on the social model alone is illogical and unhelpful; acknowledges that the needs of children with SEN must be considered with respect both to their own relative strength and weaknesses and to the nature of their environment, including the home and school, and their community. In this stance, Lindsay (2003) agrees with the view of the concept of compensatory interaction proposed by Wedell (1980).

This ‘model’ represents the two major influences of ‘within-child’ and environmental factors in the so-called ‘Interactionist’ perspective. It recognises that children’s difficulties are caused by a combination of internal factors that relate purely to the child and external factors such as levels of classroom support. Time was added as a third influence since the pattern of these interactions could change, for example with different teacher, or through the provision of and aid (Lindsay, 2003, P.5). In this model, the needs of children with SEN are considered in respect of their individual relative strengths and weaknesses. Thus, instead of seeing the medical and social models as separate and distinct, they could be viewed as interdependent and interlocking.

In inclusive educational settings, Cole (2006) emphasises that models of disabilities and SEN should concentrate on the relationship between what a child can do, and what a teacher must do to promote success for the child in that particular setting. Further, Lindsay (2003) goes on to argue that successful inclusion needs a more balanced approach;
one which acknowledges that requirements for additional support can come about through the complex interaction of diverse influences in the child, the family, the learning environment and the wider community and societal context. Consequently, I would like to suggest that the ‘Interactionist model’ (Wedell, 1980) of disability has significant implications for inclusive education. Understanding this model might offer much promise for bringing about much-needed change for children with SEN in Jordan, where the problem of disability and SEN is individual, social, religious, cultural and economic in structure.

2.7 Understanding Inclusion: Terminology and Language

When speaking of inclusion, there is no clear consensus in the field about the idea of inclusion (Armstrong et al, 2011). Some emphasise the rights of those who have been excluded by separation due to physical and/or mental disabilities, that is, children in special education (Lindsay, 2007). Others emphasise how it is the right of education for every child and the way to a democratic system of education (Karee& Jones, 2014). On the other hand, Booth (2000) views it as a process of increasing participation and decreasing exclusion from the culture, curriculum and community of mainstream. It is an attitude towards difference that is positive and celebratory rather than problem focused (Scruggs& Mastropieri, 1996; Smith& Smith 2000; and Rose 2001). However, in a summary of the common threads of inclusion definitions in key international literature Loreman, (2013, P.460) concluded that the following elements contribute to how inclusion is widely understood:

- All children attend their neighbourhood school.
- Schools and districts have a ‘zero-rejection’ policy when it comes to registering and teaching children in their region. Beyond that, all children are welcomed and valued.
- All children learn in regular, heterogeneous classrooms with same age peers.
- All children follow substantively similar programmes of study, with a curriculum that can be adapted and modified if needed.
Modes of instruction are varied and responsive to the needs of all.

- All children contribute to regular school and classroom-learning activities and events.
- All children are supported to make friends and be socially successful with their peers.
- Adequate resources and staff training are provided within the school and district to support inclusion.

Inclusion (in terms of terminology and language) could allow therefore, for different perceptions and purposes within the context of education. The major language of inclusion, in general, is to move towards the inclusion of children with special education needs in ordinary schools, to be educated with their peers in the same physical location. Yet, the key questions raised by the concept of inclusion are not definitional but are rather questions of practical political power which can only be meaningfully analysed with reference to the wider social relations of our increasingly globalised world (Armstrong et al, 2011, p.29).

Consequently, it is not possible to provide a single perspective or understanding on inclusion, believing that as will be discussed later in this chapter, there is a division in the development of the understanding of these issues worldwide within the context of each individual country, including Jordan.

2.7.1 The Notion of Inclusion and Segregation

As indicated earlier, attitudes towards special needs and disability, have slowly changed, generally towards the positive. The educational segregation, established as a separate system and school provision, could no longer be justified from either a research or rights perspectives (Frederickson & Cline, 2002). This change has led to strong movements away from placement in segregated settings for children with SEN towards greater inclusion in ordinary schools (Avramidis, 2000) were special schools are no longer seen as necessarily the best answer (Ellins, 2004).
Segregation however, in this context describes the type of arrangement and educational provision in which children with SEN and disabilities receive their education and training in separate environments. Avramidis (2000) argue that a place in special classes or unit in an ordinary school is never described as segregated placements. In the light of this point, some models or supporting strategies focused on SEN children’s needs are falling within the meaning of inclusion. For example, as it’s with the educational system in Jordan, withdrawing a child with SEN from ordinary class to benefit from special instruction in special units/ resources room, then to interact with peers in regular classes is a kind of inclusion. Likewise, the arrangements of withdrawing a group of children in separate classes according to special programmes in ordinary school will describe as inclusion.

According to this framework, the notion of inclusion and segregation in the educational context are taken to be related to whether or not children with particular disabilities are grouped or kept in individual isolation, not whether children with particular disabilities are segregated from non-disabled peers (Avramidis, 2000). In contrast, Ferrante (2012) assumes that we cannot talk about equity when we are sending children with SEN to separate educational settings; he argues that resource rooms and learning zones are all questionable in terms of whether these settings give children with SEN the opportunities for the full development of the necessary skills needed for life. However, as Dyson (2001) in an earlier study explained, we can respond to their needs and differences by placing them in different teaching groups, offering them variations on the common curriculum, and developing individual teaching programmes. These choices, in essence, need to be dynamic, flexible and influenced by inclusive intent. As such, it may not be in the children’s interest if supporters of inclusion think of their rights to be only in the ordinary classroom without thinking of the support structures that should be available to according to their needs.
2.7.2 Inclusion versus Integration

The terms ‘integration’ and ‘inclusion’ have been defined and used in several ways in recent years. However, while ‘integration’ was the main issue on the agenda until the end of the 1980s, ‘inclusion’ captured the field during the 1990s and has replaced integration in academic discussion and articles (Booth, 1996). The perception that education should be provided to all children regardless of their needs has led to the philosophy of inclusive education, this reflects the response of many countries to the Salamanca statement of inclusion adopted by UNESCO (2014). For instance in the UK, integration has been the first step towards inclusion but over time integration has not been enough because the school, the curriculum and the teaching and learning strategies and resources did not change to accommodate the new kind of children, so that by the 1990s the emphasis was shifted onto inclusion (Alanazi, 2012).

Although some argue that the terms ‘integration’ and ‘inclusion’ are synonyms (Thomas, 1998), the shift in focus within education process from the needs of individual pupils to an approach which focuses on the skills and resources available in ordinary schools is an important difference between the two concepts. Ainscow (1995) distinguished between the two terms, suggesting that, while integration is about making a limited number of additional arrangements for individual pupils with SEN in schools, inclusion is a process demanding a more radical set of changes through which schools restructure themselves, adapting curricula, methods, materials and procedures so as to be able to embrace all children. Similarly, Dixon (2005) makes a useful distinction between integration and inclusion; integration means placing the child in a mainstream setting and expecting him to adapt as best he can, while inclusion means placing the child in a mainstream setting and instigating a process of change at institutional and individual level that will enable him to participate as fully as possible.
On the other hand, in a review of many different definitions of inclusion and integration, Avramidis (2001) concluded that the language used to define and distinguish them is slippery, puzzling, problematic, incompatible and sometimes confused (Dyson and Millward, 2000). It is thus unsurprising that the two terms are often used interchangeably (Avramidis & Norwich, 2002) in different contexts, partially because of the difficulty in distinguishing between them. This is particularly true in Arab countries, e.g. Egypt, Saudi Arabia (Alanazi, 2012; and AlShahrani, 2014) and Jordan (Al Khatib, 2007). For instance, the terms ‘inclusion’, ‘integration’, which are often used interchangeably in Jordanian policy documents and research has remained unchanged, where the single Arabic term ‘damg’ is used to translate them both.

Al Khatib (2007) makes the point that the movement towards inclusion in Jordan has not been supported by serious efforts to restructure ordinary education. Resource rooms teachers have been assigned the sole responsibility of supporting children with special needs. Ordinary classroom teachers, on the other hand, have not been involved in addressing the needs of included children. ‘Inclusion’ in this context, does not allow for differentiation in the classroom because, as Dyson (2001) explained, learners are different and therefore, children with SEN require distinct learning styles and teaching programmes that fit their needs in educational and social contexts. Furthering of inclusion therefore, demands a clear reference that put it in a position away from as being described as an “Internal exclusion” (Hodkinson, 2010) when, despite a child with SEN entry to an ordinary school, it goes hand in hand with ‘exclusion’ within the school when their needs have not yet been met. This suggests that the language of special education needs and inclusive education is obscure, and requires a more clarified definition to increase understanding of the complex terms.

2.7.3 Inclusion as a Human Right and Removing Barriers
Internationally, with a movement towards more inclusive culture, the expectation that all children will have substantive opportunities to learn can be stated to be motivated by human rights concerns (Hardy &
Woodcock, 2015). The UNESCO (1994) Salamanca Statement noting that inclusive education systems provide

“The most effective means of combating discriminatory attitudes, creating welcoming communities, building an inclusive society and achieving education for all; moreover, they provide an effective education to the majority of children and improve the efficiency and ultimately the cost-effectiveness of the entire education system” (UNESCO 1994. 9)

The first statement in the Salamanca Statement, paragraph 2, is also a key comment on children’s right to inclusion: “Every child has a fundamental right to education, and must be given the opportunity to achieve and maintain an acceptable level of learning”. The Salamanca statement, therefore, in this declaration, make a plain statement concerning children’s rights to education: there should not be a range of placements, but rather all students should be educated with their peers in the same physical environment. This suggests that education systems must become inclusive by catering for diversity and special needs, thus creating opportunities for genuine equalisation of opportunity (Armstrong, 2005). As such, Governments have been asked to improve their education systems as a priority by adopting laws and policies which support the principles of inclusivity.

The UN Convention on the Rights of People with Disabilities (Article 24) called for signatory countries to ensure that all children had access to free and inclusive, primary and secondary schooling (United Nations 2006). Based on these international frameworks, inclusion has received clear attention across many countries around the world. However, the subsequent UNESCO Policy Guidelines on Inclusion in Education (2009) makes the case that not only should children be included in ordinary schools, but that schools need to operate as inclusive spaces to adequately support all children’s needs. Ainscow (1997) argues that once the philosophical commitment to inclusion is put into practice with the end goal being social justice for all, it can have a positive impact on the experience of children and other key stakeholders; then any problems or threats that arise while implementing inclusion will find solutions through experiment and development.
Inclusion has therefore come to mean that schools should concern themselves with increasing the participation and broad educational achievements of all groups of learners who have historically been marginalised (Ainscow, Booth, and Dyson, 2006). Thus, there has been increased attention to the rights of children with special needs to be active members in their communities and to the importance of their participation and their quality of life. The social dimension has been seen as one of the elements of inclusive education: The active involvement of pupils with SEN is seen to be essential in this reform. In this way, inclusion is based more on the social model of disability insofar as it is concerned with ways in which the social and educational environment can be modified to enable pupils to participate fully in the life of the school and of society.

2.7.4 Critical Issues with Regard to the Internationalisation of Inclusion

Armstrong (2005) raises an interesting and critical issue with regard to the internationalisation of inclusion in which he explains how inclusive education, as a concept and idea, has its roots in the so-called developed and developing countries. To highlight this point, I will refer to the Armstrong’s (2005) article as a central reference for this section.

Armstrong (2005) argues that inclusive education is increasingly becoming a significant policy agenda in developing as well as in developed countries. Yet, the reality is that the idea of ‘inclusion’ is a doctrine that has been exported from the developed countries of the North and thrust upon education systems in developing countries of the South.

In the developed world, the idea of inclusive education has been significantly driven by the disability movement that advanced a model of ‘inclusive education’ that is linked to a broader campaign for social justice and human rights. He points out that even in the developed countries where it was born, inclusion as an idea is debated and
interlinked with relations of power and as a practice it is not always successful. In many ways, its original humanitarian aims:

"Have largely been lost within the technical approaches to inclusive education that frame policy applications in the narrower terms of 'school improvement', diversity of provision for different needs and academic achievement” (Armstrong, 2005, p3).

Whilst, in the developing world, he argues, 'inclusive education has quite different meanings and its history is often unrelated to arguments about social justice but a strategy, which, if implemented, is assumed to require fewer resources. Inclusion in developing counties, Armstrong (2005) claims, is bound to be complicated and not straightforward. One major factor that has been widely neglected is the fact that different countries have different cultures and thus, assign different meanings to the concept of inclusion. He claims that differences in meaning need to be acknowledged and clarified if educational inclusion is to be successful in non-Western cultures. Therefore, Armstrong (2005) asserts that the exportation of inclusion in countries outside the West needs to be understood in terms of history, cultural differences and economic context of the countries, as he states:

"To appreciate this, a discussion of 'inclusion' must be made concrete and understood in terms of both the cultural differences and their intersection with the colonial history and post-colonial contexts of countries in the developing world, which include the technological advances of the 21st century, the globalisation of economic markets and the penetration of 'first world' knowledge and policy solutions into the developing world (Armstrong, 2005, p4).

However, Armstrong (2005) does make valid points in regards to culture and the different meanings of the concept 'inclusion' to developing countries. This issue is important to consider when conducting any research with concepts and terms originally derived from a different context. For example, Sharma, et al., (2006) review of teachers’ attitudes towards inclusion reported more positive sentiments and attitudes by teachers in the western countries than those found in the east. These findings raise a critical point when studying inclusive education within eastern societies. Hence, different context, as
indicated by Armstrong (2005) have an impact upon the idea and practice of inclusive education in developing countries practice, including Jordan, where the terms that the teachers were using to refer to and describe people with disabilities and inclusion were very different from Western ways of referring to them.

As such, Armstrong (2005) argues that when it comes to implementing inclusive education, there are diverse implications for different parts of the world, particularly between Western, or developed, and developing countries. Singal (2008) has highlighted that legislation related to inclusive education implemented by Western countries has changed school policies, improved teacher training and enhanced parental involvement. Moreover, it has resulted in making schools supportive and stimulating for diverse groups of students, in creating communities which encourage and celebrate student diversity and in supporting achievement (Srivastava et al., 2015).

In the developing world however, there has been a different pace of implementation concerning inclusive education; certain countries are revising educational polices based on international statements, while others are at the stage of formulating such polices; and still others expect non-governmental organisations to take the lead (Srivastava et al., 2015). Several studies in developing countries have highlighted that the majority of disabled children in some developing countries do not attend school (Singal, 2004); inclusive education in some others is primarily understood as being about disabled children and that these children are the sole responsibility of specialist teachers (Miles and Singal, 2008); inclusive education in some others (e.g. Middle East countries) is seen as mostly beneficial to children with special needs, not to other children (AlShahrani, 2014); and that the economic, social and cultural of individual countries could affect the ability of children with disabilities to access education (Singalet al., 2011). Moreover, research addressing the issue of disabilities and inclusion in developing countries is limited and tends to focus on its prevalence (Singal, 2010),
which leads to a gap in our knowledge regarding the situation of inclusion in these countries.

In a recent study reviewing the research of inclusive education in developing countries in the last 10 Years, Srivastava et al, (2015:190) conclude that the position of children with disabilities in educational policies and legislation in developing countries has become more visible. Yet, the situation of inclusive education in developing countries is not based solely on Western perspectives where in many developing countries the implementation of inclusive education is basically undertaken by non-governmental organisations instead of a country’s government. The study clearly indicates that there is insufficient empirical evidence on the effects of projects under the aegis of international organisations. It is alarming that governments and other organisations proceed in developing or implementing inclusive education without actual knowledge on possible outcomes. Srivastava et al, (2015) also conclude that the role of governments in developing countries seems to be limited to the formulation of or adaptation of education policies with little or no translation into genuine implementation or practice.

In a summary to the background of the debate over inclusion presented earlier, there is a lack of consistency and understanding of the complex and controversial nature of inclusion. The notion of special needs and inclusion debates has accumulated diverse meanings and perspectives. Although these perspectives express a widespread support for inclusion, there are concerns that it is difficult to implement. Schools are still expecting children to fit into the established system rather than altering systems to be more inclusive. The concern, as Black-Hawkins et al., (2007) indicate, is not only about access to schooling, but also about ensuring meaningful participation in a system in which achievement and success are available to all.
2.8 Factors Influencing Teachers’ Attitudes to Inclusion

Research suggests that teachers’ attitudes are affected by a unique and dynamic interaction between the child, teacher and organisation; as one cannot exist or function without the other factors (Artiles and Dyson, 2005). These factors, as termed by Avramidis (2001) are: "Teacher-related" variables, "Child-related" variables and "Educational-environment related variables which also been found to influence attitudes. I will now discuss the important of each in turn.

2.8.1 Teachers’- Related Variables

A great deal of research regarding teacher characteristics has sought to determine the relationship between those characteristics and attitudes toward children with special needs. Researchers e.g. Leyser et al., (1994) explored a host of several variables associated with teacher attitudes, these were: Training in special education, gender, age and teaching experience and experience with individuals with disabilities.

Pre-and in-Service Training

One of the factors that has attracted considerable attention is the knowledge about children with SEN gained through formal studies or during in-service training (Avramidis, 2001). This was considered an important factor in improving teachers' attitudes positively towards inclusive education. The importance of training on teachers’ attitudes has been supported by several studies. For instance, a study by Van Reusen, Shoho and Barker (2001) conducted with 125 high school teachers concluded that respondents with more negative attitudes towards inclusion were those who had little training in special education. Likewise, a study by Sari (2007) indicated that the more knowledge teachers had about children with a certain kind of disability, the more positive their attitude was towards them, indicating that in-service teacher training increases the knowledge level among teachers and leads to positive attitude changes among teachers towards the inclusion of children. Findings from two Jordanian studies (Al-Zyoudi, 2006; and Al Khatib, 2007) about teachers attitudes towards inclusion
in Jordanian ordinary school show that teachers who had been trained to teach children with learning difficulties expressed more favourable attitudes towards children with SEN and their inclusion than did those who had no such training. They conclude that professional training and knowledge about children with special education needs were important factors in improving teachers’ attitudes towards inclusion.

Moreover, several other studies tend to reinforce the view that special education qualifications acquired from formal courses or studies were associated with more positive attitude to inclusive practices (Clough & Lindsay, 1991; Dickens and Denziloe, 2004; Ellins, 2004; and Avramidis and Kalyva, 2007). For instance, Ellins (2004) in a case study of ordinary teachers’ attitude toward inclusion in one school, found that teachers with no SEN training had the least positive scores and those with most training had the most positive scores. Interestingly, Ellin’s (2004) findings show that the qualifications that the teachers possessed presented a different picture. Teachers with a certificate or first degree in education had the most positive attitudes. If the first degree was subject based with a post-graduate certificate of education then attitudes were less positive. Those with a higher qualification, usually subject-based, had the least positive attitudes. Ellins (2004) concludes that although more SEN training is linked with positive attitudes, more training, per se, is not. This could be linked to the effectiveness of SEN training in raising the confidence of teachers to cope with children with SEN.

In brief, teacher training has been shown to promote positive attitudes towards children with SEN and teachers’ positive attitudes have been shown to influence inclusion. For teachers and children to be successful, teachers need on-going professional development. Strieker, et al., (2013), in a three-year study in six schools in the USA found that teachers’ professional development regarding the inclusion of children with disabilities led to increasing in their participation in academic inclusive classrooms. They concluded that for teachers to be effective, and for students to be successful, classroom teachers need
on-going professional development and active support from school administrators as well as their peers.

**Age - Teaching experiences**
Alongside teachers’ professional development, other variables, such as age, teaching experience with inclusive education and familiarity with children with SEN were seen as relevant to shaping teachers’ attitudes towards inclusion. Several studies (e.g. Clough & Lindsay, 1991; Leyser, Kappermean and Keller, 1994) show age to have an influence on teachers' attitudes; younger teachers and those with fewer years of experience have been found to be more supportive to inclusion. Forlin's (1995) study, for example, showed that acceptance of a 'child with a physical disability was highest among educators with less than six years of teaching and declined with experience for those with 6-10 years of teaching. The most experienced educators (greater than 11 years of teaching) were the least accepting. Similarly, Leyser, Kappermean and Keller (1994) also found that generally teachers with 14 years or less teaching experience had a significantly higher positive score in their attitude to inclusion compared with those with more than 14 years. This is an indication from these studies that younger teachers were more supportive to inclusive education.

Teaching experiences was also a matter of interest for educational researchers. Numerous studies (e.g. Glaubman and Lifshitz, 2001; Opdal, and Habayeb, 2001; Al-Khatteeb, 2002; Alghazo and Gaad, 2004; Avramidis and Kalyva, 2007; Khochen and Radford, 2012) revealed that teachers with experience held significantly more positive attitudes towards inclusive education than teachers with little or no experience. In a recent study, Boar et al., (2011) reviewed 26 studies concerning teachers’ attitudes. Their findings show that teachers with experience in inclusive education hold more positive attitudes than those with less experience. Avramidis and Norwich (2002) cite numerous studies in the USA, Australia and the UK which found that the more experience teachers had with pupils with disabilities, the more positive were their attitudes towards inclusion. A similar pattern
in Jordan, a study by Al-Zyoudi (2006) indicated that teaching experience with children with special needs influenced participants’ opinions about inclusion. Al-Zyoudi (2006) concluded that those teachers who had experience with children with SEN and other physical disabilities were most supportive of the idea of including children with the same disabilities. Alanazi (2012) have drawn attention to the importance of the understanding of, and contact with, children with SEN, which in her view, allays fears about them and enables teachers to know what they need to do in the classroom. These studies, in general, give an indication that teachers with longer experiences with children with SEN were more supportive to inclusive education than those with fewer years’ experiences,

Gender
With regard to gender, the evidence appears inconsistent; some researchers found gender differences in teacher’s attitudes towards inclusion. Researchers (e.g. Leyser, Kapperman and Keller, 1994; Avramidis et al, 2001; Avramidis and Norwich, 2002; and Gaad et al, 2004) found that female teachers had a greater tolerance level for inclusion and for special needs persons than did male teachers. Gaad et al, (2004), for example, found that female teachers in the United Arab Emirates (UAE) tend to have more positive attitudes towards inclusion than male teachers. She attributed that female teachers used relatively more sensitive, positive and culturally appropriate terms and references more than male teachers. On the other hand, Almotairi’s (2013) findings of teacher’s attitudes to inclusion in Kuwait show that there were gender differences in teacher’s attitudes. Although, both genders had strong proponents of inclusion male teachers were more positive than female teachers towards teaching pupils with SEN in ordinary classrooms. However, others (e.g. Leyser, Kapperman and Keller, 1994; Ellins, 2004; and Gyimah, 2006) did not report that gender was related to attitudes and therefore, no difference was found between male and female teachers in their studies.
Teachers’ beliefs and cultural context

Teachers’ beliefs regarding teaching SEN children and their positive attitudes are argued as playing a significant role in implementing educational change towards successful inclusion productively (Boar et al., 2011). This, according to Hodkinson (2010), is dependent firstly upon teachers’ attitudes to its implementation, and secondly upon their competency to deliver this important initiative. Thus, if teachers are willing to support the children even in small steps, some improvements can be made. But if they are not, it would rather be a draw back to their development. Radtake (2003) claim that inclusion is not always easy to achieve; when teachers adopt a negative attitude towards inclusive education and do not believe in the effectiveness of inclusive methods, then the implementation of inclusive practices might not be effective.

In a study exploring the beliefs of teachers in the USA about the education of children with SEN and disability, Lalvani (2013) found that some teachers did not focus on the impact of impairments, but instead considered issues of segregation education as an option related to their learning. Lalvani (2013) reasoned that teachers’ lack of experience or knowledge caused issues when educating children with SEN. There is an emphasis that teachers need to reflect on their pedagogical approaches rather than locating the source of the difficulty within the child Glazzard (2011). Thus, specialist teachers and a commitment to inclusion are essential if children with special educational needs are to succeed.

Moreover, factors including cultural and religious differences (Florien and Katz, 1983; Leyser, 1994; Gaad, 2001) as indicated earlier were also found to be linked to the formation of teachers’ attitudes towards inclusion. For instance, Florien and Katz (1983), in their study of the impact of cultural and ethnic variables on attitudes towards disabilities in Israel, found different attitudes among teachers towards disabilities, some of which, they concluded, was due to cultural, ethnic and religious norms. Similarly, Gaad (2001) found a set of cultural beliefs
and values lay behind some teachers’ attitudes towards inclusion in the UAE. She concludes that teachers’ attitudes vary not only according to the precise nature of the disability but also according to cultural values and living environment. These findings therefore raise an important question about the importance of cultural and social differences when attempting to understand attitudes towards inclusion. (Karni et al., 2011) claim that cultural context is indeed a significant variable often ignored by researchers in the area of attitudes towards inclusion. Therefore, further studies on the issue of inclusion, particularly in Jordan, should relate to these variables if more understanding of inclusive education is to be drawn for better practice in the future.

2.8.2 Child-Related Variables: Type of Special Needs and Disability

Several studies have been concerned with determining teachers’ attitudes towards different categories of children with SEN and their perceived suitability for inclusion. Generally, teachers’ perceptions towards SEN and disability could be differentiated on the basis of physical, cognitive, and behavioural emotional diminutions (Avramidis, 2001). In many cases, a positive attitude towards inclusion depends on the severity and type of disability that the child has.

The physical and cognitive dimensions

The research of Ward et al (1994) assessed teacher attitudes towards inclusion of children with educational difficulties. Their findings show that teachers in their study had a little disagreement about the inclusion of children with SEN perceived as having mild difficulties since they are not likely to require extra instructional or management skills from the teacher. Included in this group of children were those with mild physical and visual disabilities and mild hearing loss. Concerning children with mild–to moderate intellectual disability, moderate hearing loss and visual disability, there was a common uncertainty about the suitability of including these children, they regarded as too challenging, demanding extra teaching competencies from teachers and were
considered to have a relatively poor chance of being successfully included,

The study of Forlin (1995), which explores the attitudes of educators in Western Australia, has similar findings. The majority of teachers in his study believed that children with mild physical disability should be included into ordinary classes, and only a small number of teachers considered full-time placement of children with severe physical disability as acceptable. Forlin (1995) noted that teachers were cautiously somewhat accepting of including a child with a cognitive disability and were more accepting of children with physical disabilities. The degree of acceptance was high for children considered having mild or moderate SEN. Consequently, as Forlin (1995) concludes, the degree of acceptance by teachers for the placement of children with SEN in ordinary classes declined rapidly with a converse increase in the severity of the disability across both physical and cognitive categories.

**Behavioural and emotional dimensions**

Avramidis et al., (2000) showed that pupils with emotional and behavioural difficulties are seen as causing significantly more concern to teachers than pupils with other types of disability. Similarly, Cook (2001), in a study comparing teachers’ attitudes towards pupils with mild and severe disabilities, he pointed that children with specific learning disabilities such as Attention Deficient Hyperactivity Disorder (ADHD) or behavioural disorders often saw less acceptance from teachers than those with easy-to-notice disabilities (e.g. cognitive, orthopaedic, hearing or visual impairments). Cooper’s (2005) study attributed that children with ADHD often experience difficulties in ordinary classrooms and schools because the emphasis on meeting common needs means that their specific group needs are not addressed. On the other hand, Ghanizadeh et al, (2006) claim that the more knowledge teachers had about children with ADHD, the more positive their attitude was towards the inclusion of children with this type of special needs. In this regard, Hodkinson (2006) urge the needs for increasing teachers knowledge concerning the needs of these
children to have more positive attitudes towards meeting their needs, and to avoid poor implementation to inclusion also.

A similar pattern of perceptions towards children with SEN and disability were also found in the Middle East region. For instance, Alghazo and Gaad's (2004) study of teachers' attitude in the UAE show that teachers were most positive towards children with physical disabilities, children with specific learning difficulties and visually impaired children, and most negative about the inclusion of children with intellectual impairment and behavioural difficulties, though in this study the teachers were also negative about pupils with hearing impairment. This seems to be a tendency also in Jordanian studies (AL-khatteeb, 2002; Al-Rossan, 2003; Al-Khatteeb, 2004). They show that acceptance of inclusion was lower for children with an intellectual disability than children with a physical disability. A study by Al-Zyoudi (2006) for example, indicates a greater willingness among participants' teachers in Jordan to include children with certain types of disabilities such as physical disabilities rather than children with mental disability that affect reading, writing and often experience behavioural problems.

In summary, teachers would seem to support inclusion if it relates to children with mild mobility or sensory difficulties. However, some teachers do not have the same inclusive vision in relation to children who exhibit more challenging behavioural difficulties.

2.8.3 Educational Environment-Related Variables

Physical and human supports (Janney et al, 1995) were shown to be an important factor for successful inclusion and generating positive attitudes amongst ordinary teachers towards the inclusion of children with SEN. In a study of teachers’ attitudes towards inclusive education in six nations, Leyser et al., (1994) observed that the effective implementation of inclusive education in schools depends on a number of factors. Among these often are the adequate preparation and updating of teachers’ training, strong commitment and support by
administrators and the availability of support at the classroom and school level. Similarly, Avramidis, Bayliss and Burden (2000), in their study of teachers’ attitudes towards inclusion, noted that around (65 per cent) of the sample reported the need for physical reconstructing of the school to accommodate the needs of children with physical disabilities. They conclude that teachers are positive and more likely to be actively involved when they have sufficient support and adequate resources. Likewise, Janney et al. (1995) found that the majority of participant teachers in their study became receptive towards children after having received necessary and sufficient support. Respondents acknowledged that support received from the relevant authorities was instrumental in allaying their apprehension that inclusion would result in extraordinary workloads.

However, regarding human support, researchers (e.g. Ward and Center, 1987; Janney et al., 1995; Chazan, 1994; and Praisner, 2003) mentioned two types as being instrumental in the creation of positive attitudes to inclusion: Support from headteachers and support from specialist resource teachers. Chazan (1994), in his review of relevant literature, found that ordinary teachers have a greater tolerance of inclusion if headteachers are supportive. At this point, Praisner (2003) looks at the effects of attitudes among school head teachers towards educational inclusion and the impact of these attitudes on the success or failure of the initiative. Of the 408 elementary school headteachers surveyed, only 20% had a positive attitude to inclusion while the overwhelming majority remained uncertain of its benefits. Praisner (2003) concluded that positive attitudes led to a less restrictive learning environment. His findings also revealed that attitudes towards inclusion were very much affected by the nature of the disability. These findings give an indication that providing head teachers with some form of support inclusion programme is critical to exhibit a more positive attitude towards children with SEN and inclusion.

Support from SEN teachers is crucial for inclusive educational practices also; they are important co-workers in providing advice to subject
specialist teachers on how to make a particular subject accessible to children with SEN (Clough and Lindsay 1991). Janney’s (1995) study found that one of the factors cited by their respondents that had contributed to the success of their inclusion programme was in part a consequence of effective support, interpersonal and task-related, provided by the school’s special education teachers.

One of the barriers to inclusive education in many countries in the Middle East region, including Jordan is the lack of human and physical resources, which was regarded in many studies as an important factor in shaping teachers’ attitudes to inclusion. In Lebanon, for example, Khochen and Radford’s (2012) study shows that most ordinary schools did not provide an accessible environment for all learners, nor did they have the required resources to meet the various educational needs. All interviewees in their study mentioned a lack of finances, human resources, training and educational resources as the major obstacles and challenges to better inclusive practices in Lebanon, which influenced teachers’ perceptions negatively towards inclusion. A similar finding reported in Jordan also, a study by Al-Zyoudi (2006) indicated that Jordanian teachers' opinions on inclusion varied from one school to another; the acceptance of inclusion increased as school buildings were made accessible to students with special needs. All participants who had these facilities in their schools were more positive towards inclusion than other teachers. This indicates that the availability of physical support like making buildings accessible and providing adequate and appropriate equipment and materials is instrumental in the development of positive attitude towards children with SEN and inclusion.

In summary, as far as research and literature report the issue of resources is a matter of concern. There is no doubt that given adequate resources, schools should be able to help more children to be more successful in general education settings. Successful inclusion depends on resources, both human and physical, but also on their successful implementation; attitudes and resources are inextricably
linked in the implementation of inclusion (Boyle and Lauchlan, 2010). If a teacher, for example, has negative attitudes to inclusion the resourcing may not be as effective. On the other hand, poor resourcing might be supplemented to some extent by positive attitudes. It is therefore, fundamental to take account of the attitudes of teachers since a negative attitude would constitute a significant barrier to implementation.

2.9 Studies of Teachers’ Attitudes towards Inclusive Education

2.9.1 International Studies of Attitudes toward Inclusion

Much of the research prior to 1995 suggests that teachers’ views on inclusion had not necessarily become more positive at that time (Scruggs and Mastropieri 1996). This conclusion resulted from the meta-analysis on twenty-eight investigations into teacher attitudes to inclusion in a number of countries, published between 1958 and 1995. Little variation was found between the countries. This lack of change towards the more positive, they felt, suggested that teachers viewed children with disabilities in terms of additional work and problems for the teachers rather than from the viewpoint of the social and academic benefits for the children.

The widespread movement towards inclusive education witnessed several studies involving teachers’ attitudes towards the inclusion of children with SEN and disability. For instance, in a recent meta-analysis of teachers’ attitudes towards inclusion, Boer et al., (2011) reviewed 26 studies in a number of countries, published between 1999 and 2008. Their findings show that the majority of teachers held neutral or negative attitudes towards the inclusion of children with special needs in ordinary primary education. No studies reported clear positive results. Several variables in this meta-analysis were found which relate to teachers’ attitudes, such as training, experience with inclusive education and pupils’ type of disability.
Another cross-cultural study by Leyser et al., (1994) of teachers’ attitudes towards inclusion in six nations – the USA, Germany, Israel, Ghana, Taiwan and the Philippines – showed that there were differences in attitudes towards inclusion according to the national context. This however, supports Armstrong’s (2005) idea that inclusion must be understood in term of differences of the cultural context of countries. Leyser et al., (1994) found that teachers in the USA and Germany had the most positive attitudes. Teachers' attitudes in the other nations represented mainly a neutral disposition towards inclusion. The most negative attitudes were registered amongst Israeli educators. The authors also reasoned the variation to several variables associated with attitudes, such as training in the special education field, grade level of teaching, teachers' ages, teaching experiences and experiences with pupils with SEN.

Several studies have also concluded that the degree to which inclusion is successful depends largely on the attitudes and willingness of educators at the school level to welcome and involve children with SEN and disabilities in their classrooms in a meaningful way (Avramidis, 2000; Avramidis and Norwich, 2002; Algazo and Gaad, 2004; Al-Zyoudi, 2006; AL Khatib and AL Khatib, 2008; Hamidi et al, 2012; de Boer et al, 2011; ALanazi, 2012; ALmotairi, 2013). The most consistent finding across these studies is that teachers’ willingness to implement inclusion was directly correlated with the severity of the disability and the intensity of the inclusion effort to be implemented; teachers' experiences and educational environment, such as the availability of physical and human support, as indicated earlier, were also consistently found to be associated with attitudes to inclusion. In earlier, and even recent studies (e.g. Leyser et al., 1994; Scruggs and Mastropieri, 1996; de Boer et al, 2011) teachers’ attitudes seem most favourable towards the inclusion of children with learning disabilities and least favourable towards the inclusion of children with severe or mental disabilities or those with emotional and behavioural difficulties. This suggests that teachers, who are in a prime position to interact
with the classroom reality, are often not prepared to meet the needs of children with significant disabilities.

In the UK, for example, research studies suggest that while a majority of teachers support inclusive education they do so with reservation (Scruggs & Mastropieri, 1996; Croll & Moses, 2000; Hodkinson, 2005). Teachers will support inclusion if it relates to children with mild mobility or sensory difficulties (Corbett, 2001). However, some teachers do not have the same inclusive vision in relation to children who exhibit extreme behavioural difficulties (Hodkinson, 2005). Research suggests that, for these children, teachers believe that exclusion would be necessary on practical grounds (Corbett, 2001; Hodkinson, 2006). It would seem that if schools are to become inclusive, then it is crucial that they are enabled to develop an ethos that not only enables all children to be supported but also provides for the needs of teachers (Hanko, 2003). Moreover, in a survey carried out in Local Education Authorities in the south-west of England about mainstream teachers' attitudes towards inclusion, Avramidis (2002) noted that teachers who had been implementing inclusive programmes, and, therefore, have active experience of inclusion, possessed more positive attitudes. Avramidis's (2002) findings also showed the importance of professional development in the formation of positive attitudes towards inclusion. Carroll, et al (2003) suggest that changing attitudes towards people with disabilities require both; information about these disabilities and experience with people with SEN and disabilities.

The increased interest of social inclusion and inclusive education in some countries might play a role in promoting teachers attitudes towards children with SEN and disability. For instance, in an old but relevant cross-national UNICCO study, Bowman (1986) surveyed 14 nations (Egypt, Jordan, Colombia, Mexico, Venezuela, Botswana, Senegal, Zambia, Australia, Thailand, Czechoslovakia, Italy, Norway and Portugal), involving approximately 1,000 teachers with experience of teaching children with SEN. A wide difference was found in teachers' attitudes towards Inclusion. Bowman (1986) noted that, in countries
with laws requiring inclusion, teachers expressed more favourable views towards children with SEN and that teachers from countries offering a form of segregated educational provision were less supportive of inclusion. Bowman (1986) also found that a variety of responses towards children with SEN related to the form of disability; approximately a quarter of teachers felt that children with sensory impairments could be taught in mainstream classrooms, while less than 10 per cent held this view for children with severe intellectual impairment and multiple disabilities, and medical and physical conditions were seen as most easy to manage.

It might conclude that examining teachers’ attitudes towards inclusion are inconclusive and provide a mixed picture. Several studies have tried to establish what attitude teachers hold towards inclusive education. Some of these stated that teachers are positive towards the general philosophy of inclusive education (Avramidis, Bayliss, and Burden, 2000; Avramidis and Norwich 2002; Marshall, Ralph, and Palmer 2002). Others see that teachers have reservation about its practice (Florian 1998; Kauffman, 1993; Huang, Pearman, and Mellblom 1997; Ring 2005). Although inclusive education is not the norm internationally, many countries e.g. Middle East countries, including Jordan are grappling with attempts to achieve this ideal. Yet, cultural differences may reduce the relevance of the findings to these countries. In general, literature show that, while teachers accepted the notion of inclusion, they displayed attitudes towards inclusion which were strongly influenced by the nature of disabilities, particularly more severe intellectual disabilities or emotional and behavioural difficulties.

2.9.2 Middle Eastern Studies of Inclusive Education

In the Middle East, the drive towards inclusive practices in ordinary schools is at a relatively early stage (Maha and Radford, 2010). However, despite the growing interest in inclusive education and SEN in the Middle East, research literature on teachers’ attitudes toward the inclusion of children with special needs points out that teachers often
hold negative attitudes towards these children and their inclusion, partly because they lack knowledge and awareness about inclusion and children with SEN needs (Weber, 2012). Therefore, most of this literature recommends that regular classroom teachers should receive training on how to teach these children in regular classrooms (Alsartawi, 1995; Alkhashrami, 1995; Al Ghazo and Gaad 2004; Gaad, 2011). For instance, Alsaratwy (1995) investigated the attitudes of teachers and student-teachers in Saudi Arabia, findings from his study shows that teachers tend to have negative attitudes towards inclusion. Alsaratwy (1995) also concluded that teachers’ attitude varied and depending on their experience and knowledge of SEN.

In a study investigating Kuwaiti teachers’ attitudes towards inclusion, Almotairi (2013) findings show that teachers overall, were quite negative about the concept. Of those who were negative towards inclusion, criticisms were mostly based on the idea that while there were likely to be social benefits of inclusion, these benefits were not significant enough regarding the academic achievement of these children. Similarly, Gaad’s (2004) survey of United Arab Emirates (UAE) teachers revealed that most ordinary teachers hold negative attitudes towards inclusion of children with SEN disabilities in the ordinary classroom. Gaad (2004) attributed that to the teachers’ lack of knowledge about the needs of these children. In contrast, Anati (2013) in her recent study of teachers’ perception towards inclusive education in the UAE, her findings indicate to changes in teachers attitudes were teachers in general, agree with the idea of inclusive education as it reserves the right of education for all learners regardless of their disabilities. This study described the shift in the attitudes towards SEN and inclusion to more positive values and more understanding as a social right in this country. Nevertheless, this study indicated that these teachers were uncomfortable to teach in an inclusive setting as they did not possess solid knowledge and expertise in the field of inclusive education. Teachers in Anati’s (2013) study reported that there is a lack of systematic procedure to plan, instruct, assess the learning-teaching process in the inclusive schools, even at
the level of senior-level administrators there is a lack of confidence to proceed on and follow up issues related to inclusion.

Few other studies also reported that teachers in the Middle East are positive towards the general philosophy of inclusive education (Abduljabbar and Masoud, 2002; Al-Faiz, 2006; Al Zyoudi; 2006) and vary among educators, (Alsraratwy, 1995). Yet, these studies suggest that inclusive education in the region faces a key challenge; which is preparing a teaching force that can work in such a system. For example, a study by Kustantini (1999) in Lebanon, which in general have a similar education system to Jordan (Amr, 2011), shows that teachers were positive towards inclusive education. Nevertheless, they lack adequate knowledge and understanding of SEN, leading to the difficulties to meet the academic and social needs of children with SEN and disabilities. Similar findings also reported by Maha and Radford’s (2010) study of teachers and head teacher’s attitudes towards inclusion in the same country. They found that teachers, in general, had positive attitudes towards the inclusion of children with SEN in ordinary schools. However, they expressed reservations about including all children, especially those with social, emotional and behavioural difficulties. Maha and Radford (2010) attributed that to the limited training, availability of qualified specialist teachers and to the high cost of supporting inclusion.

In a summary of several studies of teachers’ attitudes towards inclusion in the Middle East, AlShahrani (2014) concludes that attitudes towards SEN children’s inclusion in this region vary considerably, depending on the circumstances of specialty and type of disability. AlShahrani (2014) also pointed to several elements that seem to appear repeatedly in a majority of the studies reviewed, these include a failure by mainstream schools to prepare for effective inclusion, poor quality of school buildings and resources, a shortage of appropriately qualified teachers, insufficient professional in-service training, and poor knowledge and experience of SEN. Amr (2011) argues that inclusive education in the Middle East is not seen as a priority on the educational
agenda, as people see other challenges as more important and needing to be tackled first.

Although studies in this section have been based around some Arabic countries, as an example of teachers’ attitude towards inclusion in the Middle East region, I suggest that similar challenges face other Arab countries including Jordan. These challenges are increasingly recognised by the individual countries concerned and its context.

2.9.3 Jordanian Studies towards SEN and Inclusion

Although research undertaken in Jordan about professional attitudes toward inclusive education is limited, the available studies have provided a reasonable amount of information in this area. Studies covered the attitudes of teachers (Randa, 2003; Al-Zyoudi, 2006), early childhood educator’s perceptions of inclusive education (Hamaidi et al, 2012), difficulties that face teachers (Alkhrisha, 2002; Al Khatib, 2007; and Amr, 2011) and parents’ attitudes towards inclusion of children with autism in Jordan (Abu-Hamour & Muhaidat, 2014). These studies, in general, suggest that attitudes towards inclusive education in Jordan were strongly influenced by the nature of the disabilities and/or educational problems being presented and, to a lesser extent, by the professional background of the respondents.

Randa (2003), in her study of teachers’ attitudes towards inclusive education in Jordan, indicated that teachers, in general, hold a negative attitude towards the inclusion of children with SEN in ordinary schools. The study shows that there are statistical differences among participants according to gender, age and qualification, whereas no difference concerning the length of experience. Randa (2003) attributed teachers’ negative attitude to the reason that inclusive education in Jordan were in its early stages and teachers' lacked knowledge in this area, and how to teach children with SEN in regular classrooms.
On the other hand, in a study of teachers’ attitudes towards inclusive education in Jordan, Al-Zyoudi (2006) found that more than half of the teachers were of the opinion that children with disabilities or special needs should have a chance to attend ordinary schools. Nevertheless, teachers also were found to be strongly influenced by the nature and severity of the disabling condition presented to them, the length of teaching experience, training and contextual factors related to the individual schools. Al-Zyoudi’s (2006) findings indicate a shift in teachers' attitude towards inclusive education in Jordan. This might, however be explained by the selected sample of Al-Zyoudi’s (2006) study; more than one third of participant teachers in his study were special education teachers who have knowledge in this field. Alsaratwy (1995) and Alahbabi, (2009) found that special education teachers showed more positive attitudes towards inclusion. Alsaratwy (1995) attributed that special education teachers' positive attitudes could be due to their prior education about SEN or their actual experience of teaching children with SEN or a combination of both.

Other studies have suggested that ordinary teachers in Jordan have not developed knowledge about children’s special needs (Al-Khatib 2007), nor do they appear to be ready to accept these children in their classes (Hamaidi, et al., 2012). This might returned to reasons that inclusion had often been implemented in an unplanned manner, without systematic modifications to a school's organization or teaching professionals' development in this field. Randa (2003) and Al-Zyoudi (2006) studies with ordinary teachers indicated that teachers attitudes to inclusion in Jordan reflected a lack of confidence both in their own instructional skills and in the quality of support services.

In a comparative study in the South-western USA, United Arab Emirates' (UAE) and Jordan. Hamaidi et al., (2012) found that, in general, there was a support for the idea of inclusion in these countries, but there were many obstacles in Jordan; there was a gap between the ‘theory’ of inclusive education and its practices in real ground. There finding indicates that curriculum does not meet the
needs of children with special needs in Jordan; when it comes to implementation, teachers do not know how to modify curriculum according to the individual needs of children in their classrooms.

Moreover, Hamaidi et al., (2012) study shows that teachers in Jordan, held more negative attitudes towards academic aspects of inclusive education than the South-western USA and United Arab Emirates'; the majority of Jordanian teachers highlighted that special and general educators do not collaborate enough to provide services and support to children in their schools. This suggests that teachers, who are the first in touch with the implementation of the inclusive education policy, were uncomfortable teaching in inclusive settings as they think that they did not possess an adequate knowledge and expertise to address the needs of children with SEN.

Further, in a study of parents' attitudes towards inclusion of children with autism in Jordan, Abu-Hamour & Muhaidat (2014) found that, according to parents, ordinary schools do not have qualified staff nor teachers to understand the special needs of these children. According to their opinion, both ordinary school personnel and children without disabilities are not ready for inclusion. Specifically, some parents feared that their child would be mistreated, harmed, or ridiculed in the regular classroom. This appeared to make many parents fearful of change and hesitant in accepting the new educational agenda of inclusion.

To conclude, although the idea of inclusive education in Jordan received attention through Jordanian legislation and educational policies, the previously cited studies provided some evidence that attitudes towards inclusive education in Jordan have not shifted in favour of including children with SEN over the past ten years or so. Teachers complain about the situation that their schools and staff were not well prepared to include children with SEN and disabilities in their ordinary classrooms, which therefore determine their attitudes towards inclusion. While this may be observed as a matter of concern; one might question whether inclusive education in Jordan should ever be
determined by academic standards or by the metrics of liability, particularly when concerns are related not to the child, but to the ability of systems also.

2.9.4 Further Barriers to Inclusive Education Emerging from the Studies

Whilst there are many success stories in the research literature to be told about inclusion (e.g. Ainscow, 1997; Florian & Rouse, 2007), there have also been difficulties in its implementation (Evans & Lunt, 2002; and Dennis and Launcelot (2011). Such difficulties have been blamed on a variety of factors, including competing policies; a lack of funding and resources; existing special education practices; and a lack of research evidence (Forlin, 2001). It has also been suggested that one of the greatest barriers to the development of inclusion is that most teachers do not have the necessary knowledge, skills and attitudes to carry out this work (Frostad & Pijl, 2007). Researchers (e.g. Leyser et al., 1994; Avramidis and Norwich, 2002; Al-Khatib 2007; Avramidis and Kalyva, 2007) agree clearly that awareness of the needs and difficulties of children with SEN affected the way in which teachers interacted with these pupils and their attitudes towards inclusion. For example, Dennis and Launcelot (2011) in their study of fostering inclusive education in one school, they found that non-existent or inadequate teacher training was the first barrier that limits teachers’ readiness to include all children. Other factors e.g. negative teacher attitudes, general lack of resources, assistants, classroom space and instructional materials, and support services were ranked the second. If knowledge, skills, attitudes and materials are not available in the ordinary settings, the inclusion of children with special needs will be difficult to achieve (Meijer, 2010).

A further, and major, issue identified was the inflexibility or lack of adequate support services: services that are required for children and young people to fully participate in extended education. In the UK, for example, a study held by the National Union of Teachers (NUT, 2004)
observed that 76% of Special Educational Needs Coordinators (SENCOs) felt that their role was undermined by a lack of funding, and 40% believed there was not sufficient support for pupils with special educational needs. Hodkinson (2010) argues that this lack of funding is problematic for the successful implementation of inclusionary practices. Similarly in Jordan, the majority of the teachers who participated in Al-Zyoudi (2006) study expressed the need to extend services and for changes in public schools in order to meet the needs of children with disabilities and special needs.

2.10 Conclusions and Implication of Reviewed Literature on Inclusion Research in Jordan

The value we give to children is dictated by our attitudes which may well affect how we treat and interact with them. Attitudes are therefore very important and consequently have been much investigated, particularly in relation to inclusion. What can be taken away from this literature review however, is that teachers' attitudes towards inclusion are formed through multiple factors, result from different causes, and, in particular, are dependent on all three categories of variables: child-related, teacher-related and educational environment-related, which are themselves interrelated. Literature examined in this chapter provides some insight into the conceptual and structural elements of inclusive education research, with an assumption that ordinary teachers' attitudes and their professional development bear a strong relationship upon their actual actions, and that teachers' attitudes towards children with SEN vary not only according to the precise nature of the disability, but also according to cultural values and context, teachers' beliefs and living environment.

The literature review presented in this study demonstrates that the inclusive setting by nature demands addressing the diverse needs of children in the school. However, acknowledgement of these differences can be seen as the greatest challenge to full participation for all children; the point is that inclusion in practice requires a more
productive and creative interpretation of the process of inclusive education (Mittler, 2002). It could be concluded from the review that with the provision of more resources, support, and extensive opportunities for training at the pre- and in-service levels, teachers' attitudes could become more positive.

In the Jordanian context, the situation is that inclusion is a new concept and still in its early stages. The general tendency in Jordan has been to import the products of inclusive education from western society, without embedding this within Jordanian culture. This might cause tension between the philosophy of inclusive education and its implementation, this particularly when the culture of acceptance for all, as the literature indicates, is sensitive and not comprehended yet within Jordanian communities. The debate about the quality of inclusion and its efficiency in Jordan is not highly discussed by the decision-makers and little research has been done on this subject, and this is a limitation to Jordanian research in this field.

Consequently, it was useful to look at studies undertaken in a different context; international and of those in the Middle East concerning inclusive education. During this review, I realised that Jordan is far from being the only country lacking in research and that much can be gained from a comprehensive analysis and critique of other countries where inclusion has been 'successfully' implemented. Nevertheless, there is still a need to explore whether the diverse factors influencing teachers' attitudes to inclusion in other countries have the same impact on ordinary teachers' attitudes in Jordan; seeking more information in this area is one of the aims of this study.

Moreover, the literature review presented here draws attention to inclusive educational practices from a variety of cultural contexts which are highly diverse. The debate about professionalism and addressing the needs of children with SEN is evidence of the importance of inclusion. It would be too early to assume that these findings necessarily have direct relevance to the further development of
inclusive education in Jordan. However, they are used here to inform my investigation into the Jordanian situation. They will help to shape the instruments that will be used, and they will be referred to systematically in the discussion of this study.

2.11 Limitations and Research Aims

Research reported in this review can be seen to have certain limitations. Most of the studies reviewed above, particularly in the Middle East including Jordan (e.g. Randa, 2003; Al-Zyoudi, 2006; and Hamaidi, et al., 2012), have used quantitative methods (questionnaire) in an attempt to explore teachers’ attitudes towards inclusive education in ordinary schools. Elshabrawy (2010) explains that this type of methodology, does not give a full and thorough interpretation of such deep and complex concepts such as attitude, disability, inclusion, special needs, ordinary schools culture and religion, these concepts are embedded and rooted in local contexts and it would be difficult or impossible to isolate all of the factors affecting teachers’ attitudes towards inclusion. Given the fact that Jordanian ordinary teachers’ attitudes, preparation, and concerns to implement inclusion have not been extensively investigated (Abu-Hamour & Al-Hmouz, 2014). This study, as will be discussed in the coming chapter, utilised a mixed method approach (sequential mixed-methodology research design) to generate an in-depth understanding of Jordanian teachers’ attitude and understanding of the main themes in relation to successful inclusion.

Another limitation concerns the understanding of the terms ‘inclusion’ and ‘integration’, which are often used interchangeably in the Middle East, and has remained unchanged (Al Khatib, 2007; Alanazi, 2012; and Al-Shahrani, 2014). The single Arabic term ‘damg’, as indicated early in this chapter, is used to translate both terms. In Jordan, for instance, few studies (e.g. Randa, 2003; Al-Zyoudi, 2006; and Hamaidi, et al. 2012) have investigated some aspects of inclusion. However the ‘integration/inclusion of children with SEN into ordinary schools is currently one of the foremost educational policies in Jordan and has generated much debate (Abu-Hamour & Al-Hmouz, 2014).
Therefore, exploring ‘integration’ and ‘inclusion’ separately in the Jordanian context is an area still requires further depth study.

In this chapter, however, the primary aim of reviewing the literature is threefold: To provide a framework for data collection and analysis in this study; to serve as a platform for examining teachers' attitudes towards inclusive education, and to investigate the concept and importance of inclusive education for ordinary schools. The chapter, as table 2.1 shows, also attempts to demonstrate the links between the research questions and the main themes in the literature.

My research questions, as indicated in Chapter one, are drawn around three main areas. The first research question is about the identification of Jordanian teachers’ attitudes towards inclusive education and the extent to which they are positive or negative towards such practices. The focus of the second research question is on the explanation of the factors and context that affect current teachers’ attitudes towards inclusive education. The third considers possible ways to improve general education teachers’ views and perceptions towards inclusive education. Table 2.2 shows the key points between areas of review/themes and research questions.
Table 2.2 Key points summary of the link between the research questions and the main themes in the literature.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Research questions Areas</th>
<th>Main themes are drawn from the literature</th>
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| Teachers’ attitude towards inclusive education                 | *Teachers’ attitude towards inclusive education*  
Some reviewed studies show that teachers are positive towards the general philosophy of inclusive education. On the other hand, others see that teachers have negative attitude and reservation about its practice. Teacher attitude is varied and not the norm internationally, it is influenced by the context of each individual country. |
| factors and context that affect teachers’ attitudes towards inclusive education | Literature suggests that teachers’ attitudes are affected by a dynamic interaction between the teacher, child and organisation; as one cannot exist or function without the other. |
| Teachers’- related variables                                  | *Training in special education, gender, age and teaching experience and experience with individuals with disabilities were observed as factors affect teachers’ attitudes towards inclusion and children with special needs.*  
Knowledge about children with SEN during pre- and in-service training was one of the factors that have attracted considerable attentions in literature; literature suggests that training increases the knowledge level among teachers and leads to positive attitude changes towards the inclusion of children with SEN. |
| Child-related variables                                       | *In many cases, teachers’ attitude towards including children with SEN and disability in ordinary classes, depends on the severity and type of disability that the child has.*  
In general, the literature indicates that teachers would seem to support inclusion if it relates to children with mild mobility or sensory difficulties. However, do not have the same inclusive vision in relation to children who exhibit extreme behavioural and emotional difficulties. |
| Educational environment-related variables                    | *Literature reports that physical and human supports were shown to be an important factor for successful inclusion and generating positive attitudes amongst ordinary teachers towards the inclusion of children with SEN.* |
| possible ways to improve general education teachers’ attitude towards inclusive education | Evidence from a number of studies in the reviewed literature indicate factors, which they consider to be relevant to successful inclusion, this includes support for staff and students, funding models where the funds follow the students, effective parental involvement, curricula adaptation and adopting of effective instructional practice, effective leadership, coordination strategies etc. |
The next chapter introduces the methodology adopted to realise the aims set out above. It will present the details of the research methods used in this research, the research design, sampling methods, demographic data of participants as well as validity, reliability and ethical considerations will be described as well.
Chapter Three: Methodology and Research Design

3.1 Introduction
This chapter is concerned with methodological issues related to the investigation of Jordanian teachers' attitudes towards the inclusion of children with special educational needs in the ordinary schools. In the recent past, as indicated in chapter one, there has been a trend within inclusive education policies worldwide towards including greater numbers of children with SEN in ordinary schools. Such movements have influenced the focus of research and the methodologies employed by the research community (Avramidis and Norwich, 2002).

Jordan, like many other countries around the world, has witnessed a shift in legislation towards securing the rights of children with SEN (Al-Khatib, 2007). However, it is debatable whether this shift towards the policy of ‘inclusion’ is an achievable way forward for addressing the diverse needs of children, or whether this situation is a process more aligned to an ‘integration’ stage. Recognition of the differences between these two terms is important since it has implications for research into inclusive education practices in Jordan. As I already explained the difference between the two terms ‘integration’ and ‘inclusion’ in Chapter 2, a case will be made that further research is needed to understand the nature of the problem in the field of this study; research that can illuminate and provide directions for future improvements to policy and practice.

Whilst debates around ‘inclusion’ and ‘integration’ are undoubtedly relevant to my focus and study, my research will converge on exploring teachers’ attitudes towards including children with SEN in Jordanian ordinary schools, which offer educational services, as indicated earlier in section 1.8.3, for a wide range of children with SEN and disability.

Firstly, this chapter aims to position the research approach of this study in terms of the philosophical approaches of positivism,
interpretivism, and critical theory. It is hoped that such an analysis will provide insight regarding the different philosophical perspectives inherent within these approaches, and what they offer the field of special needs and inclusive education research.

Secondly, this chapter provides justifications for adopting a mixed method (quantitative-qualitative) as an approach to this study; highlighting the value of employing this strategy to address my research questions and maintaining flexibility on how best to go about addressing them in this project.

The third stage in this chapter includes sections that give an overview and description of the data collection instruments (methods) and their development, sampling and the selection process, issues concerning validity and reliability, the approach to data analysis of both the quantitative and qualitative data, ethical issues and finally, a summary of the main points.

3.2 Philosophical Underpinnings of the Research

Before I describe and discuss the specific methods I will utilise in this research, I will briefly present the general philosophical underpinnings of the research, where I clarify the ontological and epistemological positions adopted and explain the selection and relevance of a mixed methods approach as a design for this study. Taking the philosophical values into consideration, a brief discussion follows comparing and contrasting positivism, interpretivism, and critical theory.

Although categorising all educational and psychological research into a few approaches is a complex task, there are three principle approaches operating in the social sciences: positivism; interpretivism and critical theory (Avramidis, 2001). Positivism has been defined as “an epistemological position that advocates the application of the method of the natural sciences to the study of the social reality and beyond” (Bryman, 2008, p11). The epistemology of this approach requires the researcher to be objectivist. In this vein, the methodology is primarily
quantitative and experimental to test proposed hypotheses (Guba & Lincoln, 2005). Therefore, positivists advocate the use of empirical research to test hypothetical generalisations, and often employ a deductive approach (Bryman, 2008). Quantitative research provides data through the use of quantified measuring instruments like questionnaires, and structured interviews (Galton, Simon and Croll, 1980). These techniques are utilised frequently in educational research, especially in experiments and surveys. They accumulate large data sets from large populations. Its strength lies in the statistical analysis of large samples that allow for the generalisability of findings (Khaldi, 2010).

However, the interpretivist approach emphasises an understanding of the subjects' perspectives, and processes, and the contextual components in which the research takes place (Husen, 1997). According to interpretivism, reality is multiple and socially constructed, and of course, influenced by history and culture (Mertens, 1998). This approach is based on researching a phenomenon in its natural conditions as a direct source of data (Khaldi, 2010). Therefore, the approach requires the social researcher to grasp the subjective meaning of social action (Bryman, 2008), where the researcher is a primary data gathering instrument. Qualitative data are more descriptive, where words, objects and pictures are used, rather than numbers. Researchers adopting this approach are more often concerned with the process, not merely the results (Khaldi, 2010). They analyse their data inductively, not looking for the data to approve or refute a certain hypothesis that was formulated before the beginning of the study. Rather they try to develop general norms or theories through the aggregating and linking of partial information and data, even though the researcher may know roughly in advance what s/he is looking for (Strauss and Corbin, 1998; Miles and Huberman, 1994).
In contrast, critical theory\(^5\) has different perspectives from positivism and its ontological assumptions, which take the "objective" character of reality as something governed by inescapable laws (Avramidis, 2001). The critical theorists criticised the assumptions that society could be studied in ways similar to that of natural science and the practice of social scientists, who adhered to positivism. However, the difference between the interpretive and the critical approach relates to the goals of the research. Critical theorists are not interested with what is, but rather with what can and should be (Kraft, 1993). For critical theorists, it is not enough simply to discover and record social behaviour; but, to change the situation for the better, further stages of explaining behaviour in terms of socio-economic and culture are essential (O’leary, 2003). The ontology of critical theory suggests that different factors, such as historical, social, economic and political factors shape reality. The epistemology in critical theory is subjectivist and the methodology requires from the researcher to use appropriate techniques and tools to uncover all the elements, which shape the reality (Guba & Lincoln, 2005). More recently, critical theorists have placed greater emphasis on using a diverse methodology to study the influence of social, political, cultural, economic and disability values in the construction of reality. Thus researchers operating within the critical theory approach will predominantly employ qualitative methods such as structured and unstructured interviewing, participant observation, the case study, although quantitative methods e. g. survey are not excluded (Avramidis, 2001).

The implication of positivism, interpretivism and critical theory on inclusive educational research

The primary difficulty in researching ‘inclusion’ is that it is a debatable and complex concept. For instance, positivism suggests that it is the nature of research to identify inclusion and its implementation for the

\(^5\) Critical theory owes its origin to Kant, Hegel and Marx and was formulated in the work of the Frankfurt School in the 1930s and 1940s (Rasmussen, 1996).
benefit of pupils, and those who are involved with inclusive policy. According to positivists, the concept of special educational needs “SEN” is assumed to be a biological, which has validity across children and is predominantly seen as a within-child problem, which has to be "remediated" using specialist techniques (Avramidis, 2000). Whereas, interpretivists reject the within the child problem, and therefore, the concept of “SEN” was viewed largely as a socially constructed phenomenon; hence, many interpretations can be made to understand the needs of children with SEN. According to interpretivists, the perceptions of teachers, parents and children themselves are sought, with a view of enhancing understanding of the needs of these children (Avramidis, 2001).

In contrast, critical theorists require researchers to adopt qualitative approaches, which can clarify and guide a set of moral values and support all actors and constituencies in the inclusion debate. In this study, which aims to explore teachers' attitudes towards inclusive education, I assume that not all the participants share a common understanding and experience of inclusion. Even the term, inclusion, might be perceived differently within the same social context. Therefore, critical theory assumptions might help gain broader meaning of the phenomena, and aid in exploring teacher behaviour in terms of social, political, cultural, and economic values that construct the reality.

In practice, many researchers in the field of inclusive education—similar to this study—combine the use of quantitative and qualitative research methods in their research studies. Pragmatism⁶ as a research approach supports the adoption of a combination or mix of different research methods, as well as modes of analysis (Feilzer, 2010). The major tenets of pragmatism that make it quite suitable as a mixed

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⁶ Biesta (2010) defines "pragmatism as a set of philosophical tools that can be used to address problems" (p. 97).
methods approach lie in its concept of quantitative and qualitative methods as compatible, enabling researchers to use both in their research, and in its orientation toward “what works” in practice (Creswell and Clark, 2009). In this regard Tashakkori & Teddlie (2003) argue that the use of more than one method produced stronger inferences, answered research questions that other methodologies could not, and allowed for greater diversity of findings. This approach, which focuses on the advantages and strengths of each methodology, has been supported by many researchers who believe that it is expansive, creative, inclusive and complementary (Khaldi, 2010). For the purpose of this study, the rationale for adopting a pragmatic approach that combines mixed methods research are explained thoroughly forthwith.

3.3 Mixed Methods Approach: Rationale and the Selected Methodology
The term ‘mixed methods research’ is used as simple shorthand to underpin research that integrates quantitative and qualitative research within a single study (Bryman, 2008). Different researchers (e.g. Tashakkori, 1998; Morgan 2007; Johnson et al, 2007; Bryman, 2008; and Creswell, 2009) point out that the choice of using the valuable features of both research approaches in mixed methods provides an expanded understanding of the research problem. Mixed methods research provides strengths that offset the weaknesses of both quantitative and qualitative research; it provides more evidence for studying a research problem than either quantitative or qualitative research alone (Johnson et al, 2007). It contains quantitative and qualitative research techniques, methods, theories, data sources and language to research the same problem in a single study (Patton, 1980; Johnson et al, 2007). In this regard, Creswell (2009) argues that utilising the strong points of such a combination can illuminate different aspects and provide greater insight into particular issues of research problem investigations. (Creswell and Clark 2006, p5) describe mixed methods research as:
“a research design with philosophical assumptions as well as methods of inquiry. As a methodology, it involves philosophical assumptions that guide the direction of the collection and analysis of data and the mixture of qualitative and quantitative approaches in many phases in the research process. As a method, it focuses on collecting, analysing, and mixing both quantitative and qualitative data in a single study or series of studies. Its central premise is that the use of quantitative and qualitative approaches in combination provides a better understanding of research problems than either approach alone” (Creswell and Clark 2006, p5).

This approach was also supported by (Teddlie & Tashakkori, 2003) and (Creswell & Clark, 2007), who justify the employment of mixed methods research in addressing research problems, contending that the use of more than one method produced stronger inferences, answered research questions that other methodologies could not, and allowed for greater diversity of findings. Indeed, it allows researchers to generate rich and reliable data and enhance the validity of their research findings.

Researchers have suggested different classifications to the approach of using mixed methods; one of these is Morgan’s (2007) classification, which is based on two criteria:

a) The priority decision or weighting, as considered by Creswell (2009), which addresses the priority given to quantitative or qualitative research in a particular study.

b) The sequence decision, regarding which method precedes the other.

Such choices demand that the researcher determines which method of quantitative and qualitative research as the priority, and which one precedes the other (Bryman, 2008). Creswell (1995) explained the mixed methods design in greater details, he proposed the following four choices:

a) Sequential studies: The researcher first conducts a quantitative phase of a study and then a qualitative phase or vice versa. The two phases are separated.
b) Parallel/concurrent studies: the researcher conducts research using both quantitative and qualitative phases at the same time.

c) Equivalent status design: The researcher conducts the study using both the quantitative and qualitative approach, about equally, to understand the phenomenon under study.

d) Dominant/less dominant studies; the researcher conducts the study “within a single dominant approach with a small component of the overall study drawn from an alternative design” (Creswell, 1995, p.177).

In this study, a mixed research methodology was suggested by the nature of the research questions and the type of data required. In this regard, the mixed methods approach can provide an investigator with many design choices, which involve a range of sequential and concurrent strategies (Terrell, 2012). Therefore, in relation to my research approach, I have chosen a mixed methods/sequential approach (Creswell, 1995). The term, ‘sequential’, refers to the collection of data in phases, where in this study the quantitative data (closed questionnaire) comes first; the result of this phase is essential for planning the second phase, and as such, the qualitative data will come later, to expand understanding. Moreover, beginning with a quantitative phase allowed me access to the views of a large sample of Jordanian teachers from a wide geographical area; thereby, increasing the validity of my findings. It was felt that this investigation would provide an indication of generic teachers’ attitudes towards inclusion in Jordan. It also sought to obtain information that would aid understanding of factors surrounding inclusion. Nevertheless, utilising the quantitative phase through a closed questionnaire to measure teachers’ attitudes towards inclusion will not inform us of the degree to which factors have a strong contribution to attitude and their insights on how to improve inclusive education within the Jordanian context. Thus, by conducting quantitative research, researchers may use that information to build further hypotheses that could be refined through qualitative research (Straus, 1998).
Consequently, it is worth noting that utilising a pragmatist approach allowed me to answer my research-specific questions by aiming for a very thorough analysis and careful explanations of the research topics. Moreover, this approach combines both quantitative and qualitative methodologies in the same study uniting their strengths for answering the research questions and yielding valuable information; this may not have been achieved using a quantitative or qualitative methodology alone.

In the following sections, the description of both research methods, namely the questionnaire and interview, and their development will be discussed in more detail.

3.4 Data Collection Techniques
I will use a closed questionnaire to collect the quantitative data, and a semi-structured interview to collect the qualitative data. These questionnaires and interviews are described below in terms of their source, development, structure and suitability for this study.

3.4.1 The Questionnaire
The questionnaire is widely used for collecting survey information, providing structured, numerical data, and is often comparatively straightforward to analyse (Wilson and McLean, 1994). It is also considered a convenient technique to obtain information from a large number of people, especially when they are spread over a wide geographical area (Denscombe, 2005). There are many advantages to using a questionnaire in this study; it can provide a considerable amount of research data for a relatively low cost in terms of materials, money and time. In order to understand teachers’ perceptions in this study, it was necessary to explore their characteristics, education and background to examine the extent to which these influence their perceptions. Examples of factors that could affect teachers’ perceptions are age, teaching experience and training, as well as the institutional context of schools.
Further benefits found in using a questionnaire in this study were also in gathering different opinions, attitudes, and beliefs that ordinary teachers hold regarding their experience within the ordinary schools in Jordan. Moreover, collecting data in this study through the questionnaire, and analysing it using statistical methods present much basic information on the participants’ attitudes towards children with SEN and their presence within the ordinary classroom, and how they see their practice. The questionnaire also aims to present a snapshot of opinion about inclusive education in Jordan and to measure the skills needed to teach and support SEN children effectively in an inclusive manner. It is therefore, evaluated as an appropriate method for gathering quantitative data for the current study on one hand, and an imperative factor in the development of the interview; to modify items and to generate new within the second phase, on the other.

The development of the questionnaire was guided by existing literature and partially from my own experience and knowledge of the Jordanian context. Items adopted from the literature were taken from studies (e.g. Avramidis, 2000; Gaad, 2004; and Gyimah, 2006). However, it is primarily developed from the modified version of the Opinions Relative to Mainstreaming Scale (ORM) (Larrivee& Cook, 1979), and the revised version of the ORM Scale (Antonak& Livneh, 1988). The ORM Scale was developed as part of a large-sample investigation of teachers’ attitudes towards ‘mainstreaming’ children with ‘disabilities’ into general classrooms (Antonak& Larrivee, 1995). The scale included items, which focused on hypothesised dimensions of attitudes toward mainstreaming. As described by Antonak& Larrivee (1995), it includes five main factors: general philosophy of ‘mainstreaming’, classroom behaviour of SEN children, perceived ability to teach SEN children, classroom management of SEN children, and finally, the academic and social growth of SEN children. It is worth noting that some items from the (ORM) scale have been adapted to suit the research background, and exposed to some modifications and change in some word formats, like children with SEN instead of ‘disability’ and inclusion instead of ‘mainstreaming’.
The questionnaire was constructed originally in English and developed in consultation with my supervisors and three academics from Jordan. As teachers in the Ministry of Education in Jordan are Arabic native speakers, the questionnaire was translated into the Arabic language by the researcher. The researcher was keen to make the translation as accurate as possible without losing some of the flavours of the original text. In outline, the questionnaire contains five sections.

The first section of the questionnaire (Appendix 1) requests the respondents’ demographic data. There were 7 closed-ended items, including gender, age, experience, general teaching qualification; qualification in the area of SEN; school location; and finally, resources rooms. Such demographic information was considered important since differences in the characteristics of the sample of the Jordanian teachers could influence the interpretation of the results.

The second section is about teachers’ attitudes towards inclusive education; it is composed of twenty statements: eight statements asking teachers about the general philosophy of inclusion, four statements ask about teachers’ knowledge and ability to teach children with SEN, and the last eight questions ask teachers to respond to statements referring to social integration, classroom behaviour and the academic achievement of children with SEN in the ordinary classroom environment. The respondents were asked to indicate their agreement or disagreement according to the Likert scale (1932). Their choices ranged as follows: Strongly Disagree (1), Disagree (2), Undecided (3), Agree (4) and Strongly Agree (5).

It is worth noting that Likert scales were employed when it was considered particularly desirable to be able to directly compare responses from different groups of participants, such as perceptions about the suitability of inclusion for all children, barriers to inclusion and required changes were also investigated using Likert scale responses. Even allowing for the fact that some respondents might
tend to answer more positively than others, across different groups it is still possible to detect overall variations in their views about inclusion (Alanazi, 2012).

The third part refers to teachers’ reaction towards different types of special needs: mild to moderate disability, severe learning difficulties, emotional and behavioural difficulties, physical disorder, hearing impairment, visual impairment, and special learning difficulties. Respondents were asked to respond to the statements showing their acceptance of inclusion of children with SEN or disability in the general classroom; their choices were represented in a Likert scale as follows: No accommodation (1), Little Accommodation (2), Moderate Accommodation (3), Much Accommodation (4) and Major Accommodation (5).

The fourth section of the questionnaire intended to gather feedback from teachers, who have had relative experience with the inclusion of children with SEN. Teachers were asked to respond to ten statements, demonstrating their views about ten methods suggested to improve inclusive practices. Their responses to the statements ranged in the Likert scale between least (1) and best (5). The suggested methods of improvement were composed as statements about ways of supporting children with SEN, teachers' training, quality and the continuum of support services, listening to children' voices, teachers' positive attitude towards the inclusion of children with SEN, and teachers' interaction in the inclusive setting.

Finally, the fifth section refers to teachers’ communication with children in the classroom. Teachers were requested to respond to a total of ten statements, which reflects their preparation and operation in their classes. A Likert scale was used with a range from 1-5 as follows: Never(1), Rarely(2), Sometimes(3), Often(4) and Always(5). The statements composed a set of actions expected from teachers to prepare or do, like working on the Individual education plan (IEP),
considering every child matters, and the ways of communication with children in the classroom.

3.4.2 Research Interviews

In social science, particularly educational research, interviews are useful for obtaining more understanding behind participants' experiences. They enable the researcher to determine the participants' views from their explanations, terminology, judgements, body language, emotional reflections, etc. (Patton, 1990; Cohen et al, 2000). This was the case in this research where the interviews were very helpful in characterising and analysing teachers' perceptions of inclusive education in-depth; it allowed the researcher to enquire deeply into any other potential factors influencing teachers' attitudes towards inclusive education; the reality and causes of these perceptions, and also the possible ways to improve inclusive educational practices.

There are several ways in which the interview can be used as a research technique (Cohen et al, 2000). In this study, I intend to use ‘Hierarchal Focusing’ suggested by Tomlinson (1989), as a research interview method. Hierarchal Focusing is a research interview strategy that allows respondents to express themselves at length through a set of open-ended questions (Tomlinson, 1989), whilst also representing the agenda of the interviewer.

The ‘Hierarchal Focusing’ strategy suggests employing a concept mapping technique, reproduced in figure 3.1. This map includes a hierarchal agenda of questions alongside a hierarchy skeleton of the same structure that acts as a guide and record. This approach facilitates faster interviews that can be more easily analysed (Tomlinson, 1989); at the same time, it is intended to ensure that the same general areas of information are explored with each interviewee. This provides more focus, but still allows a degree of freedom and adaptability in gaining information from the interviewee, which allows
the interviewees to influence the direction, order and emphasis of the interview.

Fig 3.1: Teachers’ attitudes towards inclusion: An example of a hierarchal agenda of actual questions with record/guide structure. S= spontaneous, P= Prompted

As indicated earlier, the purpose of the interview in the second phase was to explore teachers’ attitudes in depth concerning inclusive education in Jordanian ordinary schools, through the eyes of a group of teachers experienced in dealing with children with SEN. The researcher used the telephone and/or direct contact to arrange interview times with some teachers, after he had explained the purpose of the research to them. The interviews took place at the teachers’ schools or elsewhere, as they preferred. Prior to the interview session, the researcher initially expresses his appreciation to the interviewee for agreeing to participate in the study.

For the purpose of answering my research questions, the hierarchal focusing interview method was employed with all participants, and the same open-ended questions were posed to all interviewees. Table 3.1 presents a brief description of these interview schedules—the targeted groups and aims of the interviews for each group.
Table 3.1: A brief description of the hierarchal focusing semi-structured interview schedules.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Target Teachers</th>
<th>The aim of the interviews</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Teachers with General teaching qualification (GTQ) status.</td>
<td>The aim was to explore teachers’ understanding and opinions of inclusive education, and whether GTQ status contributes to the formation of their attitudes towards inclusion and the acceptance of children with SEN and disability in their classes. They also intend to explore teachers’ opinions and views of the possible ways and mechanisms to enhance inclusive practices in Jordanian ordinary schools.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ordinary teachers without GTQ status</td>
<td>The aim was to explore teachers’ understanding and opinions of inclusive education and their attitudes towards inclusion and the acceptance of children with SEN and disability in their classes. The interviews also intend to explore teachers’ opinions and views of the possible ways and mechanisms to enhance inclusive practices in Jordanian ordinary schools.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Teachers with a degree in SEN or learning difficulties</td>
<td>The aim was also to establish whether the qualification or equivalence in SEN will impact teachers' perceptions of inclusion and the acceptance of children with SEN, and how such qualifications/training could have contributed to their acceptance of children with SEN, and what factors might facilitate or hinder this practice.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Resource Rooms Teachers</td>
<td>The main aim was to investigate the role of resource rooms towards inclusive practices, in particular, the impact on teachers’ perceptions and interaction with children, and also the communication between teachers involved in teaching children with SEN in Jordanian ordinary classrooms. They were also asked about their role in improving teachers' understanding of inclusion and the possible facilitating or hampering factors they faced in trying to achieve this goal.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The questions for the interview schedule were informed by the issues on inclusive education raised by the quantitative questionnaire approach and the review of literature. The key dimensions of the teachers’ interviews and its references to literature, as Table 3.2 shows, were themed as: understandings of inclusion, training and experience, resources and support, barriers to inclusive education, the impact of socio-cultural context upon inclusive education and challenges that have to be overcome to enhance inclusive education. With this in mind, the interview schedule was designed to address the above areas of concern; open questions followed by a further probe (Appendix 2) were used. The length of the interview ranged from thirty minutes to one hour each, determined by the available time of the interviewees and depth of engagement.
Table 3.2: Key dimensions of the teachers’ interviews, references to literature and the main interview questions.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Key dimensions of the teachers’ interviews</th>
<th>Some points of what does literature say</th>
<th>Questions for the interview schedule</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Understanding of inclusion</strong></td>
<td>- Inclusion has accumulated diverse meanings and understandings, which should be understood in the context of an approach to the ‘problems’ of social diversity in societies that are highly diversified internally and yet globally interconnected (Armstrong et al, 2011).</td>
<td>- In your view, what does inclusion mean? -Do you agree with the movement of inclusive education and why?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Knowledge, training and perceived ability to teach children with SEN</strong></td>
<td>- If children with SEN and disabilities are to succeed in an inclusive educational setting, then their needs should be met and teachers should be willing to address these needs (Ellins, 2005). - Several studies tend to reinforce the view that knowledge about the needs of children with SEN and disability acquired from pre- or in-service courses were associated with more positive attitude to inclusive practices (Clough &amp; Lindsay, 1991; Ellins, 2004; and Avramidis and Kalyva, 2007).</td>
<td>Do you perceive yourself as possessing the necessary knowledge and skills to meet the needs of children with SEN in your school? And why?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Resources and support</strong></td>
<td>-The exportation of inclusion needs to be understood in terms of history, cultural differences and economic context of the countries Armstrong (2005).</td>
<td>What effect do you think the provisions could bring upon inclusion?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Perceptions about the barriers to inclusion</strong></td>
<td>-Research in many countries has highlighted a range of factors that help or hinder successful inclusion (Gaad, 2011). -It has been suggested that one of the greatest barriers to the development of inclusion is that most teachers think that they do not have the necessary knowledge and skills to apply this work (Frostad &amp; Pijl, 2007).</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Faith and Socio-cultural context.</strong></td>
<td>- Disability in Middle East culture has traditionally been seen as something shameful, Arab families have often failed to admit that they include a disabled person for fear that this would be considered a disgrace and lower the family’s standing in the neighbourhood (Turmusani, 2001). - Some people in the Middle East society feel that impairment is a divine tribulation visited upon the family to test their belief in God and they believe that they have to accept such misfortune with faith and forbearance (Miles, 1995). - Stigma and attitudes surrounding disability in the ME region are no longer as prevalent as they used to be. Cultural mentalities in the region are shifting (Bazna and Reid, 2009; Gaad, 2011; and ALmotairi, 2013). - Cultural context is indeed a significant variable often ignored by researchers in the area of attitudes towards inclusion. (Karni et al., 2011)</td>
<td>-Why are you implementing inclusion, what are your incentives for doing it that? -In your opinion, What effects do you think faith and socio-cultural practices have on your attitude towards children with SEN?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Challenges have to be overcome to enhance inclusive education</strong></td>
<td>- Successful inclusion needs a more balanced approach; one which acknowledges that requirements for additional support can come about through the complex interaction of diverse influences in the child, the family, the learning environment and the wider community and societal context (Lindsay, 2003).</td>
<td>What needs to be done/changed in your school in order for inclusion to be successful?</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
3.5 The Measurement of Attitudes

Attitudes are not directly observable; their existences can only be inferred from peoples’ overt responses or indicators (Eagly & Chaiken, 1993; Fazio & Ewoldsen, 2005). Thus, most attitude measurements are based on the assumption that a person’s attitude can be measured by their opinions or beliefs about the attitude object (Stahlberg and Frey, 1996). Psychologists developed a range of methodologies to assess the attitude, direct and indirect measurement methods are common explicit measurement techniques of attitude (Fazio & Ewoldsen, 2005; Ajzen, 2005; Maio & Haddock, 2009). The direct measurements of attitude require conscious attention and directly ask respondents to indicate their attitude towards any object (Fazio & Ewoldsen, 2005). This can be undertaken by interviewing the person on their attitude about the attitude object. The advantage of the interview technique, as indicated earlier, is that it enables the interviewer, if necessary, to probe the interviewee to gain deeper understandings of his attitudes. Whereas, the indirect measures of attitude provide opportunities for respondents to review different aspects of a given domain (Ajzen, 2005), this kind of measurement is usually questionnaire in which participants respond to a set of statements that are relevant to the attitude being measured (Maio & Haddock, 2009). Likert scale is one of the measurement methods that operate to assess attitudes towards objects.

3.6 Sample Selection

Careful sample selection is a crucial stage in both the quantitative and qualitative research studies. It is critical for data analysis, the generalisation of findings and the quality of the conclusions drawn from the research (Miles and Huberman, 1994). In general, as Coolican (2004, p.43) indicates, “the larger the sample the less likely it is that serious sampling bias will occur”. Yet, the decision about sample size depends on a number of considerations, e.g. time and cost (Bryman, 2008), and is influenced by the aims of the research and the nature of the population (Cohen et al, 2000).
What follows is a brief illustration of the sample selection process and data collection procedures for both the quantitative and qualitative phases of this research.

### 3.6.1 Quantitative Phase

The initial aim of the quantitative phase of data collection was to broadly identify teachers’ attitudes towards the inclusion of children with SEN in Jordanian ordinary schools. The sample of teachers in this study composed of Basic Education\(^7\) teachers for three reasons:

- In Jordan, the intervention for children with SEN is more developed in the basic level of education.
- The resources rooms, established to give support for pupils with learning difficulties, are usually located in the basic level schools.
- It is more common to identify and meet the needs of children with SEN in their early years of school.

In order to avoid sampling bias, I was keen to make reliable estimates of the sample to be representative of all sub-groups of the target group population. I used two-stage sampling, as shown in Table 3.3; the first stage is a selection of the sample of schools in the seven Directorates of Education in the area of the study. Thus, the researcher randomly sampled 34 schools drawn from the entire population of 567 schools, using the systematic random sampling method, which satisfied the equal probability selection method, known as ‘epsem’ (Coolican, 2004, p.41). This kind of random sampling technique produces a sample in which every unit in the target has an equal probability of being selected.

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\(^7\) Basic Education is free and compulsory for all Jordanian children up to the age of sixteen; it is a ten years compulsory level of education.
Table 3.3: Characteristics of the schools and selected sample by each Directorate of Education in the district of Irbid/Jordan

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>No</th>
<th>Directorate</th>
<th>Number of male schools/selected</th>
<th>Number of female schools/selected</th>
<th>Number of mixed schools/selected</th>
<th>Number of resource rooms/selected</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>Directorate of Education, the First (City)</td>
<td>32</td>
<td>26</td>
<td>29</td>
<td>16</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>2</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>Directorate of Education, the Second (City&amp; town)</td>
<td>33</td>
<td>26</td>
<td>29</td>
<td>16</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>2</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>Directorate of Education, the Third(Town)</td>
<td>33</td>
<td>26</td>
<td>29</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>2</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>Al-Korah Directorate of Education (Town&amp; villages)</td>
<td>34</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>41</td>
<td>15</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>2</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>BaniKananah Directorate of Education(Villages)</td>
<td>34</td>
<td>31</td>
<td>36</td>
<td>14</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>2</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>Al-Ramtha Directorate of Education(Town&amp; villages)</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>17</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>Al-Agwar(N) Directorate of Education (Town&amp; villages)</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Total</td>
<td>Total schools out of (567)</td>
<td>200(35.3%)</td>
<td>169(30%)</td>
<td>198(34.7%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Selected schools out of (34)</td>
<td>12(35.3)</td>
<td>8(23.5%)</td>
<td>14(58.8%)</td>
<td>7(7.7%)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

For the second stage of the sampling process, only those schools that were selected in Table 3.3 in the first stage were included, within the 34 selected schools a ‘convenience sample’ (Coolican, 2004, p.42) was then selected in each cluster of the listed schools, then data were combined in a single estimate for the survey as a whole. Convenience sampling is a kind of non-probability-based sampling method that gives the opportunity to test a lot of people at the same time (Coolican, 2004). However, it is worth noting, even with a well-crafted probability sample, a degree of sampling error is likely to creep in (Bryman, 2006).

The questionnaire was then distributed to a representative sample of 500 teachers of basic levels in Jordan. The questionnaires were distributed to teachers through contacting them in their schools, and then collected after few days, of whom 367(73.4%) completed it. Across the whole sample, a Cronbach alpha value of 0.88 was
achieved, indicating a reasonable internal consistency of the instrument (Cohen et al, 2000). Table 3.4 shows the characteristics of the participant teachers.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Gender</th>
<th>Male (No/Percentage)</th>
<th>Female (No/Percentage)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>166 (45.2 %)</td>
<td>201 (54.8 %)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Age</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>21-30</td>
<td>117 (31.9 %)</td>
<td>41-50</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>157 (42.8 %)</td>
<td>85 (23.2 %)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>41-50</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>85 (23.2 %)</td>
<td>8 (2.2 %)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Experience</td>
<td>1-5 years</td>
<td>6-11 years</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>138 (37.6 %)</td>
<td>123 (33.5 %)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>106 (28.9 %)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Qualification</td>
<td>Qualified</td>
<td>Not qualified</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>164 (44.7 %)</td>
<td>203 (55.3 %)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Degree in SEN</td>
<td>SEN</td>
<td>Others</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>23 (6.3 %)</td>
<td>36 (9.8 %)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>308 (83.9 %)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>School location</td>
<td>City</td>
<td>Town</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>112 (30.5 %)</td>
<td>82 (22.3 %)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>173 (47.1 %)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Learning Resource Rooms</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>No</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>102 (27.8 %)</td>
<td>265 (72.2 %)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

3.6.2 Qualitative Phase

As indicated earlier, it is appropriate and significant to explore in depth the nature, factors and context of teachers’ attitudes toward inclusion in Jordan. Therefore, the interviews within the qualitative phase are intended to illuminate and even challenge the findings of the survey. To identify the sample from the teacher population, the researcher prior to the interviews, made contact either by telephone or made direct visits to the selected schools distributed in the seven directorates of education shown in Table 3.3. In each school, the researcher made contact with the headteachers to gain teachers’ co-operation in conducting the interviews; who would be ready and willing to speak in respect of my research. The selected sample was from teachers, who filled the questionnaire in the first phase. As a result, twenty-one teachers accepted an invitation to be interviewed, of whom two
expressed their unwillingness to participate later. Table 3.5 shows the basic demographic characteristics of the nineteen teachers, who participated in the interviews while Table 3.6 gives biographical and background information on each of them.

As shown in these two tables, there is diversity in the participants’ backgrounds. Furthermore, given the strategy through which the population sample was selected, the sample is considered an adequate representation of teachers in Jordanian ordinary schools.

**Table 3.5: The characteristics of participant teachers**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Gender</th>
<th>Male</th>
<th>Female</th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Male</td>
<td>9</td>
<td></td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Age</td>
<td>21-30</td>
<td>30-40</td>
<td>41-50</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>7</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Experience</td>
<td>1-5</td>
<td>6-11</td>
<td>12+</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>5</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>General Teaching Qualifications</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>No</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>13</td>
<td>6</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Special Education Qualifications</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>No</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>5</td>
<td>14</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Location</td>
<td>Village</td>
<td>Town</td>
<td>City</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>9</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Resource rooms exist within the school premises</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>No</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>5</td>
<td>14</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Table 3.6: Biographical and background data of the participant teachers

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Teachers</th>
<th>Gender</th>
<th>Degree</th>
<th>Specialisation</th>
<th>Teaching qualification</th>
<th>Geographical location</th>
<th>Experience (years)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>T.1</td>
<td>Male</td>
<td>PhD</td>
<td>Education</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>City</td>
<td>13</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>T.2</td>
<td>Female</td>
<td>Bachelor &amp; Higher Diploma</td>
<td>Arabic language</td>
<td>No</td>
<td>City</td>
<td>16</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>T.3</td>
<td>Female</td>
<td>Master</td>
<td>Educational Psychology</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>Town</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>T.4</td>
<td>Female</td>
<td>Bachelor</td>
<td>Education</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>Town</td>
<td>9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>T.5</td>
<td>Female</td>
<td>Bachelor</td>
<td>Information Technology</td>
<td>No</td>
<td>Village</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>T.6</td>
<td>Male</td>
<td>Bachelor &amp; Higher Diploma</td>
<td>Primary Education</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>Village</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>T.7</td>
<td>Male</td>
<td>Master</td>
<td>English language</td>
<td>No</td>
<td>Town</td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>T.8</td>
<td>Female</td>
<td>Bachelor</td>
<td>Geography</td>
<td>No</td>
<td>Town</td>
<td>15</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>T.9</td>
<td>Female</td>
<td>Master</td>
<td>Pedagogy</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>Village</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>T.10</td>
<td>Male</td>
<td>Master</td>
<td>Mathematics</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>Town</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>T.11</td>
<td>Female</td>
<td>Bachelor</td>
<td>English language</td>
<td>No</td>
<td>Village</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>T.12</td>
<td>Female</td>
<td>Bachelor</td>
<td>Primary Education</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>Village</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>T.13</td>
<td>Male</td>
<td>Bachelor</td>
<td>Chemistry</td>
<td>No</td>
<td>Village</td>
<td>17</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>T.14</td>
<td>Male</td>
<td>Bachelor</td>
<td>Geography</td>
<td>No</td>
<td>Village</td>
<td>11</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>T.15</td>
<td>Male</td>
<td>Master</td>
<td>Special Education Needs</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>City</td>
<td>20</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>T.16</td>
<td>Male</td>
<td>Bachelor &amp; Higher Diploma</td>
<td>Primary Education</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>Town</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>T.17</td>
<td>Female</td>
<td>Bachelor &amp; Higher Diploma</td>
<td>Special Education Needs</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>Village</td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>T.18</td>
<td>Male</td>
<td>Bachelor</td>
<td>Primary Education</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>Village</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>T.19</td>
<td>Female</td>
<td>Bachelor</td>
<td>Arabic language</td>
<td>No</td>
<td>City</td>
<td>17</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Qualitative Data Generation Phase

The process in which the data was generated for the second phase involved the following activities:

- A letter requesting permission was sent to the Ministry of Education in Jordan to conduct the questionnaire survey, then the interviews. Permission was granted in early September 2009.
- A pilot study with two teachers was carried out to test the semi-structured interview.
- The necessary modifications of the instruments were done in light of the findings of the pilot study in consultation with my supervisors.
- The semi-structured interviews were conducted with nineteen teachers of basic level in Jordanian ordinary schools. All interviews were conducted between 11th August 2011 and 5th September 2011. All interviews were digitally recorded. All interviews were then transcribed and analysed.

3.7 Reliability and Validity

While mindful that reliability and validity are crucial steps in the implementation of social science research using any data gathering instruments, I also recognise that reliability and validity have a variety of meanings in different research approaches and methodologies (Cohen et al, 2000). Reliability refers to the extent in which a questionnaire or any measurement procedure produces the same results if used again under a similar methodology and conditions (Joppe, 2000). For example, in a research study applying the questionnaire to a group of people, the questionnaire should produce the same results when re-tested on the same group of people at a different time. Validity refers to the extent to which the instrument measures what it is supposed to measure (Coolican, 2004).
In this study, the validity and reliability of the closed questionnaire that was adapted partially from the modified version of the revised ORM scale were tested and corroborated during the development of the original instrument (Larrivee& Cook, 1979; Antonak and Livneh, 1988). However, given the translation process and the minor changes that were deemed necessary, the following steps were taken in this study to further ensure its validity and reliability.

The initial questionnaire was constructed originally in English in consultation with my supervisors. Subsequently, the first English draft was sent to three academics at Yarmouk University in Jordan, who hold doctoral degrees in Education from the UK. This step was considered crucial to challenge the English version of the questionnaire. Their suggestions and comments helped me set the questionnaire in its final form. However, given the translation process; the Arabic translation of the questionnaire was reviewed with two Ph.D. students at the University of Nottingham, who are native Arabic speakers, and then validated by a panel of five experienced teachers and three academics holding a Ph.D. in education in Jordan. All of them have experience of doing educational research, in particular, inclusive education research. Minor adaptations were performed on the Arabic version in light of their comments, as explained in an earlier section.

In order to assess the validity of the questionnaires from the teachers’ perspective, the questionnaire was given to a sample of 35 teachers, selected randomly. They were asked for any suggestions or other relevant aspects related to comprehension and understanding to improve clarity. Their comments helped the researcher perform a further revision and suitably modified the questionnaire in its final form in Arabic. A test-retest of the closed questionnaire was conducted with another group of 35 teachers selected randomly. The instrument achieved a 0.78 correlation coefficient that indicated a reasonable degree of reliability.
When conducted on the actual sample of 367 teachers, the closed questionnaire yielded 0.87, using Cronbach’s alpha coefficient, for the overall internal consistency, which was judged to be adequate. Prior to the main study, a pilot study was conducted to test the extent to which the questions of the questionnaire could be understood, and to gather information for the purpose of improving the quality and efficiency of the larger study.

As for the interview, the following steps were taken in this study to further ensure its validity and reliability:

After consulting my supervisors regarding the development of the semi-structured interview, it was sent to one academic for comment, with regard to the content of the interview and length, for any helpful remarks or further modification before the final version. The follow-up interview (Appendix 2) was piloted with two teachers. This step provided valuable feedback about the clarity of the items, and how the respondents interpreted them. Moreover, such a step helps focus questions, and remove possible sources of ambiguity; consequently, increasing the validity and feasibility of the instrument (Morrison, 1993).

Respondent validation (Bryman, 2008) was also established for this phase; this was through contacting the interviewees personally and providing them with the transcripts of their responses, so as to confirm that the findings drawn from the interview data matched the participants’ views. This technique is essential in the sense that it promotes the validity of the research findings by minimising the possibility of misinterpretation of the interview data.

For the purpose of reliability, I approached a colleague, who is an educational research expert, particularly on inclusive educational research. Separately, we analysed the data obtained from four interviews. This was done after a discussion on the rubric of analysis, comprising categorisations, coding and thematic generations, and then
we compared and contrasted both analyses. The outcomes reflected reasonable consensus.

3.8 Quantitative Data Analysis
Quantitative analysis was applied to the data obtained from the closed questionnaire in phase one of the data collection. This step was considered suitable for descriptive statistical analysis that is numerical in nature. After data collection, the quantified responses were coded using a Likert ranking scale from 1 (reflecting the least positive view) to 5 (reflecting the most positive view). Some items of the questionnaire were reversed to be identically treated with other items (2.3, 2.7, 2.12, 2.15, 2.16, and 2.19), and then the data were analysed using SPSS software for editing and analysing data (Kinnear and Gray, 2006).

Mean scores and standard deviation were calculated for all aspects in the questionnaire, following the same method of analysis as for the original questionnaire (ORM) scale developed by Larrivee and Cook (1979), and also used and validated by Monsen and Frederickson (2004). The vast majority of studies, including my research, which tackled teachers' attitudes towards inclusive education, reported the findings either in terms of mean scores or in terms of percentages (Everington and Victoria, 1999; Lifshitz et al, 2001; Cook, 2001; Alghazo and Gaad, 2004; Avramidis and Kalyva, 2007; Batsiou et al., 2008). It is likely in these studies that the positive attitude goes along with a mean score if the scale is above the midpoint. Yet, among all these studies, there is no cut-off point with regard to the mean score or the percentages applicable to all studies.

As such, there is an inherent difficulty in interpreting mean values in terms of the Likert scale (Khaldi, 2010). In this study however, the mathematical mean of the 1-5 Likert scale is 3, this qualitatively expresses a ‘neutral view’ if implemented to measure teachers' attitudes towards inclusive education. Therefore, in terms of understanding teachers’ attitudes positively or negatively, then I feel a
range of mean score could serve to illustrate this purpose. As a result, considering the range of the scale, from (1-5), I have adopted the convention of regarding a mean score\(^8\) of (1–2.5) and the percentages below 40% as representing negative views of teachers’ attitudes towards inclusion, while a score of (3.5–5) and a percentage above 70% can be considered a positive viewpoint. However, if the percentage was between (40% - 70%) and the responses with regard a mean score lay between 2.5 and 3.5, then the outcomes were counted as a neutral viewpoint.

3.9 Qualitative Data Analysis

The qualitative analysis was applied to the data gathered from the series of interviews that were non-numerical in nature. These data were collected to elaborate the quantitative data, and to add to its richness, depth and detail. According to Tomlinson (1989), the material yielded from the ‘hierarchal focusing’ interview method can be analysed in the varied ways applicable to any qualitative data. There is a rich variety of qualitative research strategies and techniques (Mason, 2002), and more than one way to induce themes (Ryan and Bernard, 2003).

The general inductive approach is one of the common methods used as a framework to guide the analysis of data (Thomas, 2003); it comprises systematic procedures for analysing qualitative data where the analysis is guided by a specific objective. The purpose of using this strategy of analysis, as indicated by Thomas, (2003), is to condense the raw data into a brief summary format, to establish a link between the research objects and the summary findings that emerge from the raw data, and finally, to develop a model about the underlying structure of processes, which are evident in the raw data.

---

\(^8\) Similar boundaries for viewpoints were also used by previous studies (e.g. Khaldi 2010; and Boer et al., 2011).
In this study, analysing data inductively, as shown in figure 3.2 starts from data collection, followed by coding, and then detecting patterns, identifying the common variables, and determining the differences and relationships, creating categories and finally, identifying themes. This analysis was guided by a general agenda, related to teachers’ attitude towards inclusion, factors influencing teachers’ attitudes towards inclusion, and suggested strategies to enhance the quality of learning for children with SEN. The emerging themes that are related to the whole agenda are likely to give answers for the research questions of the qualitative phase.

Figure 3.2: the stages of data analysis followed to generate the themes from the raw data.

It is worth noting that the transcription and analysis of all interviews was done in Arabic. This is crucial to avoid losing the exact meaning of the participants’ ideas and information in the translation process. What follows is a description of the data analysis process which carried out in the following steps.

First: Transcription of the raw data: this step includes the entire answers for each question, word-for-word transcription of what the respondent said, which is likely to be accessible when returning to it. Each transcript was assigned a code number, as shown in Table 3.6; where T.1 (Teacher 1) is a reference for the first transcript, T.2 for the second and so on till T.19.
Second: Patterns, in this step, I identified the segment that contains similar traits between respondents.

Third: Creation of categorisation: in this step, I identified the segments that contain meaning units, created a label for the categories, and then linked categories to convey the key themes that are related to the research objectives. The coding and categorisation of the responses (See Appendix3) led to the creation of a number of categories (themes) and sub-categories that facilitated a smoother analysis of the data and drawing conclusions.

The fourth and final step involved statement generation, by summarising the respondent’s interpretations in a few sentences, or phrasal statements where appropriate.

The data collection was utilised to create a provisional outline of each participant's views regardless of the main research objectives. Thus, each participant was treated as a separate case. Subsequently, the set of transcripts were treated as a whole for the purpose of developing the categories and generating themes. Both analyses of quantitative and qualitative data of teachers' attitudes towards the inclusion in Jordan were then combined to respond to the main research questions and are presented in chapter 7.
3.10 Ethical Considerations

Ethical considerations are essential for conducting a research study, in which the researcher gives respondents the right for information they supplied to be treated according to strict standards (Bryman, 2004). There is a moral obligation to respond to the interest of participants, and give them sufficient information about the nature of research, so that they can decide whether to participate in the research or not. According to the British Education Research Association (BERA) ‘educational researchers should operate within an ethic of respect for any persons involved in the research they are undertaking (BERA, 2011, p.5).

Breakwell et al., (2000), identify five ethical principles that must be adhered to when carrying out research: Informed consent, where the researcher must acquire written informed consent before data collection. Deception should not be allowed, the right to withdraw, where participants must be assured that they can withdraw their participation at any time, without any consequences or penalisation. Debriefing; the researcher should ensure that participants be informed about the full aims of the research. Finally, confidentiality; the researcher must ensure that confidentiality will not be breached at any moment.

In this study, which investigates teachers’ attitudes towards inclusive education, I adhered to the five principles from Breakwell et al., (2000). Accordingly, the following ethical procedures were undertaken:

1. Permission for the study from the Ministry of Education (Appendix. 4). In order to gain access to the participants and location of the study, I and my supervisor wrote a letter to the Ministry of Education in Jordan to inform them about my intention and to have their approval of doing research that involves their teachers and held on their premises. Moreover, ethical standards also require that researchers should not put participants in a situation where they might be at risk of harm as a result of their participation
(BERA, 2004). This also was addressed by obtaining the permission of the employer from the Ministry of Education before the participation of any teacher. This was to make certain that no risks to the participants’ employment status were incurred.

2. Full ethical approval from Nottingham University; the ethical procedure used in this study was submitted to the Research Ethics Committee of the School of Education, University of Nottingham, and gained approval before I commenced this study.

3. Informed Consent ensures that prospective research participants have been fully informed about the risks and procedures involved in research and that their consent to participate has been obtained. I explained to the participant how the results of their involvement would be used, and how and to whom it would be reported. I also explained details of the study when I administered the questionnaire. Therefore, a covering letter (see appendix 3) was given to the teachers at the beginning of each questionnaire inviting them to participate in this study on a voluntary basis with recognition of the right of any participant to withdraw from the research for any or no reason, and at any time (BERA, 2011).

4. Confidentiality is the assurance that identifying information will not be made available to anyone not directly involved in the study (Almotairi, 2013). In dealing with the participants, I have protected their anonymity and privacy, assuring participants that confidentiality and anonymity are maintained at all times. I have also made the participants’ identities and the name of their organisation unidentifiable at any stage of the research process; indeed, participant identification was coded to assure their rights. According to the Ethical Guidelines for Educational Research ‘Researchers must recognise the participants’ entitlement to privacy and must accord them their rights to confidentiality and anonymity’ (BERA, 2011, p.7).
5. Regarding the interview, the interviewees needed to know that the interview was not recorded secretly and that the intention was to produce material for research purposes and agree to it. For the purpose of confidentiality, the interviewees were verbally informed, and face to face at the beginning of each interview on the importance of maintaining confidentiality. That would mean requesting them to understand that all discussions and activities carried out for the study must be respected and kept within our circle only, and according to the principles of ethics mentioned above. Participants will be provided, where possible, with a summary report of the key findings of this study.

3.11 Summary
This chapter has been concerned with methodological issues related to the investigation of teachers' attitudes towards the inclusion of children with special educational needs in the ordinary classroom. In this chapter, I have looked at the ontological and epistemological issues among three approaches; positivism, interpretivism and critical theory and their contributions to inclusive educational research.

In this chapter, I also clarified my justification of using the mixed method approach (close questionnaire and semi-structured interview), which was suggested by the nature of my research questions. Therefore, in relation to my research I adopt a pragmatic mixed methods/sequential approach (Creswell, 1995). The ‘sequential' refers to the collection of data in phases, where in this study the quantitative data (closed questionnaire) comes first; the result of this phase is essential for planning the second phase, and as such, the qualitative data will come later, to expand understanding. It is argued that the use of more than one method produced stronger inferences answered research questions that other methodologies could not, and allowed for greater diversity of findings (Teddlie& Tashakkori, 2003; Creswell & Clark, 2007; Denzin, 2010)
The chapter described the data collection techniques, the sample selection, and data analysis technique. It also outlined the procedure for data analysis of both the quantitative and qualitative data. The steps that were taken into consideration with regards to the preparation, implementation and analysis of the research instruments to improve the validity and reliability of the study for both the quantitative and qualitative phases were then presented. Finally, careful consideration has been given to the ethical issues involved.

Having discussed the approaches and methods adopted in this research, the next chapters reports and discusses the research findings of both the quantitative and qualitative phases concerning teachers’ attitudes towards inclusive education in turn and then, conjoined.
Chapter Four- Questionnaire Findings

4.1 Introduction
This chapter analyses and reports the results of the questionnaire on teachers’ attitudes towards the inclusion of children with SEN in ordinary schools in Jordan. It addresses the main research question: What are the current attitudes that teachers hold towards the inclusion of children with Special Education Needs (SEN) in ordinary schools in Jordan? and the following sub-questions:

1. What are the current attitudes of teachers towards the inclusion of children with Special Education Needs (SEN) in Jordanian ordinary schools?
2. Are there any significant differences in teachers’ attitudes towards inclusion that might be related to the variables of gender, age, type of school, experience, training and school location?
3. Which methods of support do teachers perceive as most likely to improve inclusive practices?

As detailed early in Chapter three, a closed questionnaire was distributed to a sample of 500 teachers; 367 teachers completed the questionnaire, resulting in a response rate of 73%. A representative sample was achieved in terms of gender, age, teaching experience, qualifications, knowledge in the area of SEN, school location, and whether the school had learning resource rooms or not.

Considering the narrow range of the questionnaire scale, which ranges from 1 to 5 (see Chapter 3), I adopted the convention of a mean score of (1 – 2.5) as representing negative views, while a score of (3.5 – 5) was considered to reflect a positive viewpoint, and the range between 2.5 and 3.5 was
interpreted as a neutral attitude\(^9\). What follows is a presentation of the findings from this questionnaire.

### 4.2 General Teachers’ Attitude towards Inclusive Education

Considering the range of the scales (from 1 to 5 in the scale measuring the cognitive component, from 1 to 5 in the scale measuring the affective component and from 1 to 5 in the scale measuring the behavioural) related to the sections on the questionnaire (Appendex1). It could be argued that the mean scores of the participants, as Table 4.1 shows, demonstrated neutral attitudes towards the general concept of inclusion.

Table 4.1: Mean scores and the standard deviation (SD) of the participants in the scale measuring teachers’ attitudes on the three components of attitude \(^{10}\) toward inclusive education

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Groups</th>
<th>Number of responses</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>(SD)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>General teachers’ attitude towards inclusion</td>
<td>376</td>
<td>3.32</td>
<td>0.79</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cognitive component: Teachers’ beliefs or knowledge about educating children with special needs in inclusive settings, section 2, questions 9-20.</td>
<td>376</td>
<td>3.25</td>
<td>0.52</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Affective component: Teachers’ feelings about educating pupils with special needs, section 2 questions 1-8.</td>
<td>376</td>
<td>3.15</td>
<td>1.15</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Behavioural component: Teachers’ views on how to act with a child with special needs in the classroom, section 5.</td>
<td>376</td>
<td>3.69</td>
<td>1.02</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

However, as figure 4.1 shows which gives more appropriate indication, the percentage of teachers who demonstrated negative attitude are greater than

\(^9\) Similar boundaries for this scale were also used by previous studies (e.g. Avramidis (2000) considered the mean value (3.51) as positive attitude, while Gaad and Al-Ghazo(2004) considered the mean value (3.2) as a neutral attitude. As for de Boer, Pijl and Minnaert (2011), they counted attitude as positive when the mean score was above 3.5 on a five-point Likert scale).

\(^{10}\) The three components of attitude have been discussed earlier in chapter 2, section 2.3.4.
those with positive. Potential factors like qualification in the area of SEN and teaching qualification, as explained below, are seen to have an impact on teachers’ attitude towards inclusive education and children with SEN.

**Figure 4.1: The variation of teachers’ attitude towards inclusive education in Jordan**

Moreover, a closer inspection of Table 4.1 shows that teachers have neutral beliefs regarding the concept of inclusion (cognitive component), feel neutral about including children with SEN in their classroom (affective) and have a positive intention of implementing inclusion (behavioural). This, as will be discussed in greater detail in the coming section 4.3, suggests incompatibility of teachers’ attitude towards inclusion.

**Qualification in the area of SEN:** an independent-sample t-test was conducted (Coolican, 2005) to examine the mean score regarding general teachers’ attitude towards inclusion, to find out whether there were significant differences between the independent variables. Table 4.2 shows that the mean number of teachers with qualifications in the area of special education needs (M = 3.37, SD = 0.53) was higher than the mean for the teachers lacking in qualification (M = 3.17, SD = 0.46.). The difference between means was significant, P< 0.05, revealing that teachers with qualifications in SEN held significantly more positive attitudes towards including children with SEN in ordinary schools more than teachers without such qualifications.
**General teaching qualification:** the second prominent finding of the study refers to the participants’ qualifications. Table 4.2 shows that teachers with a university professional general teaching qualification, scored more positive attitudes towards the inclusion of children with SEN in regular classrooms (M = 3.24, SD = 0.44) than those with no such qualification (M = 3.13, SD = 0.41). This difference was again significant, P < 0.05. However, examining the mean score of the other factors regarding general teachers’ attitude towards inclusion shown in Table 4.2, it appears that none of the remaining variables show significant differences between teacher groups, P > 0.05, neither in the t-tests for gender and learning resource rooms, nor on the one-way ANOVA between groups, post-hoc-test for age, teaching experiences and school location. The actual difference in mean scores between the groups was quite small. (See figure 4.2).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Grouping Variable</th>
<th>No.</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>Std. Deviation</th>
<th>P. Value</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Gender: Male</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Male</td>
<td>166</td>
<td>3.18</td>
<td>0.432</td>
<td>0.994</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Female</td>
<td>201</td>
<td>3.18</td>
<td>0.439</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Age:21-30</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>21-30</td>
<td>117</td>
<td>3.21</td>
<td>0.467</td>
<td>0.169</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>31-40</td>
<td>157</td>
<td>3.14</td>
<td>0.420</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>41-50</td>
<td>93</td>
<td>3.20</td>
<td>0.419</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Teaching experience:1-5</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1-5</td>
<td>138</td>
<td>3.20</td>
<td>0.455</td>
<td>0.623</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6-11</td>
<td>106</td>
<td>3.15</td>
<td>0.433</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12+</td>
<td>123</td>
<td>3.18</td>
<td>0.417</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>General teaching qualification: Yes</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>164</td>
<td>3.24</td>
<td>0.44</td>
<td>0.013</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No</td>
<td>203</td>
<td>3.13</td>
<td>0.41</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Qualification/s in the area of SEN: Yes</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>59</td>
<td>3.33</td>
<td>0.475</td>
<td>0.004</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No</td>
<td>308</td>
<td>3.15</td>
<td>0.422</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>School location: Village</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Village</td>
<td>173</td>
<td>3.19</td>
<td>0.044</td>
<td>0.356</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Town</td>
<td>82</td>
<td>3.15</td>
<td>0.439</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>City</td>
<td>112</td>
<td>3.17</td>
<td>0.147</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>School with resources room: Yes</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>102</td>
<td>3.22</td>
<td>0.470</td>
<td>0.268</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No</td>
<td>265</td>
<td>3.16</td>
<td>0.421</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Figure 4.2: Diagrammatic representation related to general teachers’ attitudes towards inclusion according to the variables

- **Attitudes based on gender**
  - Male

- **Attitudes based on age**
  - 20-30
  - 31-40
  - 41+

- **Attitudes based on SEN qualification**
  - qualified in SEN
  - Nonqualified

- **Teaching qualification**
  - Yes
  - No

- **Attitudes based on school location**
  - Village
  - Town
  - City

- **Attitude & availability of resources room**
  - School with resources room
  - School without resources room

- **Attitudes based on years of experience**
  - 1-5 years
  - 6-11 years
  - 12+ years
4.3 The Three Components of Attitudes

Analysis of the items in the questionnaire related to the three components of attitude that discussed earlier in chapter 2, section 2.3.4: the cognitive (teachers’ beliefs or knowledge about educating children with special needs), the affective components of attitudes (teachers’ feelings about educating pupils with special needs) and the behavioural components of attitude (participants’ views on how to act with a child with special needs in the classroom). From this analysis, it could be argued that the mean scores of the participants indicate that teachers have a neutral view for both the cognitive (mean = 3.25) and affective (mean = 3.15) components. Whilst for the behavioural component of attitude, as table 4.3 shows, teachers have a positive intention of implementing inclusion with a mean score of 3.69.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>The three components of attitude</th>
<th>Number of responses</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>(SD)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Cognitive component</td>
<td>376</td>
<td>3.25</td>
<td>0.52</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Affective component</td>
<td>376</td>
<td>3.15</td>
<td>1.15</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Behavioural component:</td>
<td>376</td>
<td>3.69</td>
<td>1.02</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Moreover, for the purpose of statistical testing, The Pearson correlation coefficient was computed to measure the degree of relationship between the three components of attitude. As shown in Table 4.4, there were no statistically significant relationships between the behavioural component and the affective component; the significance level is greater than 0.05.
Table 4.4 Correlation coefficients between the three components of attitude

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Cognitive</th>
<th>Affective</th>
<th>Behavioural</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Cognitive</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pearson Correlation</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>.455</td>
<td>.262</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sig. (2-tailed)</td>
<td>.000</td>
<td>.000</td>
<td>.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>N</td>
<td>367</td>
<td>367</td>
<td>367</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Affective</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pearson Correlation</td>
<td>.455</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>.170</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sig. (2-tailed)</td>
<td>.000</td>
<td>.051</td>
<td>.051</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>N</td>
<td>367</td>
<td>367</td>
<td>367</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Behavioural</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pearson Correlation</td>
<td>.262</td>
<td>.170</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sig. (2-tailed)</td>
<td>.000</td>
<td>.051</td>
<td>.051</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>N</td>
<td>367</td>
<td>367</td>
<td>367</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

These findings suggest some incongruence concerning teachers' attitudes and practice toward inclusion. Teachers would like to act inclusively, even though their knowledge and skills might hamper realising such intentions. Literature indicates that the discussion about whether attitudes predict behaviour (e.g. teacher’s interactions with children with SEN are correlated with their attitudes) is misleading and not all the variability in behaviour is predictable from attitudes. Hila et al., (2014) attributes that factors include differences in patterns of social interaction; policies and practices; as well as differences in foundational religious and philosophical ideas, may be different in cultural contexts where attitudes are not construed as the main drivers of an individuals’ actions. The attitude-behaviour relationship will be discussed in greater details in Chapter 5, section 5.7.

The following sections address a closer inspection of the data associated with these three components of teachers’ attitudes toward inclusion and children with SEN.

**4.3.1 The Cognitive Component of Attitude**

Examining teachers’ responses to the item concerned with teachers’ knowledge of inclusive education, shown in Table 4.5, indicates that almost
half the participants (50.4%) consider themselves to be familiar with inclusive education. However, regarding the needs of children with SEN at the professional level, only 34% of participants considered themselves to have sufficient knowledge of children’s needs. In this respect, 68.7% of the sample believes that it is essential for class teachers to attend in-service training relating to the inclusion of children with SEN. This is consistent with their response to the statement in the Questionnaire ‘training which includes theory and practice are an appropriate way to deal with children with SEN’ (Item2.13).

Table 4.5: Participants’ responses to some items in the questionnaire: percentages with negative, neutral and positive views of attitudes towards inclusive education

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Items</th>
<th>No</th>
<th>% Negative views - mean score (1-2.5)</th>
<th>% Neutral views - mean score (2.51-3.5)</th>
<th>% Positive views - mean score (3.51-5)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Teachers’ knowledge of inclusive education</td>
<td>367</td>
<td>17%</td>
<td>32.6%</td>
<td>50.4%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Professional knowledge about the needs of children with SEN</td>
<td>367</td>
<td>45.3%</td>
<td>20.7%</td>
<td>34%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The social development of children with SEN</td>
<td>367</td>
<td>25.8%</td>
<td>13.7%</td>
<td>60.5%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The academic development of children with SEN.</td>
<td>367</td>
<td>39.1%</td>
<td>22.7%</td>
<td>38.2%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The advantage of inclusion if the appropriate support services are available.</td>
<td>367</td>
<td>18.4%</td>
<td>12.5%</td>
<td>69.1%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The need for training to manage children with SEN</td>
<td>367</td>
<td>11.5%</td>
<td>19.8%</td>
<td>68.7%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

For the purpose of statistical comparison, the mean scores presented in Table 4.6 were used to inspect the apparent differences shown in teachers’ knowledge. Examination of these results reveals that there are differences in teachers’ knowledge in the area of SEN. These favour teachers with qualifications in the area of SEN, with a higher mean score of 3.47, then teachers with a general teaching qualification (mean = 3.40). Those with qualifications, usually subject-based, had the least knowledge about children with SEN needs (mean = 3.2). These findings might indicate a correlation between teachers’ knowledge about children’s needs and their general
attitudes towards these children. Analysis in this study shows that a teaching qualification and/or the qualification in the area of SEN are variables associated with a positive attitude towards inclusion.

**Table 4.6: Teachers’ attitudes towards knowledge and training**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Teachers’ knowledge in the area of SEN</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>Std. Deviation</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Teachers with qualification/s in the area of SEN (e.g. degree in SEN or higher diploma in learning difficulties)</td>
<td>59</td>
<td>3.47</td>
<td>0.66</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Teachers with general teaching qualification only</td>
<td>164</td>
<td>3.40</td>
<td>0.57</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Teachers with no general teaching qualification (e.g. Bachelor of Arts or Bachelor of Science degree only)</td>
<td>365</td>
<td>3.2</td>
<td>0.53</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**4.3.2 The Affective Component of Attitude**

The questionnaire reveals notable patterns of responses concerning teachers’ feelings about educating children with SEN. Table 4.5 shows that more than half of participants teachers (60.5%) agree that the policy of inclusion can have social advantages for children with SEN. This is consistent with their response to the item ‘*inclusion offers mixed groups interactions that foster understanding and acceptance of differences among students*’ (Item 2.5). However, only 38% of the teachers agree with the statement that such a policy can emphasise academic advantages for the concerned children. This is consistent with the item: ‘*general education classroom promotes the academic growth of children with SENs*’ (Item 2.6). The data reflects that teachers were less positive regarding the academic aspects and attainment of children with SEN when grouped together with other peers in ordinary classes.

**4.3.3 The Behavioural Component of Attitude**

In this part of the questionnaire, teachers were asked to respond to ten statements. These statements reflect their attitudes towards their preparation and strategies for supporting children with SEN in their classes. Based on the statistics of the mean score of each statement, it may be noted that teachers gave priority to a ‘whole class teaching strategy’ more than ‘individual teaching strategies’. This is deduced from the sequence mean
score of each statement presented in Table 4.7, where the first five statements scored a higher mean than the remaining five. According to item 5.1, most of the teachers (310 out of the 367 respondents) are keen to let all children participate in the class with an average mean of 4.24. They are also keen to select materials according to children’s needs (277 out of the 367 respondents). This is consistent with the statement "I select the suitable materials that make it possible for all children to learn" (Item5.2). However, it is worth noting that individual support within a ‘whole class teaching strategy’ has less priority. For example, designing an Individual Education Plan (IEP) for children with SEN ranked the bottom among the whole ten statements, with a mean score of 3.09. This is consistent with their response to the statement ‘I design an individual education plan for children with SEN’ (Item 5.10), where (117out of the 367 respondents) were not in favour of planning.

Table 4.7: Teachers’ attitudes towards strategies of supporting children with SEN in classrooms

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Teachers’ attitudes towards strategies of supporting children with SEN in classrooms</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>SD</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>I am keen to let all children participate in the classroom</td>
<td>366</td>
<td>4.24</td>
<td>0.91</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I select suitable materials that make it possible for all children to learn</td>
<td>366</td>
<td>4.02</td>
<td>0.85</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I vary the way of teaching to let all children learn.</td>
<td>366</td>
<td>3.96</td>
<td>0.94</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I give individual attention to children who need help</td>
<td>366</td>
<td>3.84</td>
<td>0.97</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I mix the children when they are performing an assignment</td>
<td>366</td>
<td>3.75</td>
<td>1.04</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I set instructional objectives to cover all children including those with SEN and disabilities</td>
<td>366</td>
<td>3.73</td>
<td>0.96</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I select learning tasks that children with SEN and disability can do</td>
<td>366</td>
<td>3.49</td>
<td>1.12</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I keep daily records of the progress children make in class</td>
<td>366</td>
<td>3.40</td>
<td>1.13</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I give sufficient time for children with SEN to complete their tasks in the classroom</td>
<td>366</td>
<td>3.37</td>
<td>1.14</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I design an Individual Education Plan(IEP) for children with SEN</td>
<td>365</td>
<td>3.09</td>
<td>1.21</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
4.4 Teachers’ Attitudes towards Type of SEN and Disability

Table 4.8 shows the mean and standard deviation of teachers’ attitudes towards including children with SEN in the regular classroom, according to the type of disability. An inspection of the distribution of the mean score, listed in numerical order for the nine items shown in Figure 4.2, reveals that teachers are more accepting of children with physical disabilities (mean=3.52). Whereas, severe learning difficulties were the lowest in terms of acceptance among teachers on a mean score of 1.83. Larger standard deviation for some items, e.g. blindness SD=1.22, deafness SD=1.17, and physical disabilities SD=1.10 indicate that there are relatively more teachers scoring towards one extreme or the other from the mean score; this points to differences in attitude towards these disabilities.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Type of disability</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>SD</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Physical disability</td>
<td>3.52</td>
<td>1.10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Visual impairment</td>
<td>3.20</td>
<td>1.08</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hearing impairment</td>
<td>3.11</td>
<td>1.10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Speech and language difficulties</td>
<td>3.08</td>
<td>1.08</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mild to moderate intellectual disability</td>
<td>2.65</td>
<td>1.03</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Blindness</td>
<td>2.62</td>
<td>1.22</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Deafness</td>
<td>2.22</td>
<td>1.17</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Emotional and behavioural difficulties</td>
<td>1.91</td>
<td>0.97</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Severe learning difficulties</td>
<td>1.83</td>
<td>0.94</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Figure 4.3: Diagrammatic representation of teachers’ attitudes towards kind of disabilities
Differences of attitude according to type of disability based on gender

An independent samples u-test (Coolican, 2005) was conducted to find out whether there are significant differences between male and female teachers’ attitudes towards inclusion, based on type of disability. As Table 4.9 shows, the result of the u-test indicates a significant difference towards including children with SEN and disability (e.g. mild to moderate intellectual disability, severe learning difficulties, blindness, hearing impairment, deafness, and children with speech and language difficulties). This difference was significant, $P< 0.05$. The result of the Mann-Whitney u-test indicated that male teachers have more positive attitudes towards including children in these categories in my sample.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Type of disability</th>
<th>Gender</th>
<th>Mean rank</th>
<th>Significance level</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Mild to moderate intellectual disability</td>
<td>Male</td>
<td>205.1</td>
<td>0.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Female</td>
<td>166.5</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Severe learning difficulties</td>
<td>Male</td>
<td>207.2</td>
<td>0.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Female</td>
<td>163.7</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Emotional and behavioural difficulties</td>
<td>Male</td>
<td>198.4</td>
<td>0.09</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Female</td>
<td>171.1</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Physical disability</td>
<td>Male</td>
<td>189.7</td>
<td>0.28</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Female</td>
<td>178.3</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Visual impairment</td>
<td>Male</td>
<td>192.9</td>
<td>0.12</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Female</td>
<td>178.3</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Blindness</td>
<td>Male</td>
<td>209.6</td>
<td>0.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Female</td>
<td>162.0</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hearing impairment</td>
<td>Male</td>
<td>197.5</td>
<td>0.01</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Female</td>
<td>171.8</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Deafness</td>
<td>Male</td>
<td>205.6</td>
<td>0.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Female</td>
<td>166.1</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Speech and language difficulties</td>
<td>Male</td>
<td>197.2</td>
<td>0.02</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Female</td>
<td>173.0</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Differences of attitude according to type of disability based on age

A Kruskal-Wallis Test (Pallant, 2001) was conducted to explore the impact of age on level of attitudes towards including children in ordinary classes, by type of disability. The result presented in Table 4.10 shows significant differences only in one category ‘Mild to moderate intellectual disability’. Inspection of the mean ranks for the three groups of age indicates that the
older group of teachers (40-50+) had the highest positive attitude score, while the youngest (20-30) group reported the lowest. This difference was significant, P< 0.05. Teachers’ attitude towards kind of SEN and disability will be analysed further in chapter 5, section5.3.2.

Table 4.10: Differences of attitude according to type of disability based on age

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Type of disability</th>
<th>Age groups</th>
<th>Mean rank</th>
<th>Significance level</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Mild to moderate intellectual disability</td>
<td>20-30</td>
<td>163.1</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>31-40</td>
<td>182.3</td>
<td>0.003</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>41-50+</td>
<td>211.0</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Severe learning difficulties</td>
<td>20-30</td>
<td>181.9</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>31-40</td>
<td>174.4</td>
<td>0.113</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>41-50+</td>
<td>201.0</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Emotional and behavioural difficulties</td>
<td>20-30</td>
<td>192.7</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>31-40</td>
<td>178.8</td>
<td>0.480</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>41-50+</td>
<td>179.8</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Physical disability</td>
<td>20-30</td>
<td>179.1</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>31-40</td>
<td>188.1</td>
<td>0.747</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>41-50+</td>
<td>181.1</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Visual impairment</td>
<td>20-30</td>
<td>169.8</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>31-40</td>
<td>190.1</td>
<td>0.190</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>41-50+</td>
<td>191.1</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Blindness</td>
<td>20-30</td>
<td>190.7</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>31-40</td>
<td>178.1</td>
<td>0.606</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>41-50+</td>
<td>183.3</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hearing impairment</td>
<td>20-30</td>
<td>181.2</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>31-40</td>
<td>182.8</td>
<td>0.889</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>41-50+</td>
<td>187.5</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Deafness</td>
<td>20-30</td>
<td>196.3</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>31-40</td>
<td>175.8</td>
<td>0.255</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>41-50+</td>
<td>182.2</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Speech and language difficulties</td>
<td>20-30</td>
<td>184.4</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>31-40</td>
<td>177.9</td>
<td>0.504</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>41-50+</td>
<td>193.6</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Differences of attitude according to type of disability based on experience

Examination of data shown in Table 4.11 points to significant differences between teachers’ experiences and their attitudes towards physical disability, and children with speech and language difficulties. This difference was significant, P< 0.05. Inspection of the mean ranks for the three groups of experience suggests that teachers with (6–11) years of experience had the highest positive attitude score towards including children with physical
disability and children with speech and language difficulties, while teachers with (1-5) years of experience reported the lowest.

Table 4.11: Differences of attitude according to type of disability based on experience

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Type of disability</th>
<th>Years of experience</th>
<th>Mean rank</th>
<th>Significance level</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Mild to moderate intellectual disability</td>
<td>1-5</td>
<td>166.8</td>
<td>0.051</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>6-11</td>
<td>191.5</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>12+</td>
<td>195.0</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Severe learning difficulties</td>
<td>1-5</td>
<td>175.4</td>
<td>0.278</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>6-11</td>
<td>181.1</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>12+</td>
<td>194.6</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Emotional and behavioural difficulties</td>
<td>1-5</td>
<td>180.0</td>
<td>0.491</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>6-11</td>
<td>193.1</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>12+</td>
<td>179.0</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Physical disability</td>
<td>1-5</td>
<td>176.9</td>
<td>0.049</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>6-11</td>
<td>203.8</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>12+</td>
<td>173.2</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Visual impairment</td>
<td>1-5</td>
<td>170.0</td>
<td>0.104</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>6-11</td>
<td>197.0</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>12+</td>
<td>188.4</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Blindness</td>
<td>1-5</td>
<td>188.0</td>
<td>0.806</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>6-11</td>
<td>181.0</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>12+</td>
<td>180.4</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hearing impairment</td>
<td>1-5</td>
<td>171.3</td>
<td>0.066</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>6-11</td>
<td>201.9</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>12+</td>
<td>181.4</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Deafness</td>
<td>1-5</td>
<td>188.4</td>
<td>0.807</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>6-11</td>
<td>182.1</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>12+</td>
<td>180.6</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Speech and language difficulties</td>
<td>1-5</td>
<td>168.9</td>
<td>0.024</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>6-11</td>
<td>205.0</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>12+</td>
<td>182.8</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

However, the inspection of the mean rank of the remaining variables (e.g. general teaching qualification, qualification/s in the area of SEN, school location and school with resources room) indicates that none of these variables presented significant differences in attitude towards any type of disability. The differences were not significant, P > 0.05.

4.5 Teachers’ Attitudes towards Inclusive Practice

Methods for improving inclusive practice were presented in the questionnaire, which aimed to obtain feedback from teachers about the possible ways and means that contribute to developing more inclusive education. It concerns
teachers’ attitudes towards the idea of inclusion and factors that facilitate inclusive practice for children with SEN.

4.5.1 Teachers’ Attitudes towards Method of Support for Children with SEN

Table 4.12 shows the distribution of the mean score for the methods suggested by Heiman (2004) to support children with SEN. These methods are: the two-teacher in the class (two teachers teach simultaneously in the classroom with one of them, who has had training in special education, concentrating on the children with SEN); in class and out in (this method would enable children with SEN to benefit from two worlds: the special instruction they needed together with regular lessons and interactions with their peers in regular settings) and finally, the rejection of inclusion (children with SEN to study in separate setting, according to special programs). Findings indicate that the most preferred method among teachers is to support children with SEN in the ordinary classes with additional assistance from support teachers (mean = 3.76). The in-and-out method, which provides some lessons in the regular classroom and some in resource rooms, ranks the second with an average mean of 3.71. While rejection of inclusion and teaching children with SEN in separate classes, according to special programmes, comes the lowest among these methods, with a mean score of 3.29. These findings suggest that while teachers favour supporting all children together inside ordinary classrooms, they also expect to implement it using different teaching methods.

Table 4.12: Teachers’ Attitudes towards Models of Inclusion

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Teachers’ attitudes towards models of inclusion</th>
<th>No.</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>SD</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Two teachers in the class</td>
<td>366</td>
<td>3.76</td>
<td>1.46</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>In class-and-out in resource rooms</td>
<td>364</td>
<td>3.71</td>
<td>1.55</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Rejection of inclusion</td>
<td>365</td>
<td>3.29</td>
<td>1.21</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
4.5.2 Further Areas to Improve the quality of Inclusion

Examination of the mean scores of Table 4.13 indicates that participants, generally, have a positive view towards the value of improving inclusive education to meet the needs of children with SEN. Almost 78% of the total sample (285 out of 367 teaches) point to the significant need of improving the quality of support service, which retains a higher score among all factors. Moreover, listening to the children’s voice and enabling them to present their views also has priority in teachers’ views with a percentage of 71%. Again, almost 71% of the sample believes that positive attitudes towards inclusion and improving teachers’ knowledge about children with SEN have been considered important factors for inclusive education. At the same time, 70% of the sample noted that in-service training is essential. Findings from this analysis suggest that teachers agree with various aspects that might aid inclusive education practices. However, factors like improving the quality of support services, increasing teachers’ knowledge about the needs of children with SEN and teachers’ positive attitudes have been areas of interest.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Methods for improving inclusive practices</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>%</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>SD</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Improving the quality of support services</td>
<td>285</td>
<td>77.7%</td>
<td>4.23</td>
<td>1.27</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Improving teachers’ knowledge about children with SEN</td>
<td>264</td>
<td>71.9%</td>
<td>3.98</td>
<td>1.40</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Teachers’ positive attitudes towards inclusion</td>
<td>259</td>
<td>70.6%</td>
<td>3.98</td>
<td>1.33</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>School enabling children to present their views</td>
<td>259</td>
<td>70.6%</td>
<td>4.00</td>
<td>1.36</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>In-service training/workshops</td>
<td>255</td>
<td>69.9%</td>
<td>3.96</td>
<td>1.33</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Participation of children with SEN in classroom activities</td>
<td>260</td>
<td>70.8%</td>
<td>3.98</td>
<td>1.36</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

4.6 Summary of the Questionnaire Findings

In this study, the analysis of the questionnaire reveals that teachers in Jordan are relatively neutral in most aspects of inclusion. Mean scores for most aspects ranged between 2.55 and 3.57. Statistically, there are no significant differences in teachers’ general attitude toward inclusion based on the background characteristics of gender, age, teaching experience, school location and the availability of resource rooms. The only background characteristic that seems to have significant influence is related to teachers with qualifications in the area of SEN, and those with teaching qualifications.
Statistically, they show more positive attitudes towards inclusion than those without such qualifications.

However, regarding the cognitive, affective, and behavioural components of attitude towards including children with SEN in ordinary schools, teachers demonstrate neutrality concerning cognitive and affective components of attitudes. Yet, they have a more positive intention regarding implementation of inclusion (the behavioural domain). These findings suggest a discrepancy between teachers' desire to put inclusion into practice, perhaps compromised by their belief of lack of knowledge and skills. This will be explored in greater details in sections 5.3 and 7.3.5.

The findings of the questionnaire also revealed that teachers, in general, have greater willingness to include children with certain type of disabilities, such as physical disabilities rather than children with emotional and behavioural difficulties (EBD). Children with EBD were more likely to be the cause of more concern to teachers than children with other types of special educational needs.

Furthermore, the questionnaire indicates that teachers believe the policy of inclusion in Jordan can have social advantages for children with SEN. Nevertheless, the data reflects that teachers were less positive about the academic aspects and the attainment of children with SEN when grouped together with other peers in ordinary classes. Statistically, teachers see that increasing the quality of support services, improving teachers’ knowledge about children with SEN, professional development and teachers’ positive attitudes towards inclusion might be steps to improve inclusive practice.

Based on the findings, it is apparent that it would be premature to underline or identify teachers’ attitudes towards the policy of inclusion in Jordan across all elements analysed. Although, the use of the questionnaire serves to provide answers for several aspects in this study, this method does not fully
evaluate the complexity and understanding of the multifaceted nature of attitudes to inclusion. The questionnaire, for example could not determine why participants’ responses were primarily neutral towards inclusion nor provide clarity regarding the incongruence between teachers desire to act inclusively and their apparent attitude in other areas.

Therefore, it has been concluded that it is necessary to explore in depth teachers’ attitudes, and the causes and factors responsible for these apparent views across the sample of Jordanian teachers. Accordingly, a sample of teachers, who were willing to speak, were interviewed in the subsequent phase of this study.

The following analysis presents the results of interviews with teachers in ordinary schools. The results of analysis are split into two parts: Chapter 5 will address teachers’ attitudes towards inclusion, and the factors affecting the apparent attitude. This chapter will provide an answer to the second research question; ‘what factors influence teachers’ attitudes towards the inclusion of children with SEN?’ Chapter 6 will then outline teachers’ opinions on possible ways to improve inclusive education and teachers’ attitudes towards inclusivity. This chapter will provide an answer to the third research question: ‘what challenges have to be overcome to enhance the efficacy of teaching for children with SEN in Jordanian ordinary schools?’
Chapter Five-Research Findings: Teachers’ Views of Inclusion

5.1 Introduction
This chapter presents a qualitative characterisation of teachers’ attitude towards inclusion of children with special education needs (SEN) in ordinary schools in Jordan. In my methodology chapter (section 3.9), I explained in detail how the themes and sub themes were developed from the qualitative analysis, where each participant in this study was initially treated as a separate case; then, views were gathered to generate profiles of participants’ views for each theme and sub-theme. Findings in this chapter are reported in terms of four key themes:

- Neutrality towards inclusive education
- Social and academic impact of inclusion
- Barriers towards the implementation of inclusive education
- The moderating effect of faith and socio-cultural perceptions.

In the discussion of the key themes, teachers’ emergent views were portrayed and compared with contemporary inclusive education literature.

5.2 Neutrality towards Inclusive Education
As indicated in Chapter 2, the literature suggests that a teacher’s attitude is a key factor in inclusive education. Teachers’ positive attitudes are one of the main predictors of the successful implementation of inclusive practices in the classroom (Avramidis, Bayliss and Buden, 2000). In Jordan, key policies towards accelerating inclusive education was initiated in 1993, but teachers’ knowledge of such guidance remains scant. Gaining insight into teachers’ attitudes towards inclusive education in Jordan is a core objective. There were several opportunities for participants to express their views during the interviews. The following section presents the content analysis of these views.
Positive attitudes towards inclusion

On a question of how participant teachers see inclusive education, almost a third (6 out of 19) expressed some broad positive definitions of inclusion. This category contained participants, who included remarks regarding the efficiency of inclusion. Moreover, they believed in the adequacy of inclusive education, and its role in meeting the needs of children with SEN. They also identified some general positive contributions to inclusion, in the contexts of academic achievement, social interaction, and securing children’s rights to education. This group of participants believe that inclusion is the ‘right’ choice for meeting children’s needs. They emphasised the potential of inclusion to break down barriers and foster acceptance of others. This is illustrated by the comments made by T6, T16 and T14:

Inclusion is essential and the right choice for children with SEN. Inclusion is a right and an educational process that has a significant impact upon children with SEN. Inclusion aids children not to feel isolated, inferior or different from the other, inclusion is an effective approach for children, parents and the entire society (T6).

The inclusive education is important and even, vital for children with SEN in Jordan. If children have the ability to learn and to share others learning, then it is a fundamental step to include them in ordinary schools. This will enable them to feel equal with others; can learn like the ordinary ones in the schools, and to be useful members in the society (T16).

Recently, as the interests are directed mainly to the children; where ‘normal’ children have their rights to be educated in a safe, suitable and comfortable environment, so do those who have SEN, they have the right to be educated in a suitable inclusive environment with suitable support services as well (T14).

Similarly, in their responses to the same question, T17 and T18 agree with the principles of inclusive education. For instance, T18 considers the current inclusive policy as an important step towards securing the right of children with SEN in education. However, reference was made to the lack of support services and the coherence between addressing the needs of children with SEN and their peers in the class. T17 explained that

I have a belief that children with special needs are active members of our society. Understanding and securing their need within adequate inclusive environment is big demand. Children with SEN were less
visible due to deficient understanding of their needs; inclusive education practices need further modification to suit the diverse needs of these children (T17).

**Negative attitudes towards inclusion**

On the other hand, not all participants tended to have positive views towards inclusive education in Jordan. More than half the participants (10 out of 19) did not support such a policy and practices. Their comments were associated with negative remarks on inclusion, such as:

- Inclusion is confusion and artificial, difficult to be implemented (T2).

- Inclusion creates a highly problematic [situation]; it leads to the loss for both children with SEN and other normal peers (T8).

Other participants felt that:

- The inclusion of children with SEN in ordinary schools has increased the duties of teachers in the classrooms and affects their performance. Most teachers are unwilling to deal with these children and schools are not well equipped to meet their needs (T10).

Five participants consider the current practices of inclusion out of touch with classroom realities. They believe that including all children with SEN in the ordinary classrooms is not an appropriate solution. Representative of this view, T7 commented:

- Including children with SEN within the current provisions is not a right decision. The presence of some children with SEN inside ordinary classes usually disturbs me and others’ attentions. I think it will be more practical if educated within provision out of ordinary classes (T7).

Moreover, most participants in this category believe that inclusive practices are incompatible with the needs of children with SEN. They considered such applications problematic, in that schools and teachers are not in a position to cope with the increased numbers of these children in their classes. Some teachers voiced their views in the following comments.

- As an ordinary teacher, to deliver my lesson and to achieve targets, my class should be disciplined. A child with a serious attention problem often distracts the entire class from been focused. I have limited knowledge towards their need. I try my best. But, at the same time, I
have to overlook their need, since I have a syllabus determined by
time and a scheme of work that I should follow and complete (T2).

Within the current situation in our school, I do not think inclusion as a
provision for all children with SEN will achieve its aims, rather it create
more difficulties for children and teachers (T1).

The current practices of inclusion are problematic; my school is not fit
to meet some individuals’ needs. Children with special needs often
cause disturbances to my class, sometimes it is difficult for me to cope
with the class that contains thirty children or more, some of them with
exceptional needs, their existence usually disturb me, harm others and
affects my enthusiasm towards teaching (T11).

Children with exceptional needs are usually isolated inside classes,
even in outdoor activities; sitting alone, hardly sharing other children
games, when I see them I do not encourage them to do so, even most
teachers in my school do the same, maybe the social view that we
grew up with or our lack of experience (T4).

**Mixed attitudes towards inclusion**

When asked to express their views of inclusive education, three respondents
(T3, T5 and T19) agree that there are advantages to including children with
SEN in ordinary schools. However, particularly when the setting is equipped
with appropriate support services and well-trained staff. T3 supported this by
saying:

> There is an advantage for inclusion, but successful inclusion will not
> accord unless these children got sustained by an adequate provision
> and well trained teachers who are able to cope and communicate with
> the whole class context (T3).

T5 thinks that inclusion could be a reasonable environment if children with
SEN

> Were able to share the normal activities and their needs do not
> prevent them from learning also(T5).

While, T19 found it problematic to judge about the efficiency of what she
called “the automatic inclusive practices”. She explained that:

> As a matter of absence or lack of special school and centres, children
> with special needs, particularly in rural areas have no choices, but the
> ordinary schools. Some of these children are with exceptional needs,
> most ordinary teachers, including me are untrained to deal with such
> needs. Most schools are not well constructed to meet these needs. I do
believe that children with SEN and disability have the right to be educated within a suitable environment. But, within these standards, I can’t judge the efficiency of the current ‘automatic inclusion’ policy in a reasonable way (T19).

In the summary of above responses, it may be concluded that one third (6 participants) expressed only positive attitudes towards inclusion, whilst two thirds had reservations or were negative. This might lead to assumption that there is a lack of support for full inclusion and a sense of helplessness among ordinary teachers in Jordan (e.g. need for training and support). This will be discussed in greater detail in the next chapter.

5.3. The Social and Academic Impact of Inclusive Education

The social impact of inclusive education

Through the analysis of responses about the social impact of inclusion upon pupils with SEN, three sub-themes of attitudes emerged:

a) Inclusion fosters understanding and acceptance of differences among children.

b) Inclusion has negative effects on other children in the classroom.

c) Social interaction relies upon the nature and type of SEN and disability.

(a) Inclusion fosters understanding and acceptance of differences among pupils

Almost a third of the participants (6 out of 19) clearly indicated that inclusion fosters understanding and acceptance of differences among children. Positive remarks were revealed from these participants about the social impact of inclusion. For instance, T16 believes that inclusion supports children, who might be deemed to have SEN within ordinary classrooms and creates a constructive climate. Similarly, T1 believes that inclusion enhances the community setting among children with and without SEN. It also, as teacher T14 indicates, increases positive peer interactions and improving social skills among children with SEN. T6 also has a strong belief that inclusion has:

A significant impact upon children with SEN, aids children not to feel inferior and different from others and offers social interactions among
children. When children— even ‘poor’ academically-included within ordinary class, such climate encourages the social interactions and creates a feeling of acceptance towards others (T6).

Whilst T19 stress the usefulness of inclusion on the social and emotional development of children with SEN, T16 believes that the isolation of such children is morally unacceptable; this could cause social harm and make such children less visible in society. Again, T15 was very clear in his belief that inclusion offers mixed group interactions that foster understanding and acceptance of differences. He supports this by commenting:

On the first days of schools, usually pupils with SEN are exposed to a type of bullying, after a couple of months, non-disabled children often develop positive interactions and perceptions towards these children. I noticed that there are group of friends in my school accompanied a child with SEN, playing, serving and buying things for him from the tuck-shop (T15).

(b) Inclusion has negative effects on other children in the classroom.

On the other hand, almost four participants agree that the inclusion of children with SEN, as T11 assumes, is likely to demonstrate negative effects on ordinary classes; causing distractions for both teachers and other children. T2, on the other hand believes that such applications are problematic, and thinks that schools and teachers are not in a position to cope with the increased numbers of these children in their classes. T2 voiced this view in the following comment:

The current practices of inclusion are problematic; my school is not fit to meet some individuals’ needs. Children with special needs often cause disturbances to my class, sometimes it is difficult for me to cope with the class that contains thirty pupils or more, some of them with exceptional needs, their existence usually disturb me, harm others and affects my enthusiasm towards teaching (T2).

Similarly, T4 believes that, generally, children with SEN have impaired social relationships and difficulties in learning the subtleties of social interactions with others.

Predominantly, pupils with SEN are socially isolated even with no considerable change in their social life; I think the only benefit they gain is being out of the house for a couple of hours in school. Even during this time, they often get bullied and rejected from others.
Sometimes their behaviour compelled me to spend a great time resolving complaints inside the class (T4).

Moreover, T5 stated that children with SEN are likely to be discriminated against, and often, bullied by others. T5 attributes this to the unique needs of some children, which sometimes, makes them less accepted by others. In this context, she commented:

In my class, there is a girl with physical disability; having crippled fingers. Sometimes, I notice strange looks from other girls, discriminating and sometimes leaving her to be isolated, consequences to feel shy, even to have a role or to participate in class discussions (T5).

(c) The social interaction relies upon the type of SEN and teachers’ attitudes

T3 and T8 valued the social impact of inclusion for children with SEN. However, their responses towards current inclusive practices were associated with some concerns. For instance, T8 has a concern regarding the social communication of some children like those with emotional behaviour. Similarly, T3 believes that these children are most likely to be poor regardless of social interactions.

The judgment about inclusion whether promote the acceptance of differences relies upon the nature of disability that children have; some children with SEN in my classes are fully accepted from peers, while some others, like whom with exceptional needs, often unwilling to create social skills(T3).

T12 also opposes inclusive policy for allowing some children with more exceptional needs into her school. She felt that the individual needs of these children make them isolated and unable to communicate with others. On the contrary, T13 and T17 were worried by what they called ‘internal exclusion’ within the ordinary classroom setting. They attributed this to the non-constructive interaction of teachers with children with SEN. For instance, T17 believes that the negative attitude of some teachers towards children with SEN harms inclusion because teachers were less effective in creating a positive social climate towards securing children’s social needs. She voiced
her concern about the lack of genuine commitment from some teachers, in the following comment:

I agree with the principles of inclusion and its aim to enhance the social interaction between children with and without SEN. On the other hand I believe there is a lack of understanding to the social needs of children with SEN in our schools. I worked as a resource rooms teacher within two schools, I realised that children with SEN are facing big challenges. For most teachers, the inclusion is not a priority, some teachers act with these children as been not existing in their classes and sometimes scolding them for being deficient to class interactions (T17).

In the summary of these responses, it may be concluded that one third (6 participants) expressed only positive attitudes towards the social impact of inclusion, four were negative whilst almost half had reservations. They expressed concern about the impact on non-SEN children. A point that will be discussed in the next chapter in greater details.

**The academic impact of inclusive education**

Participants have divergent attitudes about the academic impact of inclusive education also. Analysis of responses towards the academic impact has led to two sub-themes:

(a) Inclusion promotes the academic growth of pupils with SEN

(b) Academic growth relies upon the nature and type of SEN, teachers’ power, and parental involvement.

**(a) Inclusion promotes the academic growth of pupils with SEN**

This category represents the views of four participants. For instance, T16 believes that children with SEN are likely to develop academic skills, particularly when

They are grouped together and encouraged to share tasks with different motivated children. In this strategy, I realised some progress in their academic performance and more improvement in their self-esteem (T16).

Although growth takes place, it is not comparable with non-SEN children as T12 elaborates:
In my class, the academic progress of pupils with SEN cannot be compared to the ‘normal’; most of them having difficulties in literacy and numeracy. Sometimes not completing their homework and usually, their academic attainments lower than or near their expected level (T12).

T17 stressed that it is the role of inclusive education to promote the academic growth of children; these children should be given the opportunity to function in the general classroom where possible. Similarly, T5 and T12 share the same view with T17 about the role of inclusion to enhance the academic growth of children with SEN.

**(b) Academic growth relies upon the nature and type of SEN, teachers’ power, and parental involvement.**

Several participants identified that the nature and type of special needs that children have are usually determine their academic performance. For example, T8 and T10 recognise that the general education setting is not always an adequate environment for all children.

Occasionally, the academic attainments among children with special needs are weak. However, their academic growth is still determined by the severity of needs that they have. I have two children. In my class, one is partially sighted but he is a bright child, while the second with a severe hearing problem, he is less able and more isolated in comparison with his peers (T8).

T15 and T18 agree that children with mild needs and children with physical disabilities are most commonly included and accepted in their classes. This may be the case because these children require relatively few specialised services, and their needs often have no or little effect on their academic growth. T15 commented:

The needs of these children usually does not hinder them to be active members in the class, I have examples of excellent achievements among these children in my class, all that they need is modest interference from teachers, like adjusting class setting or providing them with a supportive instrument, e.g. glasses or hearing aids(T15).

T6, T10 and T19 raised a concern about the benefit of inclusion and the way children participated in learning. In their eyes, the academic growth of children with SEN relies upon the ability of inclusion to provide suitable
support and resources on one hand and the teachers’ ability to secure learning opportunities for all learners on the other hand; otherwise, inclusion would harm the entire class. T19 and T10 address this concern:

As children with different needs are included, teachers would need additional provisions and skills for coping with the academic and social matters that usually raised and accompany the inclusive classes, if teachers do not have the necessary skills to meet these educational needs, and then the inclusion might hamper the social and academic growth of the entire class (T19).

Not always the presence of children with special needs in ordinary classes means that they are poor academically, some children in my class are able and highly motivated and some of them need encouragement to be active with class discussion, they are in need for educators to make them enthusiastic for learning. In my view, teachers are the core and the main support for these children, particularly if this is accompanied with parents’ involvement (T10).

In another aspect, T3 and T9 consider that the lack of academic support evident from parents has its effect upon children’s performance and teachers’ attitudes as well. They believe that the negative interference from parents could shape teachers perceptions towards these pupils. T9 supports this view by commenting:

In my class, there is a girl with moderate intellectual disability; her academic attainment is almost two years below the national average level. Usually, I support her with an appropriate material that is equivalent to her level of understanding; I usually send tasks with her to work with parents, unfortunately, seldom to see evidence of support from them. This negative involvement made me less encouraged towards her support (T9).

In this case, the social and academic growth of children with SEN is not always viewed as a child-related factor. Rather, to a large extent, as the next section explores, it depends on the willingness and ability of teachers to accommodate children’s needs also.

5.4 Barriers towards the Implementation of Inclusive Education
In Jordan, with a dominant policy favouring inclusion, respondents commented about barriers that influenced their attitudes towards inclusion.
From the analysis across the range of interviews, three sub-themes were identified, namely:

(a) Teachers’ ‘characteristics’ affecting attitudes to inclusion
(b) Child characteristics affecting teachers' attitudes to inclusion.
(c) Organisational factors affecting teachers' attitudes to inclusion.

5.4.1 Teachers’ ‘Characteristics’ Affecting Attitudes to Inclusion

Lack of knowledge about the needs of children with SEN

There was considerable belief among most of respondents that they were lack of skills or ability to educate children with SEN in their classes. Their comments contained negative remarks about their training, such as:

I am unable to provide effective learning for children with SEN in my class (T5).

I do not know how to meet the individual needs of children with SEN, neither how to interact nor how to support them academically (T7).

I am not a well-trained teacher to deal with the increasing numbers of children with SEN in my class (T11).

The current training programmes are far away from what teachers need (T3).

I struggled with the presence of children with SEN in my class. They make me strained. I do not know how to deal with these children, or whether the manner in which I deal with them is right or wrong. Even, when I set the lesson plan I consider them as others in my class; I do not know how to differentiate according to their needs. I, within this inclusive policy, am like a person whose boat has sunk in the sea, he does not know how to swim, and is then asked to save himself and take others to safe land (T1).

Respondents felt that inclusion required some adaptations on how teachers teach and interact with children, with and without special needs. They believed that training programmes, if available, are usually theory-based, and remote from educational reality. It was like the “blind leading the blind” (T8), which could lead to further problems for teachers, children and schools.

Our training is a tragedy. In my training, special education needs did not exist. I heard about some terms related to special needs from
reading or the media. I was not trained about how to deal with children who have emotional and behavioural difficulties, autistic or LD. I started to feel that I am helpless towards the needs of these children (T8).

Moreover, T16 clearly attributes such feelings among ordinary teachers to a deficiency within education policy to implement effective in-service training, because:

It fails to provide specialist teachers in special education needs in our schools; too many staff lacks even the basic understanding of children with SEN needs. I have a general teaching qualification but never trained practically during study or after. The MOE has sponsored some teachers for training in the LD Centre in the Capital, but the graduate number is still far to less to cover schools’ needs (T16).

The qualitative findings on teachers’ beliefs regarding knowledge about the needs of children with SEN suggests that teacher training from the Ministry of Education (MOE) was non-existent or inadequate to address teachers’ actual needs of how to deal with the whole class context. Participants, in general, expressed concern for the absence of compulsory courses in special education or specialist programmes for teachers.

**Lack of teamwork**

The inclusive setting requires a position in which all members accept their fair share of responsibility for all children, including those with special needs (Dettmer, Thurston & Dyck, 2005). On the question regarding collaboration between all members concerning children with SEN, most teachers agreed to the need for teamwork to meet the unique needs of all learners. However, four teachers have concerns regardless of this cooperation.

Sometimes I feel that when I finish my lessons I am in deep need for someone to support me of how to plan for or to deal with certain children in my class. I know that resource rooms teachers could help me in this matter but, unfortunately he never did (T3).

I work as a teacher and school counsellor for children in my school; the nature of my work requires a lot of communication with teachers, resources teacher and children with SEN, when I approach them, I often hear ‘I have no time’, ‘I have to prepare for the lesson’... ‘My
time is not permitting’... ‘Work-time is over I have to go home’. When I report this to the headteacher, her advice was unconstructive (T2).

T7 strongly criticised the role of the resource rooms teacher in his school. He felt that the lack of collaboration between resource rooms teachers and ordinary teachers reflects a view that the ordinary teacher is the one, who predominantly has full responsibility for the whole class situation, as well as the one who is really responsible for the needs of SEN children. In this context, he commented:

The role of resource rooms teacher in my school is frustrating, he did not think any day to give us advice or guidance on how to deal with children with SEN, I did not see progress in the level of children supported in his resources room, he isolates himself in the resource room; we don’t know what he is doing there. (T7).

T16 and T7 attribute the lack of communication among teachers to the observation that most teachers have a belief that everyone has his own responsibility and can do his job without others’ interference.

**Teachers’ financial needs**

Teachers’ financial needs might affect their attitudes towards inclusive education. Analysis suggests that teaching children with SEN is seen as an additional burden by some teachers who view that they are not financially rewarded for this additional task. Moreover, it was suggested that teachers often become menial labourers in construction, which further drains the physical and creative energy needed for the classroom. The need to find additional income leaves no time for teachers to reflect seriously on their teaching process, and negatively affects their commitment to their teaching and their desire for supporting children with SEN. For instance, T5 and T8 pointed out that, due to their low salaries, most male teachers are compelled to find part time jobs for supplementary income:

The requirements of life have become very difficult, I often seek extra work out of school time like home tutoring or teaching in centres, often return home late and exhausted. Sometimes I find it difficult to follow up my children, or to perform well the next day in my school; under these conditions, how can I plan or deal positively with SEN children? (T5).
My salary is not enough, more than half of it paid for the rent; bills and travel expenses. God knows that this is not enough at all, even to survive; this is not adequate to my effort and the work load. My financial needs compel me to seek additional income till I get my opportunity to work in Gulf counties. I have the right like any others with good rate of payments, our work is hard and we are the teachers who build the society (T8).

T6 and T13 believe that the level of salary is crucial and brings motivation to teachers; the raising of salaries, according to these teachers will incentivise teachers towards more effort. T13 thinks that if teachers’ income were more, then their effort will be more.

On the other hand, some teachers (e.g.T2, T9, T10, T11 and T16) regarded their financial situation has no impact upon their performance during school time. These participants distinguish their financial needs and their loyalty to their teaching job. For example, T9 and T11 did not link financial needs to their decision to enter teaching and the acceptance of children with SEN. Similarly, T11 stated financial reward is important, but does not have negative influence upon his performance. He commented:

What I got from my salary is not related to my loyalty to my job. It never affects my role towards my children. Yet, I do believe the level of income will relieve me, it makes me feel more comfortable. However, it will never affect my performance or the way in which I deliver teaching and learning (T11).

T10 strongly rejects the correlation between financial needs and loyalty to teaching. She stated that she accepted the job, while fully aware of it’s difficulties. However, she believes that male teachers are more vulnerable financially, since it is their perceived duty to provide for the home in the context of Jordan. T11 and T16 justify their acceptance of the job by the ‘oath of loyalty’ they made when they began the job.

5.4.2 Child Characteristics Affecting Teachers’ Attitudes to inclusion

Severity of need has been found to influence teachers’ attitude towards inclusion. Most participant teachers in this study are not in a position to
include children with social, emotional and mental health difficulties in their classes. In general, they expressed negative responses towards these children, and considered that the needs of these children are the most difficult to meet in practice within ordinary settings. They comment that these children are most likely to cause distraction and usually:

Affect others’ learning, are poor candidates for inclusion, and often represent a serious physical danger to others and tension for teachers (T1).

Sometimes, I find it difficult to continue with my class because of these children (T6).

I wish that these children were not present in my class (T2).

In my class, I have a child with aggressive behaviour. I do not know when he will lose his temper. Sometimes he distracts my lessons and others from learning. In one of my lessons he swore at me, then left the class without permission, I don’t know where he went, leaving me embarrassed in front of the class. I am well known among my colleagues for my positive relationship and communication with my children, I do not wish for children with this type of behaviour to be included in my class. They distract me and affect my lesson (T10).

When a teacher was asked if she had ever considered children with social, emotional and mental health difficulties in her class; she considered that it would not be possible. She commented about her experience with a child in her class:

Her presence in my class was a nightmare for me and most teachers. She was involved with a lot of incidents at school; she set fire to a certain object in the classroom. One day she hid herself in curtains attempting to scare teachers, most times wearing heavy shoes to keep herself stabilised but frequently using it to hit other classmates, it was difficult for her to use a pencil and when using it, she often rips the paper. I know that she had a problem; I feel compassion towards her, but not to be in my class without support (T2).

11 According to the (Special Educational Needs and Disability Code of Practice, 2014) children and young people may experience a wide range of social and emotional difficulties which manifest themselves in many ways. These may include becoming withdrawn or isolated, as well as displaying challenging, disruptive or disturbing behaviour. These behaviours may reflect underlying mental health difficulties such as anxiety or depression, self-harming, substance misuse, eating disorders or physical symptoms that are medically unexplained. Other children and young people may have disorders such as attention deficit disorder, attention deficit hyperactive disorder or attachment disorder. (DfES, 2014, p. 98)
Moreover, two participants believe that these children required highly controlled environments and quite a lot of work and experience because:

I have a negative experience with some of these children. Truly, I do not know how to deal with them; I think they should be in special schools or centres (T14).

They are a burden to the class; usually drain my time and enthusiasm when delivering the lesson. Sometimes, I am surprised by a sudden incident from these children, which disturbs the whole class and makes me tense. They affect my performance and the way of the lesson; this is the reality that I face (T7).

In a different aspect, T5 and T12 claim that children with social, emotional and mental health difficulties are ‘slow learners’, and usually have limited academic achievement and social interaction. Similarly, T3 believes that it is difficult for these children to develop academic skills, cope with the curriculum, and share in activities with others, both inside and outside the classroom. In contrast, T16 remarked on his acceptance of these children in his class:

In this category of children, there are those you can control their behaviour and can be accepted, I realised most children in this category prefer activities that suit their needs; some of them prefer tasks that require motive activities like art or tasks that demand movements rather than any written work. This -in fact- is still determined by the teachers’ ability to accommodate these behaviours, and the availability of the support resources (T16).

In addition, T16 attributes his acceptance to the feeling of sympathy towards this category of children, as well as the lack of a social centre or special schools, particularly in rural areas to accommodate their needs. Similarly, T14 and T17 show acceptance of these children. However, they were cautious and sensitive. They linked their attitude towards these children to the nature of behaviour that these children could bring to the whole class. For instance, T17 agrees on the importance of effective strategies to support these children. Yet, he believes that the accommodation of children with social, emotional and mental health difficulties in ordinary classrooms demands positive involvement from teachers and schools. On the other hand, T14 believes that schools in Jordan do not have consistent approaches to
improve the behaviour of these children, which limits teachers’ acceptance and attitudes towards this category of children.

5.4.3 Organisational Factors Affecting Teachers’ Attitudes to Inclusion

From the response to the survey, it does not appear that Jordanian schools have undergone the restructuring that is required to effectively meet the needs of the vast majority of children with SEN. For instance, the survey indicates that almost 78% of teachers were not satisfied with the quality of services for children with SEN and look for improvement in its quality. Analysis from interviews identifies several barriers within the educational environment of children with SEN. These barriers were related to support services, resource rooms provision, construction and funding of schools, and educational policy and regulation.

Support services

In general, there are areas of consensus concerning the value of support services to children with SEN; participants felt that most deprived children are those with special needs, even

If resources are available, it does not fit their needs; most support services are insufficient, primitive, constant and not commensurate with the frequent development of the curriculum (T6).

It is not always accessible; in my class, there are two children with special needs (visual impairment); they usually required adaption of some school reading texts. Sometimes, I have to use the photocopy machine in my school; it is in the headteacher’s room. I have to pay for copying any papers(T1).

T1 also holds a broad view; indeed he is convinced of the continued ‘exclusive’ experiences of some children being withdrawn from schools or kept at home, because of the lack of suitable provision in their schools or area.
There is also an issue around the distribution of resources. T2 and T15 criticised the system by which provision is distributed. T15 explained that support services are not available in all schools, and are limited to some areas only:

I worked in different schools; some schools had more resources than others. I still wonder why the availability of resources is different between schools and locations; truly I don’t know the secret behind that (T15).

**Resource rooms**

The term ‘resource rooms’, as indicated in Chapter 1(section 1.8.2), is used to describe a small unit in some ordinary schools in Jordan. These facilities have been put in place to provide small group support for children with learning difficulties (LD) (Al-Khatib, 2007). The resource rooms’ teacher and ordinary teacher cooperate to establish an appropriate learning environment for children with LD. On the question regarding the role of resource rooms in the ordinary school, the majority of participants agree that the existence of resource rooms is vital to the implementation of inclusive practices. For example, T17 believes that “the function of inclusive education in Jordanian ordinary schools relies on the extent of the role that these units offer”. Participants also link the effectiveness of resource rooms to the role that resource rooms’ teachers could play. For instance, T7 believes that

If these rooms were always occupied by enthusiastic, qualified and trained teachers in the field of SEN, then such rooms will have a positive role in addressing the needs of these children (T7).

This view was echoed by T5, who attributed the enhancement of academic and social growth of children with SEN in her school to the positive role and attitude that the resource rooms’ teacher holds towards these children. She commented:

The resource room in my school has a significant role, occupied by a teacher qualified in the area of SEN. I noticed remarkable progress in the performance of children who receive support in her unit; usually, she encourages and motivates these children to participate in the morning assembly. She works with a positive attitude towards these children (T5).
Other teachers also spoke highly of the standard of communication they experienced between themselves and resource rooms teacher, who was quite closely involved with teachers over time. This is illustrated by the following description provided by T19, who works closely with this teacher:

We are lucky that we have got a resource rooms teacher who has worked with us for the last five or six years. She knows her roles in school, shows enthusiasm toward children with special needs, has good communication with teachers, and helps in showing how to deal with these children (T19).

Despite the reported examples of good practice, some teachers voiced their concern regarding the efficiency of the resource rooms in their school. For instance, T16 raised a concern that some resource rooms were occupied by unqualified teachers in this field, who did not have even the minimum knowledge to deal with SEN children.

I worked in a school classified as having a resource rooms to support children with LD; the room was closed. Then, after three months, the headteacher nominated one of our colleagues to the role of resource rooms teacher; he was unqualified and only appointed to fill this vacant job (T16).

T14, in his response to the role of resources room, praised the role of some resource rooms, whilst voicing concern for others, he believes that there is a lack of seriousness concerning the needs of SEN children within some of these units. He raised his concern in the following comment:

In my teaching experience in different schools, I noticed the positive role of resource rooms towards children with SEN. But, the regrettable reality was what I noticed from one of the resource rooms teachers; he does not play an active role, he uses the same individual plan and the same targets for different students with different needs, but changes the date and the child’s name (T14).

Further concern was that the availability of the resource rooms’ service is quite limited; being available only to children presenting with particular disabilities, such as LD. Respondents strongly advocated for the expansion of this service. On the question concerning teachers’ expectations from resource rooms’ teachers, T3 pointed out:

In order to empower inclusive education, the role of resource rooms needs more involvement to enable school personnel to cope with the
challenges of educating children with social, emotional and behavioural difficulties and hence enhancing their chances of benefiting more from inclusion (T3).

T6 stressed the need for qualified and specialist teachers to provide children with LD in their classrooms with the necessary adaptations and support. Moreover, T15 pointed to the need for extra resource rooms. Indeed, he pointed out that there is still some deficiency in distribution of resource rooms in all schools in Jordanian districts. Further suggestion from participants’ teachers regarding improving the quality of this service will be discussed in chapter 6.

**School construction and funding**

The recommendations of the First National Conference for Educational Development in Jordan (1987) stressed the need for modern buildings that provided appropriate educational facilities and teaching aids to meet students’ needs. More than half of participants felt that most schools in Jordan did not take into considerations the needs of children with SEN and physical impairments because:

Schools in general are not designed or fit for the needs of children with SEN and physical disability; no ramps or lifts for children with physical disability, particularly wheelchair users; they are facing difficulties in the area of mobility in-or-outdoor activity (T13).

My nephew has a physical disability; he can’t walk on his feet. His mum withdrew him from the school to a private school due to the difficulty of mobility and the use of the facilities of the school (T8).

There is also an issue with rented school buildings; such schools are usually characterised by obstacles to the mobility for children with a physical disability, since:

It is not structured as school rather a normal house. It usually includes many rooms, but is devoid of the appropriate corridors or play area. In the morning, it is difficult for us to do the assembly with all children. It is difficult for ‘normal’ children to move around; so imagine those with physical disabilities (T9).
Educational policy and regulations

In Jordan, the Law on the Rights of Persons with Disabilities 2007 stresses the right of ‘disabled’ children to education. It was aimed at maximising the effective inclusion of children with SEN in ordinary education. However, participants felt that there are still issues of serious concern impacting on the rights of these children to equality of access to, and full participation in, ordinary education. T2 felt that such policy:

Was out of touch with the reality of ordinary schools; the legislation was ratified without planning or defining the goals of their inclusive strategies. This policy imposed the inclusive approach in the absence of qualified and well trained teachers in this sector (T2).

T7 and T13 criticised the stakeholders, who committed to make inclusive education open for many children, with the absence of commitment to address their “actual needs”. It makes it difficult for teachers to cope with the increasing numbers of children in their classes. T3 voiced his view in the following comments:

A lot of teachers, like me are not accommodated within the current inclusive policy; it lacks research evidence of its adequacy. At the same time, it failed to identify the early needs of children with SEN in accordance with accurate diagnosis and assessment (T3).

T1, T9, T12, and T16 indicate that there is a gap of understanding between stakeholders and teachers. For example, T12 at the time of investigation, strongly criticised the controversy within education policy that recommended teachers listen to children’ voices in a democratic manner; though at the same time, suppresses teachers’ voices. While T16, interestingly, expresses his resentment for the ‘anti-social manner’ reflected by the education minister in dealing with teachers, when they demonstrated and campaigned for a teachers’ union. In this situation, he comments:

We have concerns and demands, but hardly for the government to listen; we have a right… one of our simple rights is to have a teachers’ union. When we raised our voices and demonstrated for this aim, the education minister appeared on TV mocking us saying: ‘first shave your beards and wear nice clothes then ask for your rights (T16).

T16 believes that the consequence of such practices affects teachers’ loyalty to the job, and makes them feel undervalued.
5.5 The Moderating Effect Of Faith and Socio-cultural Perceptions On Teachers’ Attitudes towards Inclusion

5.5.1 Islamic Impact

Islamic principles, as indicated earlier in Chapter 2, do not discriminate against people with disability; rather, it recognises the right of the needy person to receive help and assistance. The analysis from interviews revealed that teachers’ attitudes towards inclusive education cannot be isolated from their Islamic belief. Their religious sentiments motivated them to sympathise with the needs of children with SEN, as an issue that demands care:

Islamic values have an impact upon my feeling towards children with SEN, I seek as much as possible to meet their needs, according to my knowledge and ability, as a matter of compassion towards them and gaining the rewards from Allah (T6).

Teachers should be positive towards children with SEN, having sympathy and making extra effort to facilitate not only their physical comfort, but their mental and emotional well-being as well(T15).

Others have a belief that taking care of children with SEN brings heavenly rewards. They reason that it is a command from Allah to take care of the needy and hence, to draw closer to Allah, and His Mercy and Love. T14 explained that:

In spite of the difficulties that I faced in this job, perhaps the only reason that prompts me to support children with SEN is my religious consciousness. It drives me to overcome any difficulties and makes me feel satisfied with my performance; I feel this brings me closer to Allah (T14).

T16, who markedly exhibits strong belief, expresses greater acceptance for all children with SEN and is more positive towards inclusion. He attributes this acceptance to the Islamic ethos, which urges caring for the ‘needy’ and showing compassion towards the ‘weak’. He felt that:

Children with SEN are in need of welfare and special care; I accept and deal with them in accordance with the Islamic precepts. Islam honours all humans regardless of their race and capacities, and urges not to burden any one beyond his abilities (T16).
Interestingly, religious feeling might make teachers different in the way they interact with children with SEN; indeed, showing a form of acceptance and support for these children. For instance, the religious experiences of T4 affect the way she acts with children with SEN. However, her reaction was quite a surprise; while she has a negative view towards inclusion, she also has an extra tendency to support these children. She expresses her attitude by the following comment:

I don’t know... but I can say that there is something from inside that persuades me to support these children; sharing outdoor activities with them. I have not been driven by extra incentives towards this sort of support. But, I think it is the religious ethos that takes me to further interventions with a positive manner (T4).

Similarly, T9 has a relatively negative attitude towards inclusion; yet, she feels that her faith pushes her to support these children without discrimination. She believes strongly that the way she acts with these children will bless her health and wealth.

Being a Muslim teacher, the Islamic religion affects the way in which I deal with children with SEN, requires me to treat them fairly and to give them their rights to the full, because I believe this will be reflected on my health and my livelihood, and that Allah (God) will bless me if I performed in a way that pleases Him. Allah created them humans as the rest. Religion urges humans to love one another, but with extra love and sympathy for those in need (T9).

Consequently, the religious factor seems to have an impact, with greater acceptance for children with SEN among some teachers. In contrast, more than half of participants agree that working with children with SEN is not a matter of belief only. Religious feelings that one has do not necessarily justify including children with SEN in ordinary classes. Knowledge about the needs of children with SEN is viewed as the way forward towards addressing their needs. For instance, T7 and T8 feel that faith encourages them to do good deeds and to be dutiful in one’s work. On the other hand, T11 thinks that there is no correlation between faith and professionalism, stating that:

I would not think relying on my religious code of belief and sympathy towards children with SEN is adequate justification to serve the need of these children and to be positive towards them. With my belief, I try to bring the best of what I have. But, since I lack the knowledge in this
field, I think what I present, even if religiously motivated, may exhibit errors... My faith does not increase my awareness and experiences with children with SEN (T11).

Similarly, T10 believes that faith acts as a stimulant for further intervention to support children with SEN. Indeed, if combined with sufficient knowledge and an adequate financial situation. On this point, T10 voices his view in the following comments:

Religion is a milestone in organising humans’ life. I think when a teacher adheres to his faith; he will have a vigorous consciousness towards the teaching profession. Religion is the catalyst for my performance and the feel of sympathy towards children with SEN, but together with the existence of other factors such as incentives and constructive social awareness, then the loop will close up and makes me contented, creative and leaning to be more protective(T10).

T6 and T17 who hold a positive view towards inclusion agree that accepting children with SEN is not a matter of faith only. Rather, it is a moral obligation towards the teaching profession. Whilst, T15 and T17 think that the issue of correlation between faith and the attitudes towards children with SEN is usually centred on the degree of influence that faith and other socio-cultural practices might bring on teacher’s behaviour towards acceptance or rejection.

5.5.2 Socio-cultural Impact on Teachers’ Attitudes towards Inclusion

(a) Positive remarks towards SEN and disability within society

From the standpoint of a social model of disability, inclusion is concerned with ways in which the social and educational environment can be modified to enable children to participate in the life of the school and society (Doyle, 1995). In Jordan, socio-cultural values tend to influence teachers’ attitudes towards the inclusion of children with SEN. Many participants’ (almost two thirds) express a positive view of social perspectives towards disability. For instance, T15 and T19 have a strong belief that socio-cultural practices have witnessed a change in recent years, and that local communities start to develop positive awareness towards children with SEN:
The socio-cultural practice is no longer as it was previously; society has become more open; if we inform someone of his child’s academic or social needs or when we raised the issue of special needs and disability, there are considerable degree of awareness and acceptance among families, the “stigma-culture” is no longer pre-dominant (T15).

In a different aspect, some respondents felt that traditions and tribal values in Jordanian society tend to give indirect support for inclusion in schools, leading to positive impressions and practices towards children with SEN. For instance, T8 and T18 who live in rural areas, assign their positive attitude towards these children to the family relationships with these children. T5 has a similar stance, she comments:

Most children in my school are relatively, linked to us through kinship, neighbourhood or friendship; these virtues of social relations usually persuade us to help these children whatever their needs are. Such relations and values facilitate the process of interaction with these children and works to increase trust between teachers and parents (T5).

Similarly, T3 and T11 assert the need for more positive awareness of the issue of inclusive practices for children with SEN in schools and local communities.

(b) Continuing concern over negative attitudes within society

A small group of participants (T4, T9, T10 and T17) express concerns about the way that society perceives disability. They think that current social practices regarding disabilities and children with SEN are still primitive. Indeed, the negative habits; stigma, shame, and ill reputation towards disability and special needs are still rooted and inherited within Jordanian communities. For instance, T4 raises a concern regarding the way in which some families act. He commented:

“Jordan society has several exceptions of special needs, at a general level there is a lack of understanding to the special needs concept resulted from a several inherited social habit and socio cultural practices, this might extended in a way and effect teachers in our community (T4).

Also;
Some families still believe that the existence of a child with disability or special need will bring significant social stigma and disturb the family reputation and their future (T9).

Similarly, T17 strongly criticised society’s attitude towards SEN and disability; he felt that pervasive negative views towards individuals with disabilities largely affects how parents perceive and react towards their children’s needs because;

The negative view towards special needs in the community leads some families not to accept the available support necessary for their child. As a resource room teacher, I sometimes experience rejection from parents who refuse to send their child to the resource room as this could influence the way the whole family is being looked at through what they called stigma (T17).

T6, T13 and T16 on the other hand, felt that social views of SEN and disability are usually correlated with the degree of awareness among the community. On the other hand, T7 believes that it’s often associated with the nature of the disability, which tends to be more pessimistic for people with mental disabilities.

(C) Parental involvement
Active family involvement has long been considered to be an important factor related to better outcomes in the education of young children with or without disabilities in inclusive programmes (Levy, Kim, & Olive, 2006). On the question concerning parents’ role towards the inclusion of their children, more than half the participants were optimistic towards the way in which parents positively proceed towards securing their children’s needs. For instance, T5, T8 and T12 admire the elevated awareness of parents when notified about the behavioural and academic needs of their children. T8 indicates the positive response of some parents in the following:

When a child is placed for support or behaviourally advised, there is a positive acceptance and cooperation from the side of the parents, even many parents come to school just to thank us for the support that we have presented to their children. Some parents were telling us about status and the need of their children from the beginning of the academic year. In general there is certain awareness is taking place; this is usually associated with the extent of learning the people might hold (T8).
Similarly, T10, T15 believe that the way of communication between teachers and parents is becoming more open, less affected by negative social attitudes towards the concept of disability and special needs. This ushers an optimistic outlook for greater awareness in such communities:

I see that parents were more open, even the non-educated ones. I was surprised by their positive attitudes when the situation was explained and the needs of their children highlighted. Truly, some of them were surprised when they first knew about the needs of their children, but after clarifying the programmes and the individual educational plans that were prepared as a remedial help to their children. They often accept it; even they endeavour to help us in its implementation (T15).

On the other hand, another group of teachers, T2, T3 and T17, believe that some parents still demonstrate a negative role and challenge, which affects teachers’ attitude to the children’s needs. T3 was the most concerned and greatly surprised of a parent’s reaction when informed about the needs of his child. She stated her experience with this parent in the following comment:

I work as a psychology counselling in my school; I tried to intervene and give support for a child with severe emotional and behavioural difficulties in my school. The headteacher and I have to explain to parents about a suitable placement for their child. We advised a special centre according to his needs rather than the school. Once we said that they became inflamed and angrily accusing us of abusing them and of labelling their child. Later, they reported this to the police authority, in spite of our efforts to find the right placement for their child (T3).

Similarly, T7 indicated that some parents refuse to accept the idea of their children having special needs that require support, considering any kind of interference might show that they have special needs. Whilst, T9 and T14 felt that parents’ perceptions are usually, associated with the degree of awareness they might have, and the way that teachers explain their children’s needs.

5.6 Summary of Qualitative Findings

The analysis indicates that almost two thirds of participant teachers had reservations or were negative, towards inclusive education practices. This view is a reflection of their comments, which include remarks that are less
positive towards inclusion. In general, they criticise the current inclusive policy for its deficiency to secure an adequate inclusive setting for children with SEN, and also its deficiency to provide alternatives for children with more exceptional needs, particularly in rural areas. On the other hand, a group of participants, almost a third, believe that inclusion is both a right and an effective form of provision for children with SEN. They look to ordinary schools with resource rooms in particular as a location to give educational support for children with SEN.

The potential for social and academic growth of children with special needs has led proponents to support the ordinary setting for children with SEN. They believe that such placement encourages social interaction and the feeling of acceptance among peers in ordinary classes. It aids children with special needs to build self-esteem and not feel inferior and isolated. These advocates also support the positive academic attainment of these children, particularly when grouped together, sharing tasks with their peers in the same class. However, certain factors related to schools, parents and teachers’ willingness to interact with children with SEN still hold back the inclusive practice to meet the actual needs of these children.

In contrast, the opponents to inclusive education stress the weakness of inclusion in meeting the social and academic need of all learners, particularly those children with exceptional needs. They assume that the presence of children with different needs in ordinary classes/schools is problematic, because the individual needs of some children demand additional skills from teachers, individual instruction and a highly controlled environment. They believe that inclusion has worsened as teachers lack the essential skills needed for the academic and social matters that accompany inclusive classes. In their view, inclusion might hamper the social and academic growth of the entire class; resulting in a large number of children at risk of ‘exclusion’.
Some participants agree that full inclusion is neither possible nor desirable. Such teachers are not willing to deal with all children, especially those with exceptional needs. They suggest either special schools or special units in schools to offer educational support with well trained teachers. They believe that teaching children with special needs involves considerable responsibilities.

Generally, there was a strong feeling among participants that inclusive policy is not currently implemented effectively. Most teachers urged a substantial modification of inclusion approaches. They highlighted different barriers attached to the current inclusive practices. These barriers usually refer to curriculum, staff training, supplementary aids or equipment, and the provision of specialised physical adaptations that allow children with SEN to participate in the educational environment.

The Islamic faith and demographic variation in Jordanian society correlate with diverse understandings of children with SEN. The Islamic faith, for a significant number of participants, has a constructive impact in reducing sensitivity towards children with SEN. It encourages teachers towards acceptance of children with SEN as it gives indirect support for inclusion in schools. Its effect could be more productive when combined with knowledge about the needs of children with SEN.

Finally, analysis suggests that social stigma is still prevalent and stigmatises to families and children with SEN. Some participants think that current social practices, regardless of special needs are still lagging behind, as they do not bring awareness to the social conscious. Some participants indicate that the problems they faced with families cannot be attributed to parents per se, but to society’s negative reactions towards disability. This situation has contributed to more barriers to inclusive education, and has not contributed to increased awareness.
5.7 Quantitative versus Qualitative Findings of Teachers’ Attitudes towards Inclusion

Attitude towards inclusive education
In relation to teachers’ attitudes towards inclusion, the quantitative findings, in general, revealed a sensitised stance towards inclusion; findings from the questionnaire (see Table 4.1) indicate that teachers in Jordan hold predominantly neutral views towards inclusive education (mean=3.2). On the other hand, the qualitative analysis indicates that one third (6 participants) expressed only positive attitudes towards inclusion, whilst two thirds had reservations or were negative. Although, both the quantitative and qualitative phases, in general, gave broadly similar results in different areas, integrating data sets affords the following interpretations to be highlighted.

Teachers’ knowledge of SEN children’s needs
Findings of both quantitative and qualitative phases show that teachers with knowledge-based training and qualifications in the area of SEN in Jordan were significantly of higher positive attitudes towards dealing with children in their ordinary classrooms than the untrained. Nevertheless, both results indicated the low level of knowledge among ordinary teachers towards the needs of pupils with SEN. For instance, the quantitative outcomes (see chapter 4, table 4.3) indicated that almost two third of the participants (67%) think they lack or have limited knowledge, at the professional level, to teach and to deal with children with SEN in their classes. Similarly, there was considerable consistency among most of the respondents within the qualitative analysis that they were unprepared to educate children with SEN in their classes. This is a concern, because as Thomas and Vaughan (2004) explained, teachers responsible for children with SEN are uncomfortable when they do not have the expertise required to teach those children, and/or if they feel they do not have sufficient training to teach inclusively.
Academic and social impact of inclusive education

Both findings within the context of academic and social impact of inclusive education gave broadly similar results. Both qualitative and quantitative findings indicate that teachers believe that inclusion can have positive social impact upon pupils with SEN more than the academic attainment. Yet, the qualitative findings still suggest that the academic and social progress of children with SEN are complex and are shaped by multiple variables, e.g. type of special needs that children have and teachers’ knowledge in this field.

Support services

Both the qualitative and quantitative findings are consistent regarding provision. Both results concluded that teachers believe there is a lack of support services to meet the needs of children with SEN. Moreover, both sets of findings look to resource rooms as essential provisions for pupils with SEN. However, qualitative data suggest that teachers would prioritise greater co-teaching between ordinary teachers and resource rooms’ teachers. In return, the qualitative data raised several concerns about the efficiency of resource rooms; this was based on the quality of support that these rooms offer to children with SEN, the deficiency in distribution of resource rooms in all schools in Jordanian districts, the cooperation between ordinary teachers and resource rooms teachers to address the needs of children with SEN and the limitation of support, which was available only to children presenting with learning difficulties. Teachers desire these rooms to have a greater scope.

Interaction with children with SEN in classrooms

In relevance to this behavioural component of attitude, I would argue that teachers’ values influence the ways in which inclusion is implemented in reality. Both set of findings indicate that the way that some teachers act with children with SEN is variable. For instance, within quantitative analysis, the

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12 The behavioural component of attitude here reflects teachers’ views on how to act with a child with special needs in the classroom.
value of the standard deviation (SD) of teachers’ attitude under the
behavioural component of attitude, was (1.02) (see Chapter 4, Table 4.1)
indicating that the variation regarding teachers’ views is high. This value
indicates different patterns of responses among teachers towards children
with SEN, suggesting that teachers’ responses tend to be not consistent
around the mean score value (M=3.69). This variation also exists and more
clearly within the qualitative interviews format. For instance, (T4, T9 and
T11) have negative attitude towards inclusive educational practices. Yet, they
do not seem to synchronise their negative attitude and their overt behaviour
towards the needs of children with SEN, their religious belief and moral
obligation seem to offer moderation; Beliefs and values therefore, appear to
shape the way that some teachers look to these children with more
acceptance. This will be discussed in greater details in Chapter 7.

5.8 General Discussion and Conclusions
It maybe suggested from this study that ordinary teachers in Jordan were
undecided about the efficiency of inclusive education to meet the diverse
needs of children with SEN and disability in ordinary classrooms. The results
of this study are therefore consistent with those of several earlier studies. For
instance, in a review of 26 studies of ordinary primary schoolteachers’
attitudes towards inclusion, Boer et al.(2011) found that the majority of
teachers hold neutral or negative attitudes towards the inclusion of pupils
with special needs in regular primary education. No studies reported clear
positive results. Several variables are found which relate to teachers’
attitudes, such as training, experience with inclusive education and pupils’
type of disability. Generally, teachers have slightly positive expectations
concerning the potential outcomes of inclusive education, e.g. social and
academic impacts. However, in terms of the impact of inclusive education on
classroom practices in relation to understanding of inclusion as an adequate
approach to working with children with disabilities, they mostly have neutral
attitudes.
In contrast, these results seem to deviate from the more positive conclusion of previous reviews (Kustantini, 1999; Avramidis, Bayliss, and Burden, 2000; Opdala, Wormnaesa& Habayebb, 2001; Avramidis and Norwich, 2002; Marshall, Ralph, and Palmer, 2002; Abbott, 2006; Al-Zyoudi, 2006; Maha and Radford, 2010), which have established a more positive view of teachers’ attitude towards inclusive education. For example, the study by Opdala, Wormnaesa& Habayebb (2001) of teachers' opinions about the inclusion of children with special needs in Palestine, which is within the same geographical context and a similar cultural background to this study. They established that teachers were of the opinion that children with SEN and disabilities should have an opportunity to attend ordinary schools. Similar findings were also reported by Maha and Radford’s (2010) study of teachers’ attitudes towards inclusion in Lebanon, which also has a similar cultural background as this study. They found that teachers, in general, had positive attitudes towards the inclusion of children with SEN in ordinary schools. However, they expressed reservations about including all children, especially those with severe social, emotional and behavioural difficulties. Like this study, findings suggest that while some teachers support inclusive education, they do so only with reservations.

**Attitude-Behaviour relationship in this study**

Findings from this study indicate a connection between teachers’ attitudes and their perceptions towards children with SEN. Psychologists (e.g. Eagly& Chaiken, 1993; and Kraus, 1995) assume that people’s attitudes are usually correlated with the implications of behaviours someone could have towards an object. Likewise, in this study of teachers’ attitude, findings indicate that teachers with a positive attitude, in general, tend to make more remarks expressing acceptance and positive connection towards children with SEN. In contrast, teachers with a negative attitude were seen to be less optimistic towards inclusion and supporting these children. These findings are consistent with those of previous studies. For instance, Bender et al.(1995) indicated that teachers with a more negative attitude towards inclusion less
frequently used teaching strategies that encouraged effective participation of children with SEN. Similarly, Buell et al. (1999) concluded that teachers with a more positive view of inclusion were more confident of their ability to support children in inclusive classrooms and adapt the aids and procedures to their needs. As such, the attitude-behaviour relationships, according to the literature, including this study, indicate a level of conformity between teachers’ attitudes and their behaviour.

Interestingly, findings from this study suggest that the attitude-behaviour relationship is not always a straight-forward matter. For instance, teachers (e.g. T8, T9 and T11) as indicated earlier exhibited negative attitudes towards inclusive education practices. Yet, they demonstrated acceptance when dealing with children with special needs. This is borne out by their responses within the interview; it is more likely that their attitude was unrelated or slightly related to their overt behaviour. This finding agrees with the argument by Karni et al. (2011) that teachers can express positive practices towards children with special needs. At the same time, they may have deep seated negative attitudes towards inclusion.

Such incongruence between attitude and behaviour might be explained by the differences in teachers’ values and beliefs that make them engage in behaviour not correlated with their attitude. For example, the three teachers’ (T8, T9 and T11) beliefs, oath to the teaching profession and their kin-relationships with many children in their classes appear to have influenced their overt behaviour positively towards more acceptance and support for children with SEN and disability in their classes. In this situation, the incongruence between the implicit attitudes teachers might have, and their actual behaviour affects the way in which inclusive education might be understood. If this is the case, I would argue that positive attitudes towards inclusion might be considered as a stimulator to inclusive practice. However, these are not a dominant factor in successful inclusion. Similarly, negative
attitude may not always necessarily be a barrier to inclusive educational practices.

**Teachers-related variables: knowledge and professional development in inclusive education**

Findings from this study indicate that knowledge and skills were considered to be an important factor relevant to inclusive education. It revealed that teachers with professional training for working with children with special needs were more favourable of the inclusive effects on the children with special needs than those without it. These findings are consistent with the studies of Leyser et al. (1994), Martinez (2003), Avramidis and Norwich (2002) and Avramidis and Kalyva (2007). These studies emphasise the need for teacher training, in order to develop positive attitudes towards inclusion and dealing with children with SEN. For instance, Avramidis and Kalyva (2007) established that teachers with training were significantly more positive towards statements about the general philosophy of inclusion, compared with those who had no training at all. Similarly, findings from this study showed that teachers, who received particular training in the field of special needs and learning difficulties, were more likely to have formed more positive attitudes towards inclusion.

**Children-related variables: Kinds of special needs**

Results from this research indicate that teachers, in general, have a greater willingness with the highest level of consent to include children with certain type of disabilities, such as physical disabilities, and the lowest in the case of children with social and emotional difficulties. These results are in line with the results of other studies (e.g. Avramidis and Norwich, 2002; Lindsay, 2007; Cagran and Schmidt, 2010; de Boer et al., 2011). For instance, Avramidis and Norwich (2002) concluded in their study that teachers are more willing to include children with mild disabilities, or physical disabilities than children with social and emotional difficulties. Similar results were also found by Glaubman and Lifshitz (2001). They found that children with social
and emotional difficulties are seen to cause significantly more concern to teachers than children with other types of disability. Teachers’ negative attitudes towards these children might relate to the factors that it is more demanding to control their behaviour. They usually require more attention, knowledge and planning, which subsequently adds a greater load of work on teachers (de Boer et al., 2011). On the other hand, the acceptance of children with physical disability might be associated with their awareness and adaptation to the education processes.

It is evident in this study that teachers’ attitude varies according to the type of disability. Yet, it is not clear to what extent this affects their willingness to make inclusive education possible for these children with such kinds of SEN. Perhaps, this is one of the limitations of this study that demands further research, e.g. a case study to further investigate the relation between these two variables.

**The social and academic dimensions of inclusive education on children with SEN**

The social and academic dimensions in this research were seen as an important aspect in implementing inclusive education successfully. While, some teachers indicated the importance of inclusion for children with SEN in ordinary schools, findings from this research established that including children with SEN in ordinary school, particularly those with social and emotional difficulties, does not routinely lead to an increase in the social communication and friendships with peers. Even, if they seem to be accepted by their peers, they may still experience communication difficulties and their social status remains significantly lower. Similar findings were reported by several previous studies (e.g. Soresi and Nota, 2000; Nowicki, 2003; Yu, Zhang, and Yan, 2005; Pijl, 2005; Ruijs and Peetsma, 2009; Avramidis, 2010, Koster et al., 2010). These studies have shown that children with SEN in ordinary schools remain less accepted by peers, and experience greater loneliness within the ordinary classroom.
However, regarding the academic progress of these children, findings indicate that children’s attainment is usually linked to the kind of disability, and also on the ability of inclusive education to provide a suitable educational environment for these children. However, teachers, in general, were less optimistic regarding the academic attainment of these children. The primary reasons behind this view might link to the lack of adequate support aids on one hand, and teachers’ willingness to adopt an educational pedagogy that fosters further educational improvement for these children on the other hand. Therefore, on account of these results, it seems that social participation and academic progress deserve more attention when implementing inclusive education for children with SEN. Indeed, one of the chief aims of this context of learning is to enhance the social and academic progress of these children.

**Organisation-related variables: provision for children with SEN**

The study has revealed that there is dissatisfaction among most participant teachers concerning the extent and range of provision made to meet the needs of children with SEN. They criticised the services for failing to achieve enough progress for children with SEN. These results are in agreement with the results of previous Jordanian studies (e.g., Alzyoudi, 2006; Al Khatib; 2007; Abu-Hamour & Al-Hmouz, 2014). For example, a study by Al Khatib (2007) reported that most schools in Jordan are not yet well constructed, and do not have the necessary resources to meet all children’s educational needs. Avramidis (2001) indicated that funding and educational resources are crucial if further inclusive efforts are to be successful. This view was raised in Alzyoudi’s (2006) Jordanian study. He found a strong relationship between sufficient resources and successful inclusion. Alzyoudi (2006) concluded that the acceptance of inclusion in Jordan increased as school buildings and resources were made accessible to children with special needs.

In summary, the voices presented in my study suggest that there are many barriers to inclusive education in Jordanian ordinary schools. Teachers feel
that they are in general unwilling to cope with the increasing number of children with SEN in their classes. This is not because they have negative attitudes towards children with SEN per se. Rather; they feel that they need more real genuine changes to inclusive policy in order to manage the needs of these learners.

The following chapter presents a qualitative analysis of teachers’ views to improve the quality of teaching for children with SEN in Jordanian ordinary schools.
Chapter Six-Research Findings: Possible Strategies to Improve the Quality of Teaching for Children with SEN

6.1 Introduction
Chapters 4 and 5 discussed the possible reasons behind teachers’ attitude towards the inclusive education in Jordanian ordinary school, and identified possible factors responsible for this apparent neutral attitude towards inclusive education. This chapter presents the second phase of qualitative analyses and discusses teachers’ suggestions of possible ways to improve inclusive education in Jordanian ordinary schools, and their perspectives on factors within the Jordanian context that might either facilitate or impede efforts to promote teachers’ attitudes towards inclusion. This chapter seeks to provide an answer to the third research question: ‘What challenges have to be overcome to enhance the efficacy of teaching for children with SEN in Jordanian ordinary schools?’

6.2 Promoting Teachers’ Attitude towards Inclusion
Findings from the qualitative data in Chapter 5 highlighted the existence of obstacles to inclusive practices in Jordan, these for example, referred to the areas of teaching professional development, funding and resourcing, socio-cultural context, evaluation and clear co-ordination between all educational parties (administrators, teachers, parents and so on). Sikes et al., (2007) indicates that practitioners’ attitudes towards inclusion affect how inclusion is implemented, and that the success of inclusion partially relies on preparing ordinary teachers for this environment. Thus, in order to meet this responsibility, further efforts should be exerted to overcome barriers that may influence teachers’ willingness to include children with special needs in their classes.

There have been many suggestions from participant teachers to enhance the inclusive practices in Jordanian ordinary schools. What follows gives more insight into their reflection and experiences.
6.2.1 Inclusive Education and Teacher Preparation Programmes

Findings from this study show that some participant teachers (e.g. T6, T15 and 17) were more confident in their interview regarding implementing inclusive programmes. This could be attributed to the observation that they have a reasonable knowledge and experience in this field. In contrast, the majority of participant teachers stated a requirement for more knowledge relating to inclusion. In this study, as the following quotations show, it was noticed that the pre-and in-service training programmes the teachers had received was viewed as inadequate in preparing teachers to address children’s needs.

Both pre-service and in-service education programmes were of the essence in preparing teachers to cater and meet the diverse needs of children within the ordinary classroom settings (T11).

Personally, during my study at university, I did not receive any information about how to deal with children with SEN. I believe teachers need more knowledge about these children and how to deal with their needs (T10).

I am unable to provide effective learning for children with SEN in my class, I do not know how to meet the individual needs of these children, neither how to interact nor how to support them socially and academically (T7).

I am not a well-trained teacher to deal with the increasing numbers of children with SEN in my class; the current training programmes are far away from what teachers need (T11).

Teachers at ordinary schools should be aware or, at the very least, should understand the basic level of awareness regardless the needs of children with SEN (T15).

There is a need for devising a coherent policy for professional teaching development that sufficient for educators and children’ needs (T8).

Teachers will not be able to address the needs of children effectively unless they possess a strong background in the field they teach coupled with an innovative understanding of educational pedagogy (T3).

Participants felt that teaching programmes should not only prepare teachers to possess sufficient subject knowledge, but also generic teaching skills, necessary for implementing inclusive programmes (e.g. teaching strategies, differentiating the curriculum, managing behaviour problems etc.)
It is crucial for ordinary teachers to have training sessions inside classrooms under the evaluation of specialists and experts in this field (T8).

I think more teachers need to be aware of the needs of the different types of children that we have, and I think we need perhaps a bit more training to cope with different types of children with SEN (T6).

I believe that more training for teachers about the needs of children with SEN would better support the development of a more inclusive system and enhance the quality of their life (T13).

Training programmes should run by an expert in this field and consist of specialised courses that prepare teachers to deal with the diverse needs of children (T1).

Another group of participants (T9, T10 and T13) viewed professional development in a broader context. For instance, T9 believes that educational administrators should consider incentives that encourage teachers to take further training. He attributed that:

In order to make the in-service teacher training more sufficient, training programmes should be implemented during school times, through determined inset days, as well as teachers should be paid in return. By doing this, teachers will be more encouraged towards training and co-operate with more acceptance (T9).

On the other hand, T10 suggests a regular visit from an ‘expert’, who works in a special school, to give live examples of intervention, assessments and how to seek out extra support for children with more exceptional needs in accordance to educational methods and pedagogy. Whereas, T13 suggests a regular visit from ordinary teachers to special schools and similar institutions to view directly methods being employed. At the same time, T13 also recommends short-term visit for these children to these schools and centres to learn additional skills. Both teachers believe that such educational interventions will help both the teacher and the child to develop essential skills.

Three teachers (T2, T6 and T17) shared the view that policies need to be generated in the universities and the Ministry of Education (MOE) in Jordan to improve the academic quality of teacher students entering teaching programmes. In this regard, T2 indicates that there is a need to raise the
standards for enrolling students into Jordanian universities for these programmes, and to provide incentives and scholarships to motivate outstanding students to join this field. Additionally, T6 stressed the need to put student teachers in authentic instructional contexts, and to provide them with a foundation to teach children effectively. T17 expressed a desire for greater coordination between educational institutions and MOE regarding pre-service training programmes for regular and special teachers to prepare them for this new accountability.

6.2.2 The Importance of Co-teaching and Collaboration

Co-teaching and collaboration is essential in order to address the increasing diversity of children’s needs (Avramidis, 2001). When the participants were prompted to state what extra things they required so that they can more effectively meet the needs of children with SEN; most agree that collaboration between teachers, administrator and parents is valuable for inclusive programme and teaching. According to some participants (e.g. T3, T16 and T19) it brings benefits for children with SEN and makes learning meaningful for others also.

The effective communication between teachers, administrators, parents, help to utilise more knowledge about children needs and then to offer the essential support for their needs (T16).

Sometimes I feel that when I finish my lessons I am in deep need for someone to support me of how to plan for or to deal with certain children in my class (T3).

I think if you are going to have children with behavioural and emotional difficulties in the class then you need to have a back-up system, somebody who is there for you when you need it, there is a needs to be other people involved, you need to have someone to turn to, you need a support assistant (T19).

Moreover, the communication between schools and other relevant institutions to secure early intervention and to address the real needs of children was an area of interest also. T1 suggests:

It is essential that channels of communication exist between the school and the other relevant agencies for the early assessments and to
ensure appropriate support for children needs in their early stage to avoid any further concern regarding their social and academic progress (T1).

T11 and T14 go beyond the inside school collaboration. They suggested a need to create a partnership between the MOE, the universities and other non-governmental educational institutions. T11 believes that such shared philosophy and collaboration will foster more development and implementation of a clear strategy related to teacher preparation. T14 explained the significance of such joined work in the following comment:

A collaborative effort of selected professionals’ bodies from the MOE, the Jordanian universities, the private institutions and the media will be very influential for the inclusive education policy in Jordan, this due to the diverse knowledge and expertise each of them holds concerning the educational pedagogy and teachers preparations. Such cooperation and exchange of experience between these bodies will be very fruitful and will contribute to establish suitable mechanisms that make teachers, children, educational institutions and communities are fit to meet the diverse needs of children (T14).

Additionally, these teachers affirmed the need for these parties to have a shared philosophy and understanding concerning education policy and inclusion. They also stress the need for continued professional development, assessment and research as an attempt to bring inclusion principles into reality. Thus, facilitating collaboration between all educational parties might help in improving teacher efficacy. It allows teachers to gain more expertise and then to blend their expertise to support the learning of their children in the ordinary education classroom.

Collaboration has also emerged in this study as an element underpinning the success or otherwise of inclusion, not only between teachers, but especially collaboration between parents and schools. Whilst there was evidence of collaboration between parents, resource rooms and ordinary teachers all working together to address the needs of children with SEN, in some cases, as some participants indicate, there was an almost total absence of such collaboration.

When a child is placed for support, there is a positive acceptance and cooperation from the parents; even many parents come to school just
to thank us for the support that we have presented to their children (T12).

Some parents got surprised when they first knew about the needs of their children, but after clarifying the programmes and the individual educational plans that were prepared to support the needs of their children, often accept it, even they endeavour to help us in its implementation (T15).

One parents refused to accept the idea of their children having special needs that require support, considering any kind of interference might show that they have special needs (T7).

Some parents refused to allow their child to learn in the resource room, rejecting the idea of their children having special needs (T3).

Some parents openly express their willing not to include children with special needs in ordinary classes since this will negatively affects their child’s achievement (18).

In this regard, Elliot et al. (2007) identify long-term collaboration of teachers and parents as vital to enabling children to develop strategies for dealing with their needs and also improve their self-perception. Here, it is worth noting that however useful the findings reported in this study might be, the parent-teacher-child relationships could not be fully explored in the scope of the study. In light of this limitation, perhaps further research is essential to address the relationship between these dynamics in relation to inclusive practices.

6.2.3 The Importance of Dialogue

Findings from this study show a growing consensus among participants’ that their voices should be heard by all interested parties in education. For instance, T1 and T7 underlined how important this is

There is an urgent need to listen to the teachers and their demand within a democratic stance, there is a need for equal opportunities in the distribution of teachers to schools without favouritism and arbitrarily, there is a need for education with a democratic stance allow the existence of a union for teachers, there is a need to grant teachers’ rights according to active legislation and practices. This all are reflecting on teachers’ attitude and their performance (T7).

Teachers’ views of inclusive education should have considerations; not to be ignored or misinterpreted with stereotypical judgement. It is
essential to decrease the gap between educational administrators and
teachers. It is essential to create more positive channel of
communications allow teachers’ voices to be heard and acknowledge
their contributions to the educational reforms and the inclusion policy
(T1).

Moreover, T16 attributed that positive and meaningful learning usually occurs
through positive dialogue and listening to others’ voices, rather than relying
on, and imposing orders and roles. In this regard, T16 suggests that listening
to parents’ voices is a key factor in determining inclusive education, also
because:

Parents hold key information about their children, it is necessary to
listen to their voices and encourage them to do so; seeking their views
about their children’s needs may play an important role in making
invaluable decisions affecting the child’s education and development
(T16).

In a similar manner, T14 considers children’s voices as being also paramount
to educational reform. He commented:

Times need to be allocated in weekly or monthly basis, to allow
children to express themselves and then to work together, class
teacher, psychology teachers and resource rooms teachers at the
school to reach to appropriate interventions or solutions to their needs
(T14).

In summary, it is worth noting that listening to teachers’ voice is important
for inclusive education reform; teachers possess valuable information based
on a sound understanding of the needs of the children and the changes that
are needed. Nevertheless, inclusion as suggested by participant teachers is
about full participation, about finding ways to listen to the voices of all:
children (with and without SEN), parents, teachers and professionals in this
field. There is a need to co-ordinate all parties to the task of improving
teaching quality and the reform of inclusive practices in a responsible and
thoughtful manner.

6.3 Support Services and Schools Construction

Findings from this study revealed that there is dissatisfaction among most
participant teachers concerning the support services. For instance,
participants’ (T1, T6 and T13) statements highlighted the inadequacy of such
services and the provision of specialised physical adaptations that allow children with SEN to participate in the educational environment.

If resources are available, it does not fit children’s needs; most support services are insufficient, primitive, constant and not commensurate with the frequent development of the curriculum (T6).

Support services are not always accessible. Sometimes, I have to use the photocopy machine in my school; it is in the headteacher’s room. I have to pay for copying any papers (T1).

Some children being withdrawn from schools or kept at home because support services are not available in their schools or areas (T1).

Schools in general are not designed or fit for the needs of children with SEN and physical disability; no ramps or lifts for children with physical disability, particularly wheelchair users; they are facing difficulties in the area of mobility in-or-outdoor activity (T13).

According to the findings it seems that the legal requirements of the legislation regarding the needs of children with special needs are not always met. This might cause tension between the school and some teachers, who felt that SEN children were not receiving the suitable support to which they are entitled. Such limitation of resources, as will be discussed in greater details in the next chapter (section 7.2.2), might not allow for a definition of ‘inclusion’ to be applied within the current inclusive educational practices in Jordanian ordinary schools.

As such, participants in this study stress that furthering of inclusion demands changes in the environment of the schools and the provision of support learning materials for children with SEN. For instance, T19 believes that effective inclusion depends on the availability of support and its adequacy to meet the needs of children with SEN. On the other hand, T15 stressed the need for more funding opportunities to help current schools to improve their services, because:

Funding influenced the provision and care available for children with SEN, if the government invest more money in public schools, then these schools will be able to provide children with a reasonable education setting that suitable for the variant needs of children. Teachers also need more resources and more funds for the curricular
instructional materials aligned with some topics within the curriculum (T15).

In a different aspect, T3 asserts the need to modify the construction of schools to become more appropriate for the needs of children with SEN. He commented:

Schools need to be rebuilt to be fit for the needs of children with physical disability, in order they would not be hindered from accessing local educational resources (T3).

Similarly, T10 believes that many children with SEN in Jordanian ordinary schools are in need of more accessible and inclusive communication support materials essential for effective inclusive learning.

The ordinary schools in Jordan should be provided with adequate support services. Some children with SEN may still need extra help to get the most out of their education. It required schools to make all reasonable accommodations like the vision and hearing aids and the suitable accessibility for children with disabilities (T10).

Furthermore, T1 and T11 call for establishing new centres or institutions. These centres should be provided with appropriate support materials and programmes to expand the delivery of services for children with more exceptional needs. These teachers also emphasise the needs of rural areas to have greater access to such centres, so that the experiences of children with more exceptional needs living in both urban and rural areas are more equitable.

Consequently, support and resources are perceived as decisive factors to the success of inclusion. Participant teachers in this study appeared to ask for more support and learning materials; meaning teachers are more likely to be more willing to include children with SEN and they can implement "inclusion" as long as they have the appropriate support.

6.4 Social Awareness towards Special Needs and Disability

Findings from this study, as the statements below show, suggest that there is a continuing concern over negative attitudes within society towards SEN and disability in Jordan.
There is a lack of understanding to the special needs concept resulted from a several inherited social habit and socio cultural practices, this might extended in a way and effect teachers in our community (T4).

Some families still believe that the existence of a child with disability or special need will bring significant social stigma and disturb the family reputation and their future (T9).

I sometimes, experience rejection from some parents who refuse to accept the idea of their children having special need; they refused to send their child to the resource room as this could influence the way the whole family is being looked at through what they called stigma (resource room teacher).

Such attitudes worked, in some places, as a barrier against inclusion and might affect the way in which a child with special needs is dealt with. Accordingly, some participant teachers stress the need for raising awareness among society about special needs and disabilities. In order to counter such problem as reported by T1:

There is an urgent need to enhance the self-image and to change social attitude towards individual with special needs and to remove the degrade images might attached to a persons with disabilities. Government and social organizations need to devise policies and programmes that spread more knowledge and public awareness among communities (T1).

In this regard, T14 emphasised the need that individuals should be educated and should be more open to others’ rights that are crucial for an inclusive society. This can be achieved through:

Multimedia such as the TV, Internet, radio, drama, sport activities, journals and newspapers; publicity is crucial to gradual social and cultural changes that will definitely lead increase social awareness and change their attitude towards disability(T14).

In another related and crucial aspect, T3, T15 and T17 emphasised local schools and their role in enhancing social awareness among local communities. In this regard, these teachers suggested possible mechanisms that might be helpful to increase the relationship between communities and neighbourhood school. They believe that

Home and school partnerships are essential for children success; there is a need to raise the awareness among parents and society of the importance of integrating children with disabilities into the mainstream
educational system, school, administrators and teachers should work towards this aim (T17).

Sufficient awareness and involvement of local communities about children with SEN must be addressed and given priority within the inclusive education policy in Jordanian ordinary schools. Moreover, schools should work to widen the awareness among all children, children with SEN, parents and teachers about inclusion and its related policy and philosophy as well (T15).

Schools are the first source to raise awareness and to bridge a channel of communication among communities. Schools should have more active role towards more involvement to parents through a defined meeting and in which explain to parents the concept of inclusion, special needs, at the same time parents need to feel comfort about the way of support that offered to their children in a way not cause or exposed parents and their children to any kind of insulation from others (T3).

These teachers also stress the need for increasing community and parents’ knowledge about children’s needs, reasons for special needs, medical issues and the early intervention needs of their children. Moreover, they assert that extending the services for individuals with special needs might foster social activities and encourage greater integration within their communities. They considered that such integration could be supported by an accessible physical environment and shared social activities.

In addition, T16 has a strong belief that enhancing social awareness in Jordanian society could be through equal opportunity for all. He believes that one of the key factor to improve the awareness among communities is through strengthening, enacting and applying legislation based on the principle of equalisation of opportunities in education, work and social life, and work to achieve that by facilitating the opportunities of full participation for these individuals in society(T16).

As such, views prevalent in Jordanian society and the involvement of parents are seen to be essential in inclusive education reform. Inclusion, in this way is based more on the social model of disability insofar as it is concerned with ways in which the social and educational environment can be modified to enable the child to participate fully in the life of the school and of society. Knight (1999, P.3) has looked to inclusion as a “concept”, which views
children with disabilities as true full-time participants and members of their neighbourhood schools and communities. However, in Jordan, where this process is at a relatively early stage (Abu-Hamour & Al-Hmouz, 2014), I would argue that the establishment of the right to inclusive education is an optimistic step forward in itself that demands further attention and improvement.

6.5 Resource Rooms Function
The provision of resource rooms¹³ has been perceived as a significant step towards the partial inclusion of children with special needs in Jordanian ordinary schools. Findings suggest that most teachers, who include remarks concerning resource rooms, were of the view that these units are central to providing support for children with SEN. However, findings indicate statements of dissatisfaction among some participants concerning these units and the role of some resource rooms’ teachers:

I worked in a school classified as having a resource rooms to support children with LD; the room was closed. Then, after three months, the headteacher nominated one of our colleagues to the role of resource rooms teacher; he was unqualified and only appointed to fill this vacant job (T16).

In my teaching experience in different schools, I noticed the positive role of resource rooms towards children with SEN. But, the regrettable reality was that some resource rooms teachers uses the same individual plan with the same targets for different children with different needs, but change the date and the child’s name” (T14).

There is a concern that the resources teacher service is quite limited; being available only to children with learning difficulties” (T3).

There is still some deficiency in distribution of resource rooms in all schools in Jordanian districts (T15).

¹³ ‘Resource rooms’ are small units in some ordinary schools in Jordan; these facilities have been put in place to provide support to small groups of children with learning difficulties (Al-Waqfi, 2003).
In this regard, T11 asserts that educational administrators should give more consideration for these units if the intention were to move forward towards more actual inclusive practices.

T16, who has a negative attitude about the actual role of resource rooms, explained the way in which these units could be more beneficial for inclusive practices. He suggested that local education authorities need to ensure that decisions regarding these units should be based on a professional approach; he commented:

Resource rooms are essential for the inclusive education in ordinary schools; these units could enhance children’ needs through a real commitment from teachers and strong faith in their duty toward securing the needs of these children. Moreover, it is also the duty of administrator to secure these units for all schools in Jordan and to be occupied by well trained teachers. Moreover these units should be also provided with an audio, visual and sensory stimulus, as well as a special curriculum fits with the abilities of the children with SEN who frequently visit these units (T16).

In addition, five teachers affirm that it is the duty of resource rooms’ teachers to work closely with ordinary teachers to meet the needs of children with SEN. For example, T6 looks for more collaboration between regular class teacher, parents and resources teachers:

Teachers in the resource rooms should work with regular classrooms to establish an appropriate learning environment, they should stand on the real need of children with SEN, persist offering the suitable educational and social intervention for them. They should also communicate very often with parents regarding children’s difficulties, intervention, educational goals, and their progress in the ordinary and resources room (T6).

In a similar manner, T15 and T19 explain that the ordinary teacher and resource rooms’ teacher should both cooperate and prepare IEPs fit to the real needs of children. They also recommended that there is a need to revise the current role of resource rooms’ teachers for more cooperation and co-teaching to meet these demands:

The preparation of IEPs is the responsibility of the resource rooms’ teacher in the first place; these plans need to address the needs of children with SEN realistically, not to be saved in folder to show it to the educational inspectors only. It should be based on academic
diagnostic in which the resource rooms’ teacher tries to overcome the weaknesses of children thoughtfully and through cooperation with ordinary teachers and families, it also should be sustained by an adequate support services for its implementation (T15).

As most ordinary teachers lack the appropriate skills to interact with the diverse needs of children with SEN, I think it is essential for resource rooms teachers together with ordinary teachers to provide services within the general classroom, teaching together at the same time in the ordinary classes, as well as to decide and to plan of what children should know and understand (T19).

In addition, T14 and 17 have a view that resources room’ teachers besides being qualified in this sector, should have a positive attitude and enthusiasm towards supporting children with SEN. They also, shared the view of T16 to extend the presence of the resource rooms to cover most ordinary schools and to be available for all children, not only those with learning difficulties, but also any others with special needs.

As such, these findings reflect teachers’ vision for improving resource rooms. In general, the function of these units is attached to the resource rooms teachers’ role. Some teachers who occupied these units were fully trained with a higher degree of knowledge in this field (Al-Khatib, 2007). Thus, they might have more of an insight into some key issues related to inclusion and are more knowledgeable in the issue of supporting children with SEN.

6.6 Curriculum Adaptations

Findings from this study give an indication about the weakness of inclusive education in Jordan in meeting the academic need of children with SEN, particularly those with social, emotional and mental health difficulties. The reasons, as indicated by some participants, included the inability of these children to cope with classroom routine; teachers' lack of knowledge of how to adapt the curriculum as well as lack of resources to facilitate teaching and learning.

Children with SEN are 'slow learners’ and usually have limited academic achievement and social interaction (T5).
It is difficult for children with social, emotional and mental health difficulties to develop academic skills, cope with the curriculum, and share in activities with others (T3).

In my class, there are two children with special needs (visual impairment); they usually require adaption of some school reading texts. Sometimes, I have to use the photocopy machine in my school; it is in the headteacher’s office. I have to pay for copying any papers (T1).

Participants felt that teaching programmes should not only prepare teachers to possess sufficient subject knowledge, but also generic teaching skills, necessary for implementing inclusive programmes (e.g. teaching strategies, adapting the curriculum and managing challenging behaviour etc.). In this regard, T16, who has knowledge and experience in the area of SEN, explained that:

Children with SEN usually prefer activities that suit their needs; some of them prefer tasks like art or tasks that demand movements rather than any written work. Teachers can make adaptations in the curriculum and physical environment when their training enables them to be creative enough to instantly appraise the needs of the child with SEN.

Two participants (T1 and T10) raised the issue that some teachers desire the provision of some kind of ‘guide book’, clarifying approaches to adapting the curriculum for a variety of needs. This exemplified by T10, who made it clear that:

The curriculum should provide respectable teacher guides aligned with support materials, which facilitate and develop more understanding and provide a good idea of delivery; at the same time, the curriculum should be simplified and exemplified the practical implications considering the availability of support resources (T10).

T15 was one teaching more willing to take responsibility for his own pedagogy, suggested a more holistic and creative approach. However, he recognised such ability was influenced by the teacher’s capability and their ability to adapt the curriculum. He believed that:

The process of inclusion and adapting the curriculum to meet the diverse needs of children, start with teachers themselves and their willingness to make changes to their teaching styles. It is the teachers’ responsibility to shape the curriculum according to suitable learning strategies and to provide effective learning
opportunities for all children, including those with SEN needs rather than locating the difficulty within the curriculum itself (T15).

T11 and T14 emphasised the need to review the curriculum. They expressed their opinion of the need for the curriculum to be enriched with in order to meet the diverse needs of all children. In this regard, T11 explained that linking the curriculum with activities and children’s everyday life “would promote the interaction between teacher, children and the curriculum itself”, which in turn, according to this teacher, would improve children’s understanding.

In a broader aspect, T8 suggests that the national curriculum in Jordan should include some topics regarding special needs. T8 believes that this:

> Will help ordinary teachers to be aware or, at least understand the basic need of these children, at the same time make children with SEN more familiar to their peers (T8).

In summary, the opinion of teachers’ for improving the curriculum can be grouped into four main areas: a) adequate curriculum materials and other classroom equipment appropriate to the needs of children with SEN and disabilities in that context; b) learning support staff to work with ordinary teachers in support of inclusion, particularly access to the curriculum; c) some form of teachers’ ‘guide book’ to assist teachers modify the curriculum and their teaching and finally, d) a reconsideration of the curriculum so that it is enriched with activities that connect with the real lives and experiences of students. However, under current circumstances (e.g. an absence of learning support staff and lack of resources), teachers reported feeling helpless regarding facilitating inclusion; they seem want to be rescued by extra resources and support staff. Thus, the challenge to governments and stakeholders in Jordan is twofold. On one hand there is a duty to ensure that schools are adequately equipped and supported, but there is also a dire need to empower and build the confidence of the teaching profession.
6.7 Placing Children with SEN

Most participants agree that ordinary schools are not fit to meet the needs of all children with SEN. They stress the need for special schools as an alternative setting to meet the needs of some individual children and to improve their performance. For instance, T12 commented:

I wish that the education authority will reconsider the policy of inclusion in Jordan in a way not to include all children with special needs in ordinary schools, some children with social, emotional and mental health difficulties are difficult for some teachers to meet their needs, and these children should be supported in special schools with special teachers (T12).

Two teachers (T4 and T14) believe that, due to the high cost of special school, it is essential to consider the needs of some children with social, emotional and mental health difficulties in ordinary schools. T14 suggests a mechanism to support these children; he explained that it could be better for these children to be withdrawn for educational support in resource rooms with special teachers and materials, and then to join classes. In addition, T4 stress that “these children should be able to share in- and- out of class activities”. T14 believes that such a strategy would enable children with SEN to benefit from both: special instruction and the social interaction with peers.

Ordinary classes may not offer an appropriate education for all children with special needs. Some children with SEN were in need for both: the ordinary classes with ordinary classroom teachers and support in resource rooms with teachers, they have more knowledge about the individual needs of these children (T14).

On the other hand, two participants (T6 and T16) agree that inclusion is the right placement for all; they believe inclusion could succeed with additional support, well-planned educational programmes and the collaboration between teachers to meet the diverse needs of children with SEN. T16 believes that:

Full inclusion is a reasonable approach for children with special needs, promotes the acceptance of others and helps children with special needs not to feel isolated, this idea would succeed with the availability of adequate services and teachers’ willingness and cooperation, hence the aim is not to register the attendance of these children in the class, rather to make them active members and socially accepted (T16).
In consequence, not all practitioners see an inclusive system as most effective and may look to the provision of special schooling as a solution. However, due to the high cost of these schools, as indicated by T4 and T14; this kind of teaching was beyond the reach of many children with SEN, which add more complexity to the meaning of inclusion and securing the needs of all children in Jordan. Therefore, it is proposed that government should facilitate special schools for children who have difficulties in learning or behaviour; this school should work more closely with ordinary schools and other support services to meet the needs of these children. This, as suggested by (T10 and 13)\textsuperscript{14}, could entail shared facilities, shared teaching and non-teaching expertise, support for students who move between special and mainstream schools. In this case, special schools might become part of arrangements in helping ordinary schools to implement inclusion policies.

More implications for furthering of inclusive education in Jordanian ordinary schools will be explored in Chapter 7.

**6.8 Summary**

This segment of the study was undertaken to gain insight into what ordinary teachers in Jordan thought about the possible strategies and changes that could be made to improve inclusive education and its practices in Jordanian ordinary schools. In this study, participants explored, in detail, their perceptions towards the enhancements of inclusive education, which they considered can be more suitable to their professional needs. Therefore, based on these initial findings, drawn from teachers’ perspectives, the movement towards inclusive educational practices in Jordan needs to be

\textsuperscript{14} As indicated earlier in (section 6.2.1), T10 suggests a regular visit from an ‘expert’, who works in a special school, to give live examples of intervention, assessments and how to seek out extra support for children with more exceptional needs. Whereas, T13 suggests a regular visit from ordinary teachers to special schools and similar institutions to view directly, methods of support being employed. T13 also recommends short-term visit for these children to these schools and centres to learn additional skills.
reformed; these reforms, as shows, were categorised into eight main aspects represented in Table 6.1.
First aspect: Promoting teachers’ attitude toward the teaching profession and inclusive education. This demands changes within educational policies; these policies should be amended to introduce teacher-based professional development, stimulating environments for teachers; the social view and the value of teaching professional and also, better meet teachers’ financial needs in order to positively affect their commitment to their teaching and their desire for professional development.

Second aspect: Improving teachers’ preparation programmes. University student teachers should have the expertise, including special education and inclusive education courses as one of the main themes in their study. Similarly, teacher training programmes in universities should be revised at the structural and content levels to be competent in bringing about a proper conceptual change of teachers’ knowledge about the needs of children with SEN. In addition, school-based training must be well-supported for teachers and their workplaces through a system of evaluation, expert trainers and educators and training programmes that make teacher training less theoretical and more practical.

Third aspect: Improving and sustaining the coordination between all parties involved with education policy and inclusive education. The MOE, the Jordanian universities and the non-governmental educational organisations should work and synchronise together towards more teaching professional development. Teachers need to gain a wide repertoire of educational pedagogy to become better practitioners, and to work closely with their colleagues to benefit and develop their professional work.

Fourth aspect: The importance of dialogue between all parties in education and getting teachers to make decisions regarding inclusive education. There is a need to implement appropriate policies that consider teachers’ voices and their experience in problem-solving efforts to inclusive education and the implementation of professional development programmes for them.

The fifth aspect: Enhancing society view towards disability and special needs. There is a need to raise social awareness towards special needs and encouraging communities to have more active and positive roles of communication with their children’s school. There is also a need to increase parents’ knowledge about children’s needs, reasons for special needs, medical issues and the early intervention needs of their children, which would facilitate attempts to target comprehensive educational reform in general and, SEN in particular.

Sixth aspect: Enhancing the quality of support services and extends the role of resource rooms as a provision for children with SEN. These units should deliver educational support not only for children with learning difficulties, but to be extended for all with SEN. There is also a need for these units to facilitate advice and guidance for ordinary teachers in some issues related to the materials and methodology of teaching that fulfil the needs of children with special needs. Moreover, there is a need to distribute all over Jordanian ordinary schools and assure staffing with a complete training experience for teachers.

Seventh aspect: Accommodating the curriculum. Participant felt that teaching programmes should prepare teachers to possess teaching skills, necessary for implementing inclusive programmes (e.g. teaching strategies, accommodating the curriculum and managing behaviour problems). There is a need also to restructure the curriculum and for it to be enriched with suitable activities and implications. To achieve this target, teachers need to be provided with high quality ‘teachers’ book’ as a guide with relevant scaffolding resources.

The eighth and final issue was: Improving ordinary schools. Most schools are not fit to meet the needs of all children with special needs. Existing schools need adaptations to fit the needs of children with physical disability more fully. There is also a need for free special schools as an alternative setting to meet the needs of some individual children who living under extenuating circumstances and to secure these institutions equally for both urban and rural areas.
The following chapter (Chapter 7) will highlight deeper insight into the conclusion and the implication from findings portrayed in Chapters four, five and six.
Chapter Seven: Conclusions and Implications

7.1 Introduction
The results from data collection (the questionnaire and the qualitative interviews) have already been discussed separately in individual chapters. The purpose of this section is to reflect on the findings of this project as a whole, and provide recommendations to support inclusion in Jordan and similar contexts. I will begin with the conclusions in relation to my three research questions. The discussion will also continue to identify some implications that might help provide a more inclusive education for general education teachers in Jordan. Finally, the limitations of the study will be acknowledged and directions for further research will also be provided.

7.2 What Attitudes towards Inclusive Education are held by Jordanian Ordinary Teachers?
Findings from this study suggest that overall; teachers tend to have a neutral attitude towards including children with SEN in the ordinary classroom in terms of their knowledge (the cognitive component of attitude) and feelings (the affective component of attitude) about educating children with SEN. On the other hand, they have a positive intention of implementing inclusion (the behavioural component of attitude), which suggest that teachers would like to put inclusion into practice. Nevertheless, they thought that they lack the knowledge and skills to realise their intentions.

Teachers’ neutral views in this study might be explained by, or related to, the inclusive educational policy in Jordan, which appears to have rather quickly moved to a more inclusive practice towards children with SEN and disabilities. This ‘rapid movement’, at which these policies have been implemented, appear to have resulted in some difficulties associated with the provision of qualified teachers or teachers who are specialised and willing to work in this field. It is argued that when teachers gain the extensive professional knowledge needed to implement inclusive
programmes this may aid them in developing positive attitudes towards inclusion (Subban and Sharma, 2006; Avramidis and Kalyva, 2007)

Previous studies (e.g. Al-Zyoudi, 2006; Khatib, 2008; Hamidi and Reyes, 2012) conducted in Jordan regarding teachers’ attitudes towards inclusion, in addition to my study, showed that in general; there was support for the idea of inclusion in Jordan. However, there were some obstacles perceived by teachers towards inclusive education practices. Moreover, these studies, including my study, also showed that teachers’ attitudes in Jordan were strongly influenced by their knowledge about the actual needs of children with SEN and disability, the nature and severity of the special needs and disability, and the nature of facilities put in place for these children.

In contrast, Randa (2003), in her study of teachers’ attitudes towards inclusive education in Jordan, indicated that teachers, in general, hold a negative attitude towards the inclusion of children with SEN in ordinary schools. Randa (2003) attributed teachers' negative attitude to the reason that inclusive education in Jordan was in its early stages and teachers' lacked knowledge in this area concerning how to teach children with SEN in regular classrooms. On the contrary, findings from this study suggest a shift in teachers’ attitude towards inclusive education, which is at least not a negative attitude. Tentatively, this change is important as teacher' beliefs and attitudes are critical in ensuring the success of inclusive education. Thus, teachers’ neutral attitude towards inclusive education in this study may indicate some progress and that there is a growing understanding of inclusion in Jordan, and a decrease in concerns.

Findings from this study regarding attitudes towards inclusion are in common with reports in the literature (Avramidis, 2000; Avramidis and Norwich, 2002; Algazo and Gaad,2004; Boer et al, 2011; Elshabrawy, 2010; AlShahrani, 2014 ), in that some studies have reported support for the idea of inclusive education, while others have had neutral or negative results associated with some contextual factors . In the UK, for example, research studies suggest that while a majority of teachers support
inclusive education they do so only with reservation (Scruggs & Mastropieri, 1996; Croll & Moses, 2000; Hodkinson, 2005). In contrast, Boer et al., (2011) reviewed 26 studies in a number of countries, published between 1999 and 2008. Their findings show that the majority of teachers held neutral or negative attitudes towards inclusion, similarly in my study.

Avramidis and Norwich (2002) concluded that the degree to which inclusion is successful depends largely on teachers’ attitudes and their willingness to welcome and involve children with SEN and disabilities in their classrooms in a meaningful way. Nevertheless, findings from this study into the factors affecting teachers’ attitudes towards inclusive education reveals conflicting results; Jordanian teachers, as discussed earlier in Chapter 6, believe that efforts should be made to promote positive attitudes to inclusion but insisted that such should be realised by extra support, training and resources that are equitably distributed. Such factors should be addressed very carefully in order to accelerate and enhance the effective adoption of inclusive practices in Jordan. Yet, there is a need to move the discussion of inclusion towards greater appreciation of the multifaceted and complex interaction among school-related factors such as ethos, organisation, pedagogy, curriculum, in-service courses and teacher education. This will be discussed in greater detail within the implications of this study.

7.2.1 Teachers’ Understanding of Inclusion and Attitudes towards the Policy

Findings from this study suggest that the majority of teachers agree with the right of children with SEN to education. However, they felt only children with SEN who are able to cope with the ordinary classroom setting have the right to inclusive education. Otherwise, they believe inclusive education will do more harm than good to these and other children’s educational progress if ordinary placement is premature and unprepared. Teachers’ perceptions in Jordan have shed light on a new conception of their understandings of, and attitudes towards, inclusive
education. Teachers see inclusion as a dual approach focusing on both the right of children with SEN to education, and the effectiveness of their education within a suitable educational environment. This perception echoes a point from the UK House of Commons Select Committee Report on Special Educational (2006), in which they conclude that there is a wide range of meanings applied to the term of inclusion from fervent advocates of inclusion, who regard it as a human rights issue to those who see inclusion policy as the root of all problems regarding SEN.

Furthermore, findings suggest that participant teachers link the inclusive educational setting to a combination of external and internal factors; the external factors are related to the educational environment (e.g. the lack of knowledge about the needs of children with SEN, insufficient support materials and lack of cooperation between the educational parties); the internal factors are related purely to the children’s individual needs. Teachers in general, seem to exhibit a more positive attitude towards the inclusion of children with physical and sensory impairments than to those with learning social, emotional and mental health difficulties. This understanding therefore, reflects a tendency from what is ‘wrong’ with the child towards a more interactionist ‘model’ of disability suggested by Wedell (1980). This ‘model’, as discussed earlier in Chapter 2 (section 2.4.3) suggests that children function, and hence their needs, were conceptualised as an interaction between their inherent characteristics and the support and barriers of the environment (Lindsay, 2003 P.5). This interactionist model is in line with the Warnock report (1978), which understood the development of the SEN child in terms of the interaction between personal strengths/difficulties and environmental supports/obstacles (Wedell, 1995). In this regard, Cole (2006) pointed out that in inclusive educational settings, the models of disabilities and SEN should concentrate on what a child can do, and what a teacher must do to promote success for the child in that particular setting.

Another interesting aspect of my findings is that ordinary teachers in this study appear to show different patterns of understanding of inclusive education. Factors like faith and socio-cultural values, as will be discussed
in the following section, allow some teachers to engage in behaviours not correlated with their attitude, and affect the way they judge inclusive practices.

7.2.2 Inclusive Education in Jordan: ‘Inclusion’ or ‘Integration’

Findings from this study identified several barriers in what may be described as the situation of inclusive educational practices in Jordan. Firstly, a limited number of arrangements, in both physical and human resources were made to address the diversity of children’s needs in ordinary schools. It could be said that ordinary teachers feel that implementing an inclusive programme would involve a considerable change to the educational environment to meet these needs. Secondly, most teachers in this study indicate that they had little, and in some cases never had been trained to teach children with SEN. Teachers have the perception that teaching children with SEN requires different skills from the teaching of ‘ordinary’ children. Thirdly, different participants described some children with SEN as socially isolated and were experiencing difficulties in establishing friendships in the school; they are likely to be discriminated against, and often, bullied by others. Although similar evidence was not witnessed in some other interviews; positive social and academic outcomes were reported. In this regard, literature suggests that there is a concern about the effect of inclusion if schools were not offering participation to certain groups of children with SEN (Avramidis, 2001).

As such, these outcomes might lend support to the hypothesis that inclusive education in Jordanian ordinary schools might be understood as a matter of ‘integration’ rather than ‘inclusion’. This can be seen to be more evident in the emphasis that was placed by the participant teachers on the issue of human and physical resources, which were seen as a requirement for the inclusion of children with SEN in ordinary classroom. The assumption concerning ‘integration’ and ‘inclusion’ has been discussed earlier in Chapter 2 (section 2.5.2). Dickson (2003) sees integration as placing the child in a mainstream setting and expecting her /him to adapt as best as she/he can, while inclusion means placing the child in a
mainstream setting and instigating a process of change at an institutional and individual level that will enable them to participate as fully as possible. In the UK, the House of Commons Select Committee Report on Special Educational Needs (2006,p25) distinguished between inclusion and integration which should also be clarified. Integration was the term first introduced in the 1978 Warnock Report. It was referring to the concept of integrating children with SEN into a common educational framework. The concept has since progressed to the inclusion of all children to reflect the idea that it is not for SEN children to be somehow fitted in or integrated into the mainstream but that education as a whole should be fully inclusive of all children.

7.3 What Factors Influence Teachers’ Attitudes towards the Inclusion of Children with SEN?

7.3.1 Faith and Socio-cultural Values

Perhaps the most significant findings from this study concern teachers’ beliefs and their cultural interpretations of special needs. However, before starting the discussion, I would like to point out that since there is a lack of research evidence concerning the effect of belief and cultural context on attitudes towards inclusion; it was difficult to compare my finding with other studies. “Cultural context is indeed a significant variable often ignored by researchers in the area of attitudes towards inclusion” (Karni, Reiter and Bryen, 2011, p.124).

Findings from this study indicate that belief and socio-cultural values in Jordan in some (but not all cases) tend to give indirect support for inclusion in schools. For instance, it is easier for teachers in some schools to develop positive behaviour among all children, particularly in rural areas where social values have more power, and individuals have a strong and close relationship (Turmusani, 2003). However, despite the fact that teachers share much in common in terms of faith and culture, there are also differences among teachers in the way they regard inclusive education. This diversity represents both a challenge and richness for inclusive education and affects the way in which inclusion is
operationalised for children with SEN. Nagata (2007) noted that attitudes not only vary according to the nature of special needs, but also stem from cultural values and context. In this study, I too found a relation between belief, socio-cultural values and teachers’ perception of inclusive education.

**Teachers’ faith**

Teachers’ faith and their experiences with children with SEN lead to a variety of perspectives on inclusive education. Findings from this study indicate that some teachers link their practice to their faith and Islamic values, which encourages the inclusion of needy people into wider society (Hasnain, Shaikh & Shanawani, 2008). For instance, teachers (e.g. T1, T8, T9 and T11) even though they have negative attitudes towards the policy of inclusion, do not discriminate against people with SEN in their ordinary class setting. It is evident from interview data that faith is a dominant factor shaping their perceptions, and empowers them positively towards inclusive practice. This could suggest that teachers’ faith and their commitment to Islamic values regarding people in need cannot be isolated from their perceptions of inclusive education, and therefore, inspires teachers to be involved in interactions to serve pupils’ needs in their classes. This led to the assumption that positive attitudes towards inclusion might be considered as a stimulator of inclusive practice, but not a dominant factor in successful inclusion, and that negative attitudes may not always be a terminal barrier in hindering teachers’ implementation of inclusive educational practices.

Having said that, the interrelations between teachers’ faith and their commitments towards children with SEN needs is not a straightforward issue to resolve. Whilst belief is evident in this study to the extent that it shapes teachers’ perceptions positively towards pupils with SEN; yet belief does not necessarily mean that teachers provide children with SEN the necessary adaptation and support. Teachers in this study still felt uncomfortable relying on one’s beliefs only to accept these pupils in their classes. They believe, as indicated by T6, T10 and T11, that children’s needs will not be met by relying on teachers’ faith only. Rather, it needs
to be complemented with knowledge about these needs. This perception, therefore, supports Haddock & Maio’s (2009) views that faith is one, but not the only, factor that affects a person’s attitudes towards accepting or rejecting others. Although teachers share much in common in terms of faith, some teachers in this study do not address inclusion in the same way as others. This implies that teachers, who have ‘strong’ standing beliefs and practices, interpret inclusion differently with vastly different attitudes and positive perceptions towards pupils with SEN. Therefore, in societies as dominantly religious as Jordan, in that Islamic principles do not discriminate against people with disabilities (Gaad, 2001), it is important to use the tools of beliefs in order to empower teachers’ attitudes and replace the rejection of pupils with SEN with acceptance in schools and society.

**Positive socio-cultural attitudes**

As faith, to some extent, impacts teachers’ perception towards children with SEN, the socio-cultural structure that surrounds teachers in Jordan also plays a major role in the way that teachers define and develop perceptions towards inclusive education. Previous studies, (e.g. Khatib 1989; and Turmusani, 1999) of the Jordanian social view of disability seem to suggest that negative rather than positive attitudes to special needs are more dominant, especially in rural areas. According to Khatib’s (1989) study, there is evidence that social views of disability in Jordan have tended to treat people with special needs as people with no prospects and no potential. On the contrary, findings from this study indicates signs of change in public attitudes towards special needs in Jordan, and came to different conclusions about the social view of disability; it indicates a more optimistic view of disability, and that society, according to teachers’ perspectives, has started to be more accommodating and less discriminatory towards special needs. These changes in social attitudes might result from the influence of a resurgence in Islamic values, which stand against mistreatment based on stereotyped attitudes towards disability (Hasnain, Shaikh & Shanawani, 2008). It could also be related to social awareness and new legislation put in place in Jordan regarding human rights and children with needs.
Changes in social attitudes towards special needs might encourage and support the implementation of inclusive practices on the ground. Evidence from this study shows that schools in Jordan, as indicated by many teachers, started to witness positive parental involvement, greater numbers of parents began making appreciable efforts to look for suitable placement in ordinary schools that accommodate the needs of their children with SEN. Moreover, factors like kin-relationships, which link some teachers with many children in their classes, leads to acceptance being expressed by teachers in addressing the needs of children with SEN. This supports the view that it is difficult to separate attitudes towards inclusion from personal and cultural values (Leyser, 1994; Gaad, 2001; Glazzard, 2011).

**Negative socio-cultural attitudes**

On the other hand, findings from this study indicate that negative cultural interpretations of special needs are present, and still influence the opportunities for inclusion in some ordinary schools. During my interviews of teachers, some expressed a sense of resentment about the responses of some parents when informed that their children had been classified as having special needs and thus requiring academic intervention. They preferred their child to remain classed as ‘normal’ rather than described as having special needs. Some parents may not believe their child has special needs, or they may misunderstand its meaning. Others are still affected by inherited beliefs, as Turmusani (1999) indicated that knowledge of impairment within the family might expose the family to stigma.

Cultural meanings attached to disability contribute to stigmatisation like this. Stangviks (2010) argues that the attitude of a given community towards children with special needs will affect the kind of interventions made available for such individuals. Whatever the fact, this indicates that there is a weakness or gap in public awareness of the nature of special needs, as well as the rights and potentials of these individuals. This shortcoming often limits implementation of inclusion, and may further
explain teachers’ perceptions of why special education provision in Jordan did not focus on providing the optimal setting to meet the educational needs of pupils with SEN.

The optimistic changes in social view towards special needs and disability sometimes evident, I argue, do not mean that these individuals have simply become fully integrated within society. This therefore, reinforces Gaad’s (2004) argument that it is important for communities to develop social cultural views that are effective, and eliminate the discrimination against people with disability. This suggests the important need to gain deep insight of how cultural values can attract and allow for better support of the inclusive agenda, as well as the impact of these values in forming teachers’ attitudes towards inclusion. Thus, more empirical research is needed, particularly given the lack of research in this area.

7.3.2 Teaching Professional Development

Findings suggest that strategies for teaching professional development were not designed to meet schools’ needs; both pre-and in-service training programmes were based on a too-theoretical stance, and lacking in practical guidance. For instance, the qualitative data analysis showed that participants had reservations about training courses that focus on traditional teaching methods but not related directly to SEN and inclusive education efficiency(Section 5.4.1). In a sense, this reflects what Florian (2008) calls ‘inclusive pedagogy’, which should be enhanced by different teaching strategies to accommodate the diverse needs of all learners. Inclusive pedagogy is crucial for all ordinary teachers, because effective teaching strategies can work with all children, rather than using teaching styles limited to a particular group of children (Alhamshari, 2014).

Findings from different international studies (e.g. Leyser, Kapperman, and Keller, 1994; Avramidis, 2000; Martinez, 2003; Subban and Sharma, 2006; Avramidis and Kalyva, 2007)further emphasise the need for teacher training in order to develop positive attitudes and ‘genuine’ practices to inclusive education. Similarly, interviewees in this study referred to the
influence of professional development programmes in the creation of positive attitudes towards SEN inclusion. Quantitative results also indicate that both pre-service and in-service training programmes have an impact in forming teachers’ attitudes towards inclusion; it reveals that teachers with qualifications or training in the field of SED (SEN???) held significantly more positive attitude towards including children with SEN in ordinary schools (section4.2). This finding confirms the role of training in forming positive attitudes towards inclusion.

The effect of training on teachers’ attitudes reinforces its emphasis in certain educational policies. In the UK for instance, the House of Commons Select Committee Report on Special Educational Needs (2006) makes recommendations to increase investment in training it’s workforce so that all staff are fully equipped and resourced to improve outcomes for children with SEN and disabilities. Schools need better guidance and staff training in dealing with the diverse needs of children. Similarly, In Jordan, the Ministry of Education (MOE, 2006) within its Education Strategy Document, attaches great importance to teachers’ professional development. It asserts that the changing role of teachers requires new knowledge, skills and attitudes; teachers’ preparation and training will then occupy a higher priority within investments in the educational system (MOE, 2006). However, findings from this study, as well as others, arrived at different conclusions. For instance, Khasawneh’s et al., (2008) findings indicate that the new cadre of teachers in Jordan at all levels of the schooling system is increasingly posited as not having the requisite skills or experience to teach in classroom settings. My findings also indicate that training for ordinary classroom teachers about inclusive education and the needs of children with SEN is very limited; most teachers gained a large part of their knowledge about inclusive education through their own practical experiences. This level of experience does not necessarily mean that teachers provide children with SEN with the required adaptations and supports, which therefore, further limitate inclusive education. In this way, respondents appear to strongly stress that without guidance concerning how to respond to children with SEN, inclusive education becomes ineffective for some children with significant needs. As such,
findings suggest that the impact of the current professional development programmes on teachers’ attitudes towards inclusion was not effective in bringing about an attitudinal shift of a positive nature in relation to inclusion.

Therefore, there is a great need for interventions that might bring changes towards better enlightenment to teaching professional development and the current inclusive educational practices so that all teachers are professionally trained to be able to meet the needs of all children. In this regard, it could be claimed that in-service training will be effective only when it is systematically designed and planned for inclusive education, academically monitored, professionally facilitated and provided continuously, whereas short courses or theory passed training provided by ‘poorly’ skilled educators (Martinez, 2003; Avramidis & Kalyva, 2007; AlShahrani, 2014) may not be sufficient to create significant positive changes in teachers’ attitudes and implications to inclusive practices.

7.3.3 Type of Support System

Type of support system / service was also analysed in relation to teachers’ attitudes to SEN. Teachers were most concerned that services were not helping children with SEN to the extent they had hoped to cater for their needs. In addition, they believe that ordinary schools in Jordan are generally understaffed in the form of trained staff that can assist in working with children with special educational needs and supporting teachers in their classes. Similarly, Avramidis and Norwich (2002) conclude an extensive review of literature on teachers’ attitudes towards inclusion by recommending significant restructuring of the ordinary school environment prior to inclusion, as this was an implication of some studies.

The cooperation and consultation with other professionals and agencies to meet the needs of children with SEN were underscored also; most schools and teachers have found little additional time for such collaborative work. Feng (2009) pointed out that teachers may gain the skills and necessary knowledge and model the benefits from collaboration, cooperation, and
discussion in training sessions leading to positive improvement in teaching. In Western countries for instance, the partnerships between special schools and ordinary schools and other agencies have been suggested as one of the factors for implementing inclusion more effectively (Srivastava et al., 2015). However, due to different contexts, the same cooperation in developing countries may not be applicable, resulting in differences in the pace of implementing inclusive education (ibid).

Findings also indicate that the provision of resource rooms and their associated staff has been seen as important and significant in the implementation of inclusive education in Jordanian ordinary schools. Although positive evidence was observed regarding the role of these units was observed, findings conclude there is still some deficiency in the distribution of throughout Jordan. Indeed, if available, in some schools are inadequately equipped, and staffed by nonqualified teachers in the field of special needs. Sometimes children are referred to resource rooms according to their level of achievement rather than accurate identification and assessment. These results are not far away from other previous Jordanian studies. For instance, Al-Khatib & Al-Khatib (2008), in light of their studies on resource rooms in Jordan, concluded that different children with SEN are incorrectly referred to the resource rooms. On the other hand, most resource room teachers still need more experience and training to meet the diverse needs of these children.

Findings from this study indicate that the free special school as a provision for children with more exceptional needs has never been provided, and is only available to parents, who can pay or where aid organisations have supported the establishment of charity schools. In consequence, this lack of provision suggests that the legal requirements of the 2007 legislation on the rights of children with special needs are questionable and not always met. The UK Labour Government (DfES, 2006, Section 28) definition of inclusion was consistent with emphasis on a system which could involve special schools (Norwich, 2013). This relates to this study in that teachers believed in the idea of a continuum of educational services
and provision ranging from exclusion (special school) to ordinary school inclusion (regular classrooms with and without additional supporting services) (see section 6.5). This corresponds with the finding of (Romi and Leyser 2006; Elshabrawy, 2010; and AlShahrani, 2014 ) in that despite teachers showing support for the philosophy of inclusion, they sometimes tended to see special schools as one of the answers to meet the needs of some children with SEN and disability, expressing concerns about behavioural problems and management issues in inclusive settings, which this study seems to agree with.

As such, findings affirmed the need for support services to implement inclusive education more effectively. If these services are inaccessible, barriers to learning and development will not be sufficiently addressed, which in turn affects the quality of education available to children with SEN and disability. Nevertheless, inclusion is not about funding and resources only; rather it is also about the quality of support and how it is being utilised to accommodate the needs of children with SEN in their classrooms. Here, I would argue that with the careful and flexible allocation of additional resources and extensive opportunities for training at both pre-service and in-service levels, teachers' attitudes toward inclusion might become more favourable.

### 7.3.4 Type of SEN and Disability

Findings indicate that teachers’ attitudes are additionally influenced by the level of disability they are asked to accommodate within their classroom. Avramidis and Norwich (2002) study showed that teachers are more willing to include children with mild disabilities, or physical disabilities than children with social and emotional difficulties. Similarly, the results from this study showed that teachers in general tend to prefer children with certain type of disabilities, such as physical disabilities, rather than children with social, emotional and mental health difficulties, who seemingly require much instructional or management skills. Participant teachers were also more positive to the hard-of-hearing than the deaf; and more favourable of the low vision than the blind. However, there was
evidence of teachers being positive ‘emotionally’ in teaching children with social, emotional and mental health difficulties. But there is lack of clarity on whether such attitudes lead to more positive outcomes on children's academic and social life. These need to be resolved since they seem complicated. An understanding of the interconnecting factors may be needed, hence, a vital area for further investigation.

7.3.5 The Dilemma of Inclusive Practices and Teachers’ Characteristics

Findings from this study indicate that teachers in Jordan face challenging circumstances concerning current inclusive education practices. In general, the results showed that teachers tend to have a neutral attitude towards inclusion in terms of their knowledge and feelings, which means that the ordinary school teachers are uncertain whether to support the idea of inclusive education in the setting where they are or not. In conversations with participants regarding their perception to inclusive education, the majority want to be inclusive teachers. On the other hand, they seemed hindered by their belief that they lack the skills and knowledge to work within the current inclusive education policy. The dilemmas with which they live affects their professional lives and the way they judge inclusive education, as described by T1 “I, within this inclusive policy, am like a person whose boat has sunk in the sea, he does not know how to swim, and is then asked to save himself and take others to safe land”.

Moreover, in a previous study, Hamshari (2002) raised a key concern regarding the teaching profession in Jordan stating that many teachers in Jordan have not obtained specialist teaching qualifications; they became interested in teaching haphazardly, or because it was the only choice that was available to undertake for their future career. If this is the case, then the relationship between characteristics such as academic qualifications and teachers’ loyalty towards teaching are a matter of concern. Such assumptions might influence the way in which teachers in Jordan construct their own professional identity to work with children and affect
the quality of teaching, and again the way they judge inclusive education. Perhaps further research is needed in this area to identify and more carefully define the quality of relationships and interactions between teachers and children, and how to develop teachers in their preparation programs.

Whatever the case, for many teachers in this study the question is no longer about whether children with SEN are to be included or not, rather how inclusion can be sustained, improved and made more effective for all learners. Therefore, a majority of the teachers who participated in this study expressed their need for tools that aid them to implement inclusive education effectively. They emphasised particularly the importance of increasing their knowledge and skills that could empower them to be more inclusive teachers. They also expressed their need to be personally guided in the classroom by an educational counsellor or a special education teacher, to be helped in class by an assistant, and also to be supported by parents. In another word, teachers feel helpless; they want to be rescued by extra skills, experts and extra resources.

The assumption here, as Avramidis and Norwich (2002) indicate, is that if teachers receive assistance in mastering the skills required to implement an innovation such as ‘inclusion’, they will become more committed to the change and more effective as their effort and skill increase. In this respect, it could be concluded here that while teachers in this study are likely to show initial caution to inclusive education practices, their attitudes might become more positive subsequently, as they develop the necessary skills and expertise to implement the policy. There is a general agreement in the literature (e.g. Buell et al., 1999; Avramidis; et al., 2000; Reusen, 2001; Sari, 2007), in addition to my study, that teachers’ knowledge of inclusive education and the needs of children with SEN were significantly related to their positive attitudes and their engagement skills with their children. However, it has been argued that being an effective and a committed teacher does not only mean to know a lot about teaching, but also means to feel and act as an effective and committed teacher during teaching (Feiman-Nemser, 2008).
The following implications will highlight teachers’ perceptions towards the enhancements of inclusive education, and how ordinary teachers might become more competent in teaching in an inclusive environment.

7.4 What Challenges have to be Overcome to Enhance the Efficacy of Teaching for Children with SEN in Jordanian Ordinary Schools?

Teachers’ perceptions for the way forward
In this study, participant teachers explored, in detail, their perceptions towards the enhancement of inclusive education. Based on these initial findings, the movement towards inclusive educational practices in Jordan needs to be reformed; these reforms were categorised into six main aspects: pre-and in-service teaching professional development; support services and school construction; social awareness towards special needs; resource room’s function; the Jordanian curriculum and placement children with SEN.

Firstly, in line with suggestions made by several researchers in this area (e.g. Clough & Lindsay, 1991; Dickens-Smith, 1995; Ellins, 2004; Al-Zyoudi, 2006; Avramidis and Kalyva, 2007; and Al Khatib, 2007), participant teachers in this study also suggest that teaching professional development shapes the way in which ordinary teachers look to inclusive education. Participant teachers indicate the necessity to re-evaluate the current teacher preparation programs in order to further meet the needs of children with SEN. Teachers feel that they need to gain a wider knowledge and skills to become better practitioners, and also work closely with their colleagues with experience in this field to benefit and develop their professional work.

Secondly, participant teachers see that effective inclusion depends also on the availability and adequacy of support services. They assert the need for modifying the construction of schools to become more appropriate for the
needs of children with SEN. Centres should be provided with appropriate resources and programmes to expand the delivery of services for children with more exceptional needs. These teachers also assert the needs of rural areas for further consideration of these centres, so that the experiences of children with more exceptional needs living in both urban and rural areas are more equitable.

Thirdly, participant teachers indicate the importance of raising awareness among families and society about special needs and to work towards changing societal attitudes concerning special needs and disability. They also look forward to seeing schools and parents jointly involved in supporting children with SEN to develop their social and academic skills. They urge parents to have a more active role in supporting their children.

Fourth, findings of this study reflect teachers’ vision for improving resource rooms. In general, they suggest that these units should include not only children with learning difficulties, but to extend their role to serve the needs of all with special needs. Resource rooms teachers should also work more closely with ordinary teachers to meet the needs of children with SEN. Administrators should give more consideration to these units, if the intention were to move forward towards more actual inclusive practices and these rooms should cover most ordinary schools.

Fifth, many teachers emphasised the need to revise the curriculum. They expressed their opinion for the need of the curriculum to be enriched with suitable activities and applications that explain and interpret educational aspects in a way that make the curriculum more flexible and comprehensible. Moreover, they recommend that the school curriculum for prospective teachers should incorporate sufficient information on SEN to encourage teachers to reflect on their own attitudes to those with SEN.

Sixth and finally, most participants agree that full inclusion is not the right choice. They believe that ordinary schools are not fit to meet the needs of all children. They stress the need for special schools as an alternative setting to meet the needs of some individual children. However, regarding
children with learning difficulties, and those who fit within the inclusive setting, some participants suggest that it could be better for those children to be withdrawn for educational support in resource rooms with special teachers and materials, and then to join classes. This strategy, they assume, gives an opportunity for these children to benefit from both: special instruction and the social interaction with peers.

### 7.5 Implications

One of the most important aims in this study is to look for factors that contribute to developing more inclusive implications in Jordanian ordinary schools. For these aims to materialise, it is vital that teachers in Jordan have a sound understanding of the inclusive education environment they teach, and at a minimum level, understanding the basic needs of children with SEN in their schools. This study has led to an overview regarding the teachers’ experiences of inclusive education. An optimistic view suggests that socio-cultural values, awareness in the community and legislation are likely to bring about further positive changes to inclusive practices. Nevertheless, further key values need to be considered and addressed. This, therefore, will be discussed deeply within the implications of the following sections.

#### 7.5.1 What Kind of Values Should we Promote Amongst Teachers?

**Teachers’ perceptions towards the teaching profession**

Literature has documented that teacher’ perceptions in the Arab world are still informed by an assumed venerability of the teaching profession (AL-Rashdan& Hamshari, 2002). However, this situation has changed and teachers are beginning to report feelings of lower social status in their community (Four et al., 2006). Not far away from these assumptions, findings from this study also indicate that teachers in Jordan still reflect sensitively towards the teaching profession; some teachers who were interviewed are saddened by the situation that the respect associated with teaching from only a generation ago has diminished. Such perceptions might affect the way in which teachers evaluate teaching and inclusive education. In this regard, Gaad (2004) assumes that teachers’ personal
values and perceptions of the teaching profession play a role in establishing positive and negative ideas about inclusive education. Here, too, there is a need for a change that addresses the sensitive issue of public attitudes towards the teaching profession in Jordan. This could be tackled in a series of ways:

Firstly, campaigns and measures could be put in place that enhances the public perception of the teaching profession as a whole. In response to these challenges, teachers must have a protective social and economic status that secures a decent life and stability to help them direct their efforts and ability to achieve the objectives and aims of education.

Secondly, teachers’ living and financial conditions should be greatly improved to positively affect their commitment to teaching and their desire for professional development. However, since research about the relation between teacher income and the quality of teaching is relatively rare (Flanagan & Grissmer, 2006), perhaps, further studies in this area would be useful.

Thirdly, and finally, there is a need to educate teachers about inclusion, and the characteristics and behaviours of children with special needs. Campbell, Gilmore and Cuskelly (2003), in their study of changing teachers’ attitudes towards inclusion, found that raising awareness of special needs through integrated university study and fieldwork, led to changes to knowledge and attitudes regarding inclusion and special needs. Such collaboration would be very welcome in Jordan.

**Teaching professional development**

In general, there is agreement in the literature about the effect of teaching professional development on bringing changes in teachers’ attitudes towards inclusion. For instance, Guskey (2002) indicates that teaching professional development activities usually are designed to initiate changes in teachers’ attitudes, beliefs, and perceptions towards children’s needs. Such changes in teachers’ attitudes are expected to lead to specific changes in their classroom intervention and practices, which in
turn, will reflect on learning outcomes. Others (e.g. Leyser et al., 1994; Avramidis and Norwich, 2002; Guskey, 2002; Osborn, 2006; Rouse, 2007) suggest that additional teacher training in educating children with special needs in regular education leads to more positive attitudes and willingness to implement inclusive education.

Findings from this study suggest the necessity of re-evaluating current teacher preparation programs in Jordan. The aim is to further meet the needs of children with SEN and disabilities in ordinary classes and to make inclusive education more favourable. There are different ways to achieve these aims. This could be in the following forms:

Firstly, as a starting point, selecting able students who are interested in teaching and whose personal characteristics are in tune with the profession. Tambo (2001) asserted that the selection of student teachers plays a crucial role in the preparation of prospective teachers. In this regard, Abu Naba'h& Abu Jaber (2006) outlined some characteristics desirable in the student teacher, such as: responsibility, leadership, cooperation, self-confidence, flexibility, social skills, objectivity, and the ethics of the profession.

Secondly, undergraduate programmes should provide student teachers with inclusive education courses, by integrating the appropriate educational pedagogy with teaching practices at schools prior to starting the teaching profession. Brown et al. (2008) found that embedding special education instruction into pre-service general education assessment courses increased student teachers’ knowledge of assessment adaptation and improved their confidence levels in meeting the needs of children with SEN and disabilities.

Thirdly, teachers’ voices and concerns about inclusion should also be taken into account in developing university courses that address inclusion. Teachers should be empowered not only to accept the responsibility of educating children with special needs, but also to take the initiative to create change in the culture of schools (Fayez et al., 2011).
Fourth, if we are expecting schools in Jordan to have an understanding of how inclusive education works, then it is logical to expect teacher graduates to continue to develop their breadth and depth of understanding in this area. To address this issue, there is a need for specialised courses on inclusive education and special needs to be offered to Jordanian general education teachers, not only with the aims of promoting their understanding and qualifying them to address this topic in their teaching only, but also to change their attitudes and beliefs towards the teaching profession. Therefore, genuine initiatives and programmes should be designed to motivate teachers to engage in professional development, and expand their knowledge and skills that directly relate to their day-to-day interventions in their classrooms. Guskey and Yoon (2009) pointed out that training based in enhancing teachers’ content knowledge and their pedagogic content knowledge helps teachers better understand both what they teach and how children acquire specific content knowledge and skills.

Fifth and finally, the re-evaluation of teaching professional development needs to be generated between all parties involved with the education policy: educational institutions; the MOE and the non-governmental educational organisations. They should work and synchronise together towards more teaching professional development. Here, it is worth noting that while these recommendations might be something to strive towards, given the current economic situation in Jordan and the lack of both funding and suitably prepared academics to develop such courses, we need to start with more realistic and short term targets. These should focus on raising the profile of inclusive education within the local education authorities and schools. This may be achieved through the existing lines of continuous communication between these parties, coupled with raising awareness in this field.

7.5.2 What Kind of Values are Needed in the School?

**Human resources: inter-professional collaboration**

Participant, in this study, report the lack of co-ordination between key services as a barrier to inclusive education, and this has to be a policy
priority. Co-ordination and collaboration have emerged as a major theme underpinning the success of inclusion (Avramidis, 2001). In the practical teaching context, AL-Anazi, (2012) pointed to four types of collaboration, all of which could apply in the Jordanian setting; collaboration-consultation between general and special needs teachers regarding specific situations, general and special needs teachers working together to co-teach, peer support and mentoring, and teams to support general teachers.

Taking these forms into consideration, schools should exhibit close cooperation between some ordinary and special education teachers in respect of specific children, with individual learning objectives jointly discussed and learning requirements agreed to address the needs of these children. More importantly, the collaboration between ordinary class teachers and special education teachers (e.g. resource rooms’ teachers) is crucial for the inclusive education process. This type of collaboration may ease the stress regular education teachers experience in teaching children with SEN alone, and might also aid children with efficient strategies or co-planned. Non-contact time for teachers to undertake collaborative planning has also been identified as an important contributory factor to successful implementation of inclusion (Avramidis and Norwich, 2002).

Moreover, schools also should co-operate and work more closely with other agencies such as Education, Health, and Social services in meeting the needs of children with SEN. The classroom teacher alone cannot meet the needs of a child with SEN. Inter-agency support is imperative. A designated medical practitioner would provide information on health and medication for the welfare of children in need. Social services also would liaise between homes and schools to meet children's care and social needs.

**Physical resources**

This study highlights a number of obstacles identified by the participants that have to be addressed if further inclusive efforts are to be successful. Specifically, the participants reported a perceived need for a further restructuring of the physical environment and additional resources if more
children with significant disabilities were to be included. In this context, Ainscow, (1999) explained that schools need to restructure themselves in order to embrace all children, by adapting curricula, teaching methods, materials and procedures, and become more responsive to the diverse needs of their children. This process requires sufficient funding so that schools will be able to develop learning environments for children based on their needs instead of on the availability of funding.

In addition, the results of this study indicate that educational services offered by resource rooms are still of low quality despite that resource room teachers are currently receiving better academic preparation Abu-Hamour& Al-Hmouz, H. (2014). Teacher education programmes therefore, may need to rethink their approaches and must give practical skills adequate attention. Recruitment of experienced special education consultants to initiate significant changes in design and delivery of resource room programs may also be needed.

**Inclusive education policy**

The Law on the Rights of Persons with Disabilities (2007), as discussed earlier in Chapter 1 (section 1.8.1), explicitly emphasised the right of children with special needs and disability to inclusive education at ordinary school. However, this law lacks the detail needed to process inclusion. Here, I suggest a review of the Law to take into account issues not anticipated; the rights of children and their parents and how other related services can be involved must be fully explained to them. Moreover, there should be national policies to provide a more detailed framework for inclusion. On this point, I recommend the development of a SEN code of practice based on positive attitudes to inclusive education, to clearly show how a child’s SEN can be addressed and how parents can be involved. Though the code may not give the details of what teachers must do, it could provide sufficient guidelines on how children with SEN could be included.

Furthermore, the Jordanian educational system needs to develop a valid assessment policy and tools to identify children with special needs, and
pair this with appropriate support. The interactive model, suggested by Wedell (1980)\textsuperscript{15} to identify the needs of children might help in this process. Consequently, it is recommended that in assessing children's special complex needs, a multi-disciplinary team become more widespread. Medical or health personnel, as well as social services, psychology and education personnel should work together to assess the needs of these children. It is also recommended that parents should be involved as much as possible, since they hold key information about their children. If assessment is comprehensive, it facilitates decisions on the type of services and educational placement for children with SEN and disabilities.

Social justification also, is one of the principles attached to inclusive schools (Phyllis & Karen, 2003). Chiefly, when schools in Jordan aim to change attitudes to difference by educating all children together, then the challenge that faces education policy is to enable schools to progress in a way that forms the basis for just and non-discriminatory practices between children in general, and those with special educational needs. This is required to seed the culture of acceptance in schools and society. Therefore, it is important for teachers to have full awareness of the role of the school as a point of encounter among different people.

As such, education policy in Jordan needs to develop a clear vision to inclusive education that enables Jordanian schools to progress with implementing inclusion for the benefit of children with the whole school context, and for the benefit of society as a whole. Recognition and understanding of the challenges that teachers experience, understanding the context of schools and society and children’s needs raises the issue of what are the required factors and conditions for the development of more genuine inclusive practices. Thus, a vision of inclusive education policy

\textsuperscript{15}This ‘model’, discussed earlier in Chapter 2, represents the two major influences of ‘within-child’ and environmental factors in the so-called ‘Interactionist’ perspective. It recognises that children’s difficulties are caused by a combination of internal factors that relate purely to the child and external factors such as levels and nature of support.
again requires a shared dialogue between teachers, parents, departments of education, and universities working together to understand and improve inclusive education for all.

7.5.3 What Kind of Values are Needed in Society?

Religious beliefs and cultural values
Findings indicate that religion plays a crucial role in some teachers’ understanding and interpretation of having a child with SEN in their classes. However, the relationship between teachers’ perceptions of special needs and their religious beliefs is varied, and depends on the compatibility of their religious beliefs with Islamic values towards special needs. Thus, suitable compatibility between teachers’ faith and the Islamic values towards children with SEN and disability should be promoted. Here, the key issue to begin with is to try to persuade teachers to look at Islamic values related to special needs as a part of their belief, and knowing that the need of children with SEN is part of their commitment towards teaching and their faith, as this might positively influence the way they look to inclusive education and so meet the needs of these children.

On the other hand, society’s understanding of SEN and disability, as indicated by some participants, was regarded as having a major impact on the development of inclusive education practices in Jordan. Some social practices, including misunderstanding and stigma towards special needs and disability hamper the development of inclusive education. Educationalists (e.g. Gaad, 2004; Wehmeyer et al., 2009) in this field recognise the importance of socio-cultural views of special needs and inclusive education. According to their arguments, this requires a shift towards fostering acceptance and bringing considerable changes in how children with special needs are viewed in their communities. Thus, it is central that society develops attitudes permit people with special needs to participate in community life; bringing attention and awareness to disability may be echoed in greater inclusion within schools, public awareness campaigns about special needs and through appropriate legislation also.
As such, faith together with socio-cultural values might shape the way that educational services towards children with SEN and disabilities are addressed and approached in Jordanian ordinary schools. However, whilst these values affect teachers' attitudes towards including children with SEN in ordinary classrooms, teachers might also have a role to play in changing society’s attitude towards special needs and disability; developing an understanding among children is a way forward to achieve this aim.

**Parents and carers involvement**

Parental resourcing of education has been found to be strongly associated with children’s achievement (Nguon, 2012). In Jordan, according to the teachers’ perceptions, parents have generally shown their increased awareness of the need to be involved in the decision making processes regarding their children’s placement and support. However, further work may be needed to understand how to get these parents more involved and understand their barriers to involvement. This might achieved through: a) meetings with parents and working towards developing relationships that support the parents as well as the child; b) spending enough time listening to parents and their needs towards their children; c) events to celebrate children’s progress, such as one assembly a term, events which are used to consult parents about how the school can work with them to help their children and finally, d) continually making efforts to engage parents and increase their awareness of in school-related activities.

**7.5.4 Understanding Inclusion at the Expanse of Values**

This study indicates that the concept of changes in teachers’ attitudes towards inclusive education in Jordan is complex. This complexity, as discussed earlier in Chapter 5, arises from different factors and values, which construct teachers’ professional identity and their attitude towards inclusive education. Teachers’ understanding of inclusive education in this study suggests that they are not against inclusion per se, rather the way
in which inclusive practices are implemented. Most teachers think that they are sent into this field unprepared, and are in need be told how to be inclusive. Thus, teachers’ belief of inclusion is hindered by the view that gaining knowledge about children’s needs and securing resources are the way forward and the catalyst to enhance inclusion towards real practices. Noticeably, teachers’ knowledge about children with SEN and resources are needed to make inclusion work. However, the way in which teachers see inclusion does not indicate a clear understanding of its meaning. Inclusion, as a concept, is too complex to assume a simple linear relationship between children and gaining knowledge about their needs (Avramidis, 2001). The term inclusion, therefore, embraces a much deeper philosophical notion, furthering of inclusion, as the literature indicates, demands changes in the environment of the school and to the educational system as a whole (Mittler, 2003). The UNESCO (1994) Salamanca Statement notes that inclusive education systems provide:

> The most effective means of combating discriminatory attitudes, creating welcoming communities, building an inclusive society and achieving education for all; moreover, they provide an effective education to the majority of children and improve the efficiency and ultimately the cost-effectiveness of the entire education system (UNESCO 1994, Article 9).

Accordingly, developing effective inclusion in Jordan, demands deeper analysis of the values that make inclusion work in a successful and meaningful way. Here, if education is inclusive, there is a need to review the existing systems, methods of resourcing and processes of teaching. Teachers’ knowledge, skills and resources are central. Yet, inclusion is about cooperation, about finding ways to listen and respond to the voices of children, parents, teachers and professionals. It is about making learning accessible to everyone through a process of practice, challenge and innovation. It is about meaningful assessments and placement. Moreover, it is about boosting teacher attitudes to inclusion, they need to know about children with SEN and particularly, the benefits there are in educating them together with their non-SEN peers in the same schools and classrooms. It is also about changing society’s view towards SEN and disability into more understanding and acceptance.
In conclusion, I would argue that it is only when we understand what teachers hold, know and think about inclusive education in Jordan, can we then design an educational environment to help them question their own attitudes and improve their practices. An argument that has been developed through this research is that efforts should be made to promote positive attitudes to inclusion before, but maintained by extra support, training and resources that are equitably distributed. My data shows that inclusive education is more about genuine understanding and practices, than about knowing a vast body of facts and philosophies. There is a need for a body of qualified and capable teachers, who possess mature understanding, practical knowledge and commitment to inclusive education.

Before moving to the significance and contribution of this study, the following section will highlight the key findings.

**7.6 Key Findings of this Study**

- This study’s findings indicate that ordinary teachers, in general, have a neutral attitude towards inclusive education in Jordanian ordinary schools. There was minimal variability among participants in their attitude towards inclusion. However, potential factors like, qualification in the area of SEN and teaching qualification were seen to have an impact positively upon teachers’ attitude and their acceptance of children with SEN.

- Most participants agree that full inclusion is not the right choice, participants believe that ordinary schools are not fit to meet the needs of all children. They stress the need for special schools as an alternative setting to meet the needs of some individual children and to improve their performance. The type and severity of SEN and disability were seen as affecting teachers’ attitudes towards inclusion.
• The meaning of inclusion on which some participants based their support were drawn from the principles of social justice, human rights and religious belief. Generally, teachers have slightly positive expectations towards the social impact of inclusion rather than academic impacts when it comes to outcomes of inclusive education.

• Religious belief and socio-cultural values in Jordan in some (but not all cases) tend to give indirect support for inclusion practice in schools.

• Reflecting on the current teacher education programs, participants in general were unsatisfied with their preparation to be effective teachers in inclusive classrooms. Participants described their preparation as theoretically-based; with little instruction on how to implement this knowledge in practice. They believe that with more knowledge about children with SEN, they will be more confident to meet the diverse needs of children and to practice inclusive education more effectively.

• Most participants raised concerns about the poor resources and facilities to meet the needs of children with SEN. Resource rooms, as the main provision to support children with SEN, were also criticised. This centred on the quality of support that these rooms offer for children with SEN, the deficiency in distribution of resource rooms in all schools in Jordanian districts, the cooperation between ordinary teachers and resource rooms teachers to address the needs of children with SEN and the limitation of support, which was only available to children presenting with learning difficulties.

• Further efforts should be exerted to overcome barriers that may influence ordinary teachers’ willingness to include children with SEN in their classes. Some of these barriers are: inadequate professional preparation, lack of cooperation and information regarding children with SEN, and negative attitudes toward these children. Participant
teachers further pointed out some socio-cultural barriers involving parental attitudes and beliefs about SEN and disability. However, there was a general consensus among participants that inclusion helps in minimising the negative attitudes that they think their society holds towards persons with SEN and disabilities.

- Participants in this study indicated that the movements towards inclusive educational practices in Jordan need to be reformed; these reforms were categorised into eight main aspects: (1) promoting teachers’ attitude towards the teaching profession and inclusive education; (2) improving the pre-service teaching professional development and continuing school-based training for more professional development and effective teaching; (3) improving and sustaining the coordination between all parties involved with the education policy and inclusive education; (4) listening to teachers’ voices by all educational parties and getting teachers to participate in decision-making regarding inclusive education; (5) increasing awareness about the importance of inclusion among educators, children and society; (6) enhancing the quality of support services and extending the role of as provision for children with SEN; (7) restructuring the curriculum to be more relevant to children’s needs, while teachers need to be provided with high quality teacher guides with relevant scaffolding resources, and (8) existing schools need facilities and adaptations to fit the needs of children with physical impairments.

- Given the present state of the Jordanian education system, at the time of this study, inclusive education in Jordanian ordinary schools might be understood as a matter of ‘integration’ rather than ‘inclusion’. Inclusive education would require more modification of the present school system. The movement towards inclusion in Jordan, according to the findings of this study, has not been supported by serious efforts. This can be seen in the emphasis that was placed by participant teachers on the issue of human and
physical resources, which were seen as a requirement for the inclusion of children with SEN in ordinary classrooms.

7.7 Positionality and Personal Learning from this Study

The degree of researcher’s personal familiarity with the experience of participants potentially impacts all phases of the research process, including recruitment of participants, collecting data via interviews, analysing, making meaning of the data and drawing conclusions (Berger, 2013). As indicated earlier in the initial section 1.2 of this study, my professional experiences and positionality as an insider in the context of the study enable better utilisation of the data and in-depth understanding of participants’ perceptions and interpretations of their lived experience within Jordanian educational and socio-cultural contexts. Moreover, besides being an insider, sharing the culture and religion of the participants in this study; I also regarded myself as an outsider with participants in two areas:

Firstly, during the interviews, it was necessary to pay attention to the issue of gender. From the cultural and religious point of view, it was not socially acceptable for a female to sit with a male and ask to be alone. Ahmed & Blackburn (2011) explain that gender is important within a socio-cultural context where patriarchy and segregation by gender are the norm, when the researcher and participant are of the same sex and culture this can mean that communication is easier since both gender and culture are then brought into clearer focus, making more sense of the data that is produced. This point was borne out in this study as the interview setting with female participants to some extent was more formal.

Secondly; my position as an individual studying and teaching abroad in the UK during this research might also place me as an outsider in this study. My professional experiences and knowledge prior to the investigation, lead me to believe that whatever was reported in the UK or western literature on inclusion could be transposed to Jordanian's
education system with ease. Yet, when it comes to implementing inclusive education, as indicated by Armstrong, et al., (2011), I realised that there are diverse implications for different parts of the world, particularly between Western or developed, and developing countries, like Jordan, where the economic, social and culture of individual countries could affect the ability of children with SEN and disabilities to access education (Singal et al., 2011). For instance, the notion that teachers in Jordan differed from the western world e.g. the UK regarding the type of children they would include or not include was evident (section,7.3.1). Consequently, my knowledge and understanding of interpreting global agendas to suit national and local contexts were less developed.

7.8 Significance and Contribution of the Study
The significance and contribution of this research lies in its attempts to reflect on the nature of ordinary teachers’ perceptions of inclusive education in Jordanian ordinary schools, and identifying possible ways to advance their understanding of inclusive education. While the focus throughout this study has been on improving understanding of inclusive education, these insights and particularly the recommendations put forward could have a much broader contribution to the success of teachers in this field.

Moreover, this study has contributed to debates concerning inclusion, which has shown that inclusion has accumulated diverse meanings and understandings, which should be understood within the context of each individual country (Armstrong, 2005). As such, this research fills a gap in the Jordanian literature, as it is the first piece of research in the Jordanian context to address issues contributing to inclusive education. For instance, the contribution of faith and socio-cultural values to inclusive education is insightful. Interestingly, religious belief was a major motivation for many teachers to do their best while teaching children with SEN and disability. Thus, this finding plants a seed for more rigorous research into how the religious beliefs teachers hold influence their interaction and attitude towards children with SEN and disability. Finally, this study also presents data that other researcher may find comparable.
7.9 Limitations of the Study

As with most research in social science (Strauss and Corbin, 1998), the present study possesses certain limitations. These limitations may provide insight for future research efforts. First of all, the study is limited in its generalisability to other remote settings in Jordan by its reliance on data collection from only one Jordanian district (Irbid). However, I stratified the sample to represent a variety of settings in the district, and the participation rate was adequate to give an indication about teachers’ attitudes towards inclusion.

Another limitation of this study is the form of data collection. Although I collected two forms of data (questionnaire and interviews), the contextual factors for enhancement of inclusive education, discussed by teachers in this study, may not well present teachers’ practice on the ground. The study investigated teachers’ perceptions and not their actual behaviour in classroom settings. Therefore, case studies of particular inclusive ordinary schools might provide a better understanding of inclusive education and assess teachers’ interactions with children with SEN more accurately. However, as the researcher in this study had limited funds and time for case studies, the scope of the study was restricted to questionnaires and interviews only.

The study was conducted on Jordanian in-service teachers who work in the public sector (ordinary schools) only. However, teachers who work in the private sector (special schools), UNRWA (United Nations Relief and Works Agency) or with social organisations, which represent about 31% of the total number of teachers (MOE, 2012), were not included in the study, because the policy, supervision, administration, and training followed in these schools are different from those in public schools. Thus, one of the recommendations that should be raised in future research is to address ordinary teachers’ attitudes regarding inclusion compared to the attitudes of other teachers in these different educational sectors in Jordan.

The explanation of teachers’ attitudes towards inclusive education in Jordan and the possible ways to improve inclusive education practices
were derived from the interviews conducted with ordinary teachers only. However, if also carried out with other stakeholders in this field, this could add deeper understanding to the context of inclusive education in Jordan, identify possible factors responsible for teachers’ apparent views of inclusive education, and suggest ways to improve their understanding of inclusion.

Finally, the questionnaire used (Appendex1) had limitations in its design in relation to three points: (a) the statement 3 in section 2 of the questionnaire “I don’t enjoy working with children with SEN” does not seem to fit the scale about general opinion; (b) The statement 2 in section 3, it is recommended to delete the word ‘autism’ from the classifications of severe difficulties; and finally, (c) within the same section 3, the scale would be more accurate if labelled from (very easy to very hard to accommodate).

However, despite the above limitations, my research findings and recommendations might have the validity and reliability required to make a significant contribution to the understanding in the area of inclusive education in Jordan.

7.10 Recommendations for Future Research

On the basis of the discussion of my findings, this study might establish a foundation or comparable data set for future research. In light of these findings; I would recommend the following areas for future research.

First, the findings of this study suggest that teachers’ religious beliefs and socio-cultural values affect their understanding and perceptions towards inclusive education. Therefore, further research would be suggested to investigate what socio-cultural and religious factors significantly influence teachers’ attitude and drive their attitudes positively towards inclusive education and supporting children with SEN and disability.

Second, an extension of this study would be to explore possible ways of improving inclusive practices in Jordan. Indeed, future research might
study parents’ attitudes towards inclusive education, and the nature and extent of the relationship between teachers and parents. This would relate to an exploration of the relationship between the perceptions that parents hold towards special needs, their involvement with their children’s schools, and the factors within the Jordanian context that might affect this relationship between the three components: schools, teachers and parents.

Third, findings from this study indicate that ordinary teachers in Jordan have limited knowledge of inclusive practices, and lack the experience regarding the needs of pupils with SEN in comparison to the qualified teachers in this field. Therefore, it would be valuable to compare the attitudes of those with and without experience of teaching inclusively, and to assess their actual practices, on the ground, in their classrooms. This will highlight the transferability of knowledge about inclusion and special needs, and inform better provision for pupils with SEN in ordinary schools in Jordan.

Fourth, findings from this study were generated from researching inclusive education within the ordinary schools only. Future studies addressing and comparing teachers’ attitudes working in special schools, and their counterparts in ordinary education would be informative.

Finally, one of the challenges in this study was a lack of published literature on inclusive education in Jordan. This presents difficulties for researchers and calls urgently for more studies about attitudes. Further research is needed to investigate teachers’ attitudes towards inclusive education, with studies to identify the factors that challenge the effective implementation of inclusion in Jordan and configure the conditions that effectively shape teachers’ attitude positively in this area.
References


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Kuster, V. (2000). *10 Years on: Have teacher attitudes towards the inclusion of students with disabilities changed?* ISEC. University of Manchester


Marshall, J., Ralph, S., & Palmer, S. (2002). 'I wasn't trained to work with them': mainstream teachers' attitudes to children with speech and


Randa, J. (2003). *Teachers’ attitude towards the inclusion of children with special needs in the first four basic stages*. Dissertation (MA in Arabic), Yarmouk University, Jordan.


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Appendices

Appendix 1: Questionnaire for General Education Teachers.

Section I: Background Data

Please, tick {✓} or complete your response to the following items:

1. **Gender:** M ☐ F ☐

2. **Age:** 21-30 ☐ 31-40 ☐ 41-50 ☐ 51+ ☐

3. **Teaching experience:** 1-5 years ☐ 6-11 years ☐ 12+ years ☐

4. **Do you have a general teaching qualification certificate?**
   Yes ☐ No ☐

5. **Please indicate to your qualification/s in the area of SEN:**
   a) None ☐
   b) BA in SEN ☐
   c) BA & High diploma in Learning Difficulties. ☐
   d) MA in SEN ☐
   e) Other, please specify: ......................................................

6. **Is your school situated in a:** Village ☐ Town City ☐

7. **Does your present school have a resource rooms?**
   Yes ☐ No ☐

(For the purpose of this research study, the term 'resource rooms' is used to describe a small unit in some of the mainstream schools in Jordan. These facilities have been put in place to provide small group support for children with Learning Difficulties and sensory impairments).
Section II: Teachers’ Opinions
Below is a table to be completed, they are statements about your opinion towards the inclusion. Please, indicate with a tick \( \sqrt{\text{√}} \) the one that best describes your agreement or disagreement with the following 20 statements. There are no correct answers; the best answers are those that honestly reflect your feelings. (The term “SEN” in the following scale refers to significant and permanent difficulties).

1 = Strongly Disagree (SD)
2 = Disagree (D)
3 = Undecided (U)
4 = Agree (A)
5 = Strongly Agree (SD)

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<thead>
<tr>
<th>Statements</th>
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<th>D</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. Children with SEN should be socially merged into the ordinary school</td>
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<td>environment.</td>
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<td>2. Children with SEN shouldn’t be full members of the general education</td>
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<td>classroom.</td>
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<td>3. I don’t enjoy working with children with SEN.</td>
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<td>4. I believe that there are advantages in the policy of inclusion if the</td>
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<td>appropriate support materials are available.</td>
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<td>5. Inclusion offers mixed group interactions that foster understanding</td>
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<td>and acceptance of differences among students.</td>
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<td>6. General education classroom promotes the academic growth of the children</td>
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<td>with SEN.</td>
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<td>7. The inclusion of children with SEN is likely to have a negative effect</td>
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<td>on other children in the classroom.</td>
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<td>8. Children with SEN learn better when groped together in general</td>
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<td>education classroom.</td>
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### Section II: Teachers’ Opinions

1 = Strongly Disagree  
2 = Disagree  
3 = Undecided  
4 = Agree  
5 = Strongly Agree

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<td>9</td>
<td>I believe myself to be knowledgeable about the issue of inclusion.</td>
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<td>10</td>
<td>In general, the availability of support services for accommodating the needs of children with SEN is</td>
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<td>11</td>
<td>I feel I have sufficient knowledge about the needs of children with SEN.</td>
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<td>12</td>
<td>I don’t believe it is essential for class teachers to attend in-service training relating to the issue of inclusion.</td>
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<td>13</td>
<td>I think training which include theory and practice are the appropriate teaching way for dealing with children with</td>
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<td>14</td>
<td>I have the training to teach and include children with SEN into the regular classroom.</td>
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<td>15</td>
<td>Children with SEN can attain negative self-concepts in the regular classroom atmosphere.</td>
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<td>16</td>
<td>Children with SEN shouldn’t be given every opportunity to function in the general classroom where possible.</td>
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<td>17</td>
<td>The presence of children with SEN promotes acceptance of differences on the part other children.</td>
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<td>18</td>
<td>The child with SEN will probably develop academic skills more rapidly in general classroom than in special classes.</td>
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<td>19</td>
<td>It is likely that the child with SEN exhibits behaviour problems in a general classroom setting.</td>
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<td>20</td>
<td>Isolation in a special classroom has a negative effect on the social and emotional development of the children with</td>
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Section III. Feasibility of Inclusion According to the Type of Special Need and Disability

Please indicate with a tick \( \sqrt{\} \) to the ease that you believe each of the following types of special needs can be accommodated in an inclusive classroom setting

1 = No Accommodation  
2 = little Accommodation  
3 = Moderate Accommodation  
4 = Much Accommodation  
5 = Major Accommodation

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Type of Special Needs and Disability</th>
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<td>1. Mild to moderate intellectual disability.</td>
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<td>2. Severe learning difficulties. (e.g. a child with autism, Down's syndrome, cerebral palsy etc.)</td>
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<td>3. Emotional and behavioural difficulties. (e.g. disruptive behaviour, ADHD)</td>
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<td>4. Physical disorder. (e.g. a child who uses wheelchair)</td>
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<td>5. Visual impairment (e.g. a child with partially sighted)</td>
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<td>6. Blindness</td>
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<td>7. Hearing impairment</td>
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<td>8. Deafness</td>
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<td>9. Speech and language disorder (e.g. impaired articulation, stuttering)</td>
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Section IV: Methods for Improving Inclusive Practices

Please rank the following 10 methods for improving inclusive practices in terms of their usefulness from least (1) to best (5). Please, tick \(\checkmark\) the one of each statement that reflects your orientation.

<table>
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<tr>
<th>Methods</th>
<th>1</th>
<th>2</th>
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<th>5</th>
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</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. In-and-out which enable children with SEN to benefit from both: special instruction and interaction with peers.</td>
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<td>2. Two teachers in class one teacher concentrate on children with SEN.</td>
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<td>3. Full inclusion with additional support with cooperative from resources room with more services.</td>
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<td>4. Observation teachers’ interaction in inclusive settings</td>
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<td>5. In-service training/workshops</td>
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<td>6. Participation of children with disabilities in classroom activities</td>
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<td>7. Improving the quality of support services</td>
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<td>8. Schools enabling children to present their views, for example establishing the ‘school cancel’</td>
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<td>9. Improving teachers’ knowledge about children with SEN</td>
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<tr>
<td>10. Teachers’ positive attitudes towards inclusion of children with SEN</td>
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</table>
### Section V: Strategies of Supporting Children in the Classroom.

Drawing on your experience of teaching, please indicate with a tick \(\sqrt{\text{v}}\) for each of the statements, that reflects what you prepare or do in your classroom.

1 = Never  2 = Rarely  3 = Sometimes  4 = Often  5 = Always

<table>
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<tr>
<th>Statements</th>
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<th>2</th>
<th>3</th>
<th>4</th>
<th>5</th>
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</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. I am keen to let all children participate in the classroom.</td>
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<td>2. I select the suitable materials that make it possible for all children to learn.</td>
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<td>3. I set instructional objectives to cover all children including those with SEN and disabilities</td>
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<td>4. I design an Individual Education Plan (IEP), for children with SEN.</td>
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<td>5. I gave sufficient time for children with SEN to complete their tasks in the classroom.</td>
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<td>6. I gave individual attention to children who need help.</td>
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<td>7. I mix up the children when they are performing assignment.</td>
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<td>8. I keep daily records of the progress children make in class.</td>
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<td>9. I vary in the way of teaching to let all students learn.</td>
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<tr>
<td>10. I select learning tasks that children with SEN and disability can do.</td>
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</table>
Appendix 2: Semi–Structured Interview with Teachers.

(1) In your view, what does inclusion mean?

- Principles/ rights
- Social impact
- Academic impact
- Peers interaction

(2) What effect do you think the economic and provision situation could bring upon inclusion?

- On teachers’ attitudes towards inclusion
  - Teachers’ needs
  - Support services
  - Resources rooms

- On Children with SEN in ordinary setting
  - Children’s performance
  - The mobility of children with Disability

Teachers’ attitudes towards inclusion: A hierarchal agenda of Actual questions with record/guide structure. S= spontaneous, P= promoted
(3) What affect do you think training programmes bring to meet the needs of children with SEN?

- Possessing the necessary knowledge
- Feeling about children with SEN
- Acting with children with SEN

(4) Why are you implementing inclusion and what are your incentives for supporting children with SEN in your class?

- Possessing the necessary knowledge in this field
- Religion incentives
- Cultural incentives

(5) To what degree does the type of disability affect your attitudes towards the acceptance of children with disability/SEN?

- Mild to moderate intellectual disability
- Sever LD (e.g. Autism, Down’s syndrome)
- Emotional & Behavioural Difficulties
- Physical disabilities
- Visual impairment (e.g. partially sighted)
- Blindness
- Hearing impairment
- Deafness
- Speech and language disorder

(6) What challenges have to be overcome to enhance the quality of learning for children with SEN in the classroom?

(7) Is there anything else you would like to add concerning the inclusion of children with SEN in your school?
Teacher.6 (T.6)
I: How do you feel about the inclusion of children with SEN in ordinary schools?
R: well, it is my view that the inclusion is a right, and an educational process that has a significant impact upon children with SEN, that aid children not to feel inferior and different from the others. But, unfortunately, the education policy here in Jordan has imposed the inclusion on schools without providing the provisions for its application, that's why rear schools in Jordan are in favour of implementing the inclusion as an educational process.
I: So, if most schools lack to provision, you are again the inclusion?
R: Absolutely, no, it’s their right, the inclusion is important for children, parents and the entire society. But within the current inclusion policy, I can’t judge its effectiveness, particularly for some kinds of disabilities.
I: well, you have mentioned the social impact of inclusion upon children with SEN, what about the academic impact?
R: this actually depends on the nature and degree of disability. For example, children with physical disability, their performance is different from those with emotional behaviour or mild to moderate intellectual disabilities, as well as from those with vision or hearing problems.

Note: The transcription and analysis of all interviews were done in Arabic to avoid losing the exact meaning of the participants’ ideas and information in the translation process.
Appendix 4: Questionnaire Cover Letter

Dear Teacher;

I am Saleem Amaireh, a PhD student in the school of education, University of Nottingham. I am conducting a study on the topic: Teachers’ Attitudes towards the Inclusion of Children with Special Education Needs in Mainstream Schools in Jordan. The main aim of this questionnaire is to obtain information that will aid understanding of factors surrounding ‘inclusion’ and how the classroom teacher's effectiveness with SEN children placed in his/her classroom can be maximised. The results of this survey may be used to examine current practice in your Local Education Authority and to support the LEA’s administrators in formulating policies to support ‘inclusive practice’ in ways which are acceptable to teachers.

I think it would be worthwhile if you voluntary to spend about 20 minutes of your precious time to complete the attached questionnaire. The questionnaire is designed to be anonymous and there is no intent to identify any individual teacher. Your participation will be invaluable for the implementation of this research study. You have the liberty if you prefer not to participate or to withdraw at any time from the research if you no longer interested.

Thank you for your co-operation.

Saleem Amaireh, School of Education, University of Nottingham
Appendix 5: Nottingham University Letter to the MOE in Jordan

13th August 2009

Ministry of Education
Amman
Jordan

Dear Sir/Madam:

Ref: Mr. Saleem M Amaireh

Mr. Saleem Amaireh is studying for a PhD under my supervision. His PhD dissertation has the provisional title “Teachers’ Attitudes towards the Inclusion of Children with Special Education Needs in Mainstream Schools in Jordan”

For this purpose he needs to distribute a questionnaire, and carry out a case studies with a particulars schools in Irbid District, this include interviews and observations with some ordinary and resources rooms teachers of basic level of education.

I would be very grateful if you kindly facilitate his work in every way possible.

Yours faithfully

[Signature]

Dr. John Wallis
UNESCO Centre for Comparative Education
School of Education
University of Nottingham
Email: John.Wallis@Nottingham.ac.uk
السيد مدير التربية والتعليم لمنطقة إربد الأولى
السيد مدير التربية والتعليم لمنطقة إربد الثانية
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الموضوع: البحث التربوي

 السلام عليكم ورحمة الله وبركاته،

 يقوم الطالب سليم محمد عمارية بإجراء دراسة عنوانها "اتجاهات المعلمين نحو دمج الطالبة ذوي الاحتياجات الخاصة في التعليم العام" وذلك استناداً لمتطلبات الحصول على درجة الدكتوراه تخصص التربية الخاصة في جامعة Nottingham في بريطانيا، ويج赹 ذلك إلى تطبيق استبانة على عينة من المعلمين، ودراسة حالة في بعض المدارس التابعة لمديرتيكم.

 يبرحى تسهيل مهمة الطالب المذكور وتقديم المساعدة الممكنة له.

 ونفضلوا بقبول فائق الاحترام،

 وزير التربية والتعليم

[اسم]

[تاريخ]

[رقم]

[توقيع]

[عنوان]

[صفة]
Appendix 7: Research Ethics Approval Form

School of Education – Research Ethics Approval Form

Name: Saleem M Amaireh
Main Supervisor: Dr John Wallis and Dr Edd Sellman
Course of Study: PhD (p/t)
Title of Research Project: Teachers attitudes towards the inclusion of children with special education needs in mainstream schools in Jordan
Is this a resubmission? Yes

Date statement of research ethics received by PGR Office: 22.05.09

Research Ethics Coordinator Comments:

Outcome:
- [ ] Approved ✓
- [ ] Revise and Resubmit

Signed: [Signature]
Name: Prof Roger Murphy
(Research Ethics Coordinator)
Date: 27.05.09