CONSTRAINTS FACING THE IMPLEMENTATION OF INCLUSIVE EDUCATION: A CASE OF SELECTED SECONDARY SCHOOLS IN KERICHO COUNTY

BY

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DECLARATION

This thesis is my original work and has not been presented for a degree in any other University or any other award.

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I dedicate this thesis to my wife Jane and children: Tony, Betty, Angela, Kevin and Serena-Kate, nephews and nieces for their sincere love in spite of difficulties during the course of my study.

You will always be remembered, for what I am is because of your encouragement and support.
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<td>EARC</td>
<td>Educational Assessment Resource Centre</td>
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<td>EFA</td>
<td>Education for All</td>
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<td>ESSP</td>
<td>Education Sector Strategic Plan</td>
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<td>FCUBE</td>
<td>Free Compulsory Universal Basic Education</td>
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<td>FPE</td>
<td>Free Primary Education</td>
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<tr>
<td>KIEP</td>
<td>Kenya Integrated Education Program</td>
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<td>KISE</td>
<td>Kenya Institute of Special Education</td>
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<td>LRE</td>
<td>Least Restrictive Environment</td>
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<td>NER</td>
<td>National Expenditure Rate</td>
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<td>OCIEP</td>
<td>Oriang Cheshire Inclusive Education Project</td>
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<td>SEU</td>
<td>Special Education Unit</td>
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<td>SNE</td>
<td>Special Needs Education</td>
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<td>TIQET</td>
<td>Total Integrated Quality Education and Training</td>
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<tr>
<td>UNAB</td>
<td>Uganda National Association of the Blind</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>UNESCO</td>
<td>United Nations Educational Scientific and Cultural Organization</td>
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ABSTRACT

The National Special Needs Education Policy Framework in Kenya stipulates that there shall be elimination of disparities and enhancement of equity and equality for all learners, especially inclusion of learners with special needs in the education system. The problem is that there still exist inequalities and disparities in accessing quality education among learners with special needs. The study was guided by the following objectives: To describe personnel-related constraints facing implementation of inclusive education, identify constraints facing availability of resources in inclusive settings, find out curriculum-related constraints in regard to learners with SNE and find out constraints related to the physical environment. Vygotsky’s Socio-Cultural Theory informed this study. A case study design of two selected inclusive secondary schools in Kericho County was used. The case study used a purposive sample of two public secondary schools; respondents included the two Principals, teachers, resource teachers, and Educational Assessment Resource Centre officers. Interviews were conducted with administrators, teachers and educational assessment resource team. Two methods of data analysis were used: Domain and thematic analysis. Domain analysis involved analysis of language of participants in the cultural context of their respective inclusive schools. Major findings include: general curriculum teachers have no basic knowledge in handling learners with special needs; the two schools experience shortage of trained SNE teachers because those already trained fear laborious work and are unavailable to provide their services to learners with special needs and teachers have no basic knowledge in handling this category of learners. The study concluded that inclusive education is constraint by shortage of personnel, inadequacy of specialized material resources to be used in the teaching of learners with special needs, and the learning environment is still far from being accessible to students with SNE. The researcher recommends that for the learning environment to be conducive, schools must take initiative to improve on physical facilities to be sensitive to learners with SNE. In addition, policy makers should create awareness and do sensitization to remove socio-cultural attitudes and systems that condemn special needs selectively and create barriers on avenues for accommodation and inclusion.
CHAPTER ONE

INTRODUCTION

1.1 Introduction

This chapter discusses the background of the study, statement of the problem, purpose of the study, objectives, research questions, significance of the study, limitations and delimitations, theoretical framework, conceptual framework and operational definition of terms.

1.2 Background of the Study

Inclusive education has evolved over the years both in terminology and practice due to changes in the way people with special needs are viewed in society. Throughout recorded history, disability has been understood and accounted for in different ways (Stiker, 2002). Throughout the long, dark centuries before 1700, individual deviation, whether social, political, religious, intellectual or physical, was rarely tolerated. Those who differed from, or differed with, what a society deemed appropriate and normal were subject to abuse, condemnation, or destruction. Winzer (1993) observes that with rare exceptions, disabled persons were regarded with aversion and subjected to astounding cruelty; in most cultures they were scorned as inferior beings and they were deprived of rights and privileges. Their afflictions were misunderstood, frequently looked upon as having supernatural causes and therefore being un-amenable to human treatment. According to Winter (2003), legal mandates denied them basic civil rights; theological canons excluded them from church membership; and philosophy pronounced them incapable of mental or moral improvement.

In the middle of the eighteenth century, Britain and Europe turned for the first time, to the systematic instruction of disabled people (Winzer, 1993). Enlightenment ideas were germane to the development of special education; early special education had a sociopolitical base,
conditioned especially by the philosophical views of Etienne Bonnot de Condillac, Diderot, and Rousseau. The first institutions or asylums began accommodating people with cognitive impairment (Ainscow, 1994); and mental illness (Atherton, 2003) in Britain in the early part of the 19th century. The overriding belief at the time was that people with disabilities could, with appropriate education and training, return to live in their own communities and have a contributing role to play.

With the increasing fear that people with disabilities were among a number of social groups contributing to the degeneration of society, asylums in the first part of the 20th century became more custodial and less reforming in nature. An analysis of the history of special education provision in many countries suggests certain patterns (Reynolds and Ainscow, 1994). The 20th century saw initial provision of special education taking the form of separate special schools set up by religious or philanthropic organizations. Many countries adopted and extended this as part of national education arrangements, often leading to a separate and parallel school system for those learners seen as being in need of special education.

When integration came on the world agenda in the 1960s and 1970s, it was, first of all, an attempt at system reforms demanding;

a) Rights to schooling and education for disabled children. Although all children at that time were said to have a right to education, there were groups of children in most countries who did not have this right. Due to their disability they were provided for in other institution such as special schools and hospitals (Vislie, 2003).

b) Rights to education in local schools

c) Total reorganization of the special education system, focusing all aspects of it, from the identification of its clients to the financial issues followed by integration, the
internal local school organizational structures, and the handling of teaching and learning, including special education, in integrated classes.

While integration was the main issue on the agenda when the international community and national governments discussed how to promote the rights of the disabled persons to an appropriate education until the end of the 1980s, inclusion has captured the field during the 1990s. In this respect, the World Conference on Special Needs Education in Salamanca in 1994, with the adoption of the Salamanca Statement and Framework for Action on Special Needs Education, represents the event that definitely set the policy agenda for inclusive education on a global basis (UNESCO, 1994).

According to the UNESCO documents, inclusive education: a) challenges all exclusionary policies and practices in education, b) is based on a growing international consensus of the right of all children to a common education in their locality regardless of their background, attainment or disability, and c) aims at providing good-quality education for learners and a community-based education for all. Inclusive schooling recognizes that special learning needs can arise from social, psychological, economic, linguistic, cultural as well as physical (or disability) factors; hence the use of the term ‘children with special needs’ rather than ‘children with disabilities’ (Smith, 2004; Ainscow, 1991; and Rogers, 1993).

The road leading to the formulation of special education policy in Kenya is full of rhetoric and good intention, with events of the last few decades indicating that somehow demands made by people with special needs to re-examine special education provided the impetus to place inclusion firmly on the agenda of social change. Kenya’s earliest efforts for organized care and provision of special needs education dates back to the late 1940s, with much involvement of religious institutions, notably the Salvation Army church and much later the Anglican, the Catholic, the Methodist and the Presbyterian churches in establishing special
schools and institutions for children with visual, hearing, physical and mental challenges in various parts of the country where they had mission. Since then, the management of most of these institutions has been taken over by the Ministry of Education.

Integration of learners with special needs as a policy and practice has not left the education stage entirely. There are many debates on whether or not the new policy of inclusive education is not just a mere rejuvenation of integration. 92 representatives of governments and 25 international organizations met in June 1994 and formed the World Conference on Special Needs Education, in Salamanca Spain. The conference reaffirmed the right to education of every individual, as enshrined in the 1948 Universal Declaration of Human Rights, and renewed the pledge made by the world community at the 1990 World Conference on Education for All to ensure that right for all regardless of individual differences.

During the subsequent 15 years or so, there has been considerable activity in many countries to move educational policy and practice in a more inclusive direction. The aforementioned events influenced Kenya in the direction of wanting to implement inclusive education. During the 2002 general election campaigns, the National Rainbow Coalition (NARC) political party made the provision of Free Primary Education part of its election manifesto. Following its victory, on January 6, 2003, the Ministry of Education, Science and Technology (MoEST) launched the Free Primary Education (FPE) to fulfill NARC’s election pledge (Sifuna, 2005). Fees and levies for tuition in primary education were abolished as the government and development partners were to meet the cost of basic teaching and learning materials. But the government soon conceded that it was facing various challenges in providing free education especially to students with special needs (RoK, 2005).

The government had not provided schools with the necessary equipment and facilities to enable students with special needs to access education. To meet these challenges, and to
ensure that children with special needs equally benefit from the quality education, the Kenya government set up a task force in July 2003 to carry out an appraisal exercise on education to enable it plan and provide education to all learners (Otude, 2004). The task force brought together 800 key players in the sector. Its findings are captured in the Sessional Paper No.1 of 2005 titled ‘Meeting the Challenges of Education, Training and Research in Kenya in the 21st Century.’ The report reaffirmed the import of special education for human capital development as it prepares those who are most likely to be dependents to become self-reliant (RoK, 2005).

The Sessional Paper No.1 of 2005 mentioned above undoubtedly was the precursor of the National Special Needs Education Policy Framework which was officially launched by the Ministry of Education on 10th March, 2010. The Ministry of Education together with stakeholders and partners developed the SNE policy framework to address critical issues related to education of learners with special needs (RoK, 2009). The new direction in Kenya gives the basic policy framework for education, emphasizing the correcting of existing inequalities. The aims of inclusive education stresses on enhancement of developing capacity of SNE professionals, promotion of effective management, coordination of SNE and other related services, and placement measures to promote barrier-free environment for learners with special needs in all learning institutions. Although papers do not necessarily translate to practice, this study is interested in how these inclusive-related policy objectives are being implemented.

A number of schools in Kericho County are beginning to embrace inclusion of learners with special needs. Those at the forefront in the implementation of inclusive education were originally integrated programs for learners with visual challenges and special units for those with physical challenges. Accordingly, majority of students with special needs included
reflects the type of school during the integration period albeit with a few additional learners with other physical or sensory challenges.

1.3 Statement of the problem

Between 1980 and 1999, a number of international events took place that influenced Kenya in the direction of implementing inclusive education. The international policy frameworks ratified and signed by the government include, the 1989 United Nations Convention on the Rights and Welfare of the Child, Salamanca Statement (1994) and The Framework for Action on Special Needs Education (1999). The National Framework Policy stipulates that there shall be elimination of disparities and enhancement of equity and equality for all learners, especially inclusion of learners with special needs in the education system. In fact, the national SNE policy framework is supposed to provide a comprehensive framework of the principles and strategies to be followed in order to create equal access to quality and relevant education and training for learners in inclusive institutions. The problem is that there still exist inequalities and disparities in accessing and participating in quality education among learners with special needs. This study interrogated constraints facing the implementation of inclusive education at the school level.

1.4 Objectives of the Study

This study was guided by the following objectives;

i) To describe personnel-related constraints facing implementation of inclusive education.

ii) To identify constraints facing availability of resources in inclusive settings.

iii) To find out curriculum-related constraints in regard to learners with special needs.

iv) To find out constraints related to the physical environment in the implementation of inclusive education.
1.5 Research Questions

i) What are the personnel-related constraints facing implementation of inclusive education?

ii) What constraints face the availability of resources in inclusive settings?

iii) What are the constraints facing delivery of curriculum in regard to learners with special needs?

iv) What are the physical environment-related constraints facing implementation of inclusive education?

1.6 Significance of the Study

Inclusive education is a relatively new area and has a bearing on current trends and issues. This study therefore will be invaluable to the following stakeholders:

i) **Parents and the community.** It will extend knowledge of inclusive education to parents and the community at large. This study will equip parents and guardians with knowledge that promotes inclusion and remove children socially, physically and psychologically, from most restrictive environments (MRE) to least restrictive environments (LRE). This in essence means that the community will create situations that lessen the handicapping conditions.

ii) **Management.** The current study will benefit school management in planning the curriculum that is in tandem with specific needs of learners. Decisions will be made concerning allocation of time for specialized skills, delegating specialized content to those with the appropriate knowledge, enhancing motivational techniques among learners with special needs, and promoting novel instructional strategies in inclusive classrooms. The study will add to educational management knowledge and literature on inclusive education.
iii) Kenya National Examinations Council. This study will be valuable to the Kenya National Examinations Council in many ways. First, it will be clear that some learners with special needs rely heavily on adapted materials and examinations. It is not enough to provide large print or hearing aids. Proper assessment is necessary to determine the nature and abilities of individual students. Secondly, concepts should be revisited so that meanings are clarified and avoid ambiguities in the examinations. Lastly, introduce evaluation in functional skill areas to ensure teachers include these in the curriculum.

iv) Policy makers. Finally, this study will assist policy decisions at the Ministry of Education. Findings will point out gaps in policy and practice concerning delivery of curriculum, resource mobilization, capacity building and support services in inclusive schools.

1.7 Assumptions of the Study

The study made the following assumptions:

- The schools utilize resourced provided by the government and other stakeholders as intended.

- The entire schools’ managements were supportive of inclusive education.

- All respondents were cooperative and provided reliable responses.

- Selected schools would have some teachers trained in Special Needs Education.

1.8 Limitations of the Study

Limitation, according to Orodho (2008), is an aspect of the study that the researcher knows may adversely affect the results or generalizability of the results of the study, but over which
he or she has no direct control over. The following factors therefore, constituted limitations of this study:

i) It was not possible to find a single school practicing inclusion of a variety of impairments or handicapping conditions. Therefore, the study heavily depended on schools which practiced inclusion of learners with visual and physical challenges and had shown willingness to take in other categories of learners with special needs.

ii) Secondary schools practicing inclusion did not have fully-fledged functioning departments dealing with learners with special needs even though trained SNE teachers were present. In this case, the researcher included other members of staff who taught in the classes where students with special needs were included.

1.9 Delimitations of the Study

The delimitation of the study is the boundary limitation (Orodho, 2008). The study was:

i) Confined to one County, Kericho. For more exhaustive results, all the agriculturally farming Counties west of Mau should have been studied. However, this was not possible because of financial, time, and other logistical constraints.

ii) Confined to two secondary schools that had embraced inclusion in Kericho County. The implication of this was that findings were only true to the two schools at that time.

iii) Revolved around personnel management, curriculum, resources and physical environment.
1.10 Theoretical Framework

Constraints facing teachers in the implementation of inclusive education have attracted proponents of inclusion such as Vygotsky. This study is grounded in the theory of Lev Vygotsky (1896–1934), whose ideas turned out to be instrumental in shaping the learning processes in a growing number of classrooms in Russia, Europe, and the United States. The major Vygotskian theory made in reference to special education practice is the Socio-Cultural Theory (Gindis, 1999; 2003). It is rooted on the understanding of the nature of the disability and the means to compensate for it which makes it the core of any system of special education. Vygotsky considered handicaps as socio-cultural developmental phenomena in which compensation arises from socialization and enculturation. He demonstrated that a disability varies psychologically in different cultural and social environments.

In Vygotsky’s view, the main objective of special education should be the creation of a “positive differential approach” that can fully develop a handicapped child’s higher psychological functions and overall personality. This concept is discussed in the context of the current debates about the notion of inclusion as a prospect for development in special education. Inclusion is an emerging philosophy that has its foundations in social justice, and the deinstitutionalization and civil rights movements of the 1960s. The philosophy of inclusion—reaffirmed by the Salamanca Statement of 1994—and the development of inclusive school have great rhetorical power and are influencing special education policy globally (Dixon & Verenikina, 2007).

Vygotsky was critical of segregation and mindless inclusion. In his early writings, he advocated what is now called the Full Inclusion Model. In his later writings he proposed that a very different learning environment where all of the staff could concentrate on the individual needs of the child was necessary. Although at first these two seem contradictory,
Vygotsky emphasized that it was the methods of teaching that should be changed as well as the school setting. The student must always be maintained as much as is possible within the mainstream social and cultural environment. Vygotsky understood the importance that experience plays in the learner’s construction of knowledge within a social context.

Vygotsky’s Socio-Cultural Theory places the child’s learning squarely within the social, cultural, and historical settings that emphasizes children’s cultural values and beliefs. Vygotsky asserts that learning and development cannot proceed without access to educational experiences afforded within the learning environment. Implementation of inclusive education outside the environments advocated by the Vygotskian out-look results in constraints. The school system represents a socio-cultural community where all learners must somehow fit. Inclusion brings together both disabled as much as the non-disabled and directs them toward self accomplishment as planned in the curriculum—a curriculum delivered by teachers possessing diverse professional qualifications, attitudes and skills to handle inclusive classes.

Socio-Cultural Theory, therefore, is appropriate to the present study because it is in line with the provisions of Kenya’s SNE Policy Framework which recognizes inclusive schooling as the inclusion of all students, regardless of ability, into the same schools and classrooms with peers who are not considered to have special needs. Inclusive education should, therefore, extend far beyond mere physical proximity to providing students the support required to belong and achieve in classroom and school communities. Inclusion is both a process for and outcome of understanding, acceptance, and valuing of differences among today's school children and youth. It is potentially both a process and an outcome for achieving social justice and equity in our society.
1.11 Conceptual Framework

Conceptual framework can be understood as a tool intended to assist a researcher to develop awareness and the understanding of the situation under scrutiny and to communicate the same after reviewing, and reforming as a result of investigation (Kombo & Tromp, 2006; Guba & Lincoln, 1989).

Teachers’ competence to handle specialized skills, would stem from capacity building and resource development, participation and involvement of students in decision making, demands of the curriculum, the willingness of the school administration to take students for assessment, and resource mobilization. Competent teachers’ works are reflected in their ability to utilize various instructional strategies in mixed classes, adapting curriculum to suit individual needs of students, and methods of evaluating the varied student population (and by extension, the curriculum).

On the other hand, special education students benefit academically and from daily interaction with general education students. In an inclusionary setting, special education students learn social skills and independence.

Figure 1.1 shows the outcome of the interplay between the following variables: availability of professional and support services, participation and involvement of learners with special needs in decision making, flexibility of the curriculum in meeting the needs of learners, and availability of programs that enhance resource mobilization. These lead to outcomes such as social inclusion like: cooperative learning, acquisition of social skills and independence, and a more normalized functioning as an adult in community. The other outcome is the academic benefit evident when a student with a special need, (for instance visual impairment) is
accorded same access, same amount of work and learning materials, acquire problem solving skills, active participation and accommodation of individual learning styles.

*Interplay between personnel management, resource mobilization, curriculum development and physical environment (as independent variables) with possible outcomes in an inclusive setting. The shaded boxes constitute the dependent variables*

*Fig. 1.1 Conceptual Framework*
1.12 Operational Definition of Terms

**Constraints** - These are barriers faced by the school community during the discharge of their duties in inclusive schools. They also imply shortcomings possessed by teachers (e.g. attitudes) which prevent them from fully participating in the implementation of programs designed for students with special needs.

**Curriculum adaptation** - This refers to any adjustment or modification to the general education program to enable students with special needs to participate in and benefit from learning activities and experiences accorded to all learners.

**Integration** - Learners with special educational needs being placed in mainstream provision with some adaptations and resources but on condition that the student can fit in with pre-existing structures, attitudes and an unaltered environment.

**Inclusive education** - Inclusive education is defined as a process of addressing and responding to the diversity of needs of all learners and of reducing exclusion to and within education system. Inclusive education is concerned with learners being placed in mainstream provision, where there is a commitment to removing all barriers to the full participation of each child as a valued, unique individual.

**Special education** - Is the education of students with special needs in a way that addresses the students' individual differences and needs.

**Disability** - Any restriction or lack of ability to perform an activity in the manner or within the range considered normal for a human being.

**Implementation** - Is the realization of an application, or execution of a plan, idea, model, or design as in carrying out the principles and strategies stipulated in the Special Needs Education policy in order to create equal access to quality and relevant education and training in inclusive institutions.
CHAPTER TWO

LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1 Introduction

This study aimed at finding out constraints facing the implementation of inclusive education. This chapter therefore contains descriptions on management and support services to learners with special needs, participation and involvement of learners with special needs in decision making, inclusive curriculum development, resource mobilization, global studies on special education and development of special education in Kenya. The underlying purpose of this is to locate the present research in the existing body of research on constraints facing implementation of inclusion and to point out gaps.

As a result of inclusive education policies, research findings from across the globe indicate that schools and teachers are struggling to respond to the wide array of students (Wills & Cain, 2002). Proponents of inclusivity argue that inclusive education is good for all participants in schooling because of the resulting improved societal attitudes towards people with special needs. Globally, there have been enormous changes in public schools since the 1980s. Hallahan and Kauffman (1994) observe that one of the greatest changes is in the amount of diversity in the classroom. Teachers are being called upon to teach students with a wide range of abilities and needs. Perhaps the factor that has had the greatest impact on diversity is the movement toward the inclusion of students with special needs in the general education classroom. The adoption of the United Nations Conventions on the Rights of People with Disabilities, and in particular Article 24, which requires the development of an inclusive education system for all children, presents both a challenge and an opportunity (Rieser, 2008). The UN Convention unambiguously recognizes the link between inclusive
education and the right to education of people with disabilities. Its approach is based on a growing body of evidence that shows that inclusive education not only provides the best educational environment, including for children with intellectual challenges, but also contributes to breaking down barriers and challenging stereotypes (Rieser, 2008).

Successive resolutions within global conventions designed to protect individual rights and autonomy have been unilaterally recognized on a global dimension. According to Daniels & Garner (1999), such innovative and ultimately praiseworthy initiatives have had little or no dissenting views. The lack of voice leading to marginalization and social exclusion is witnessed too often in systems that announce a commitment to empowerment, but lack the political will to ensure that rhetoric becomes reality. Token and rhetorical responses to initial concerns, leading to policy statements that make little or no impact on the lives of children with disabilities, are all too frequent.

2.2 Personnel-related Constraints facing Implementation of Inclusive Education

2.2.1 Attitudinal Barriers

Attitudinal barriers to inclusion are arguably greater than barriers posed by material resources. Save the Children (2008) reports that teachers are not confident about working with children who do not fit their expectations of a ‘normal’ child, particularly where they have fears or prejudices about what such children will be like. Implementation of inclusive education is constraint when schools and education systems reflect the prejudices and discrimination found in wider society. Prejudiced students feel most marginalized and remain invisible to the education system. Just as these students are invisible within society, they do not feature when the effectiveness of education is measured.

A study by Van der Horst & MacDonald (1997) indicates that many teachers are irresponsible, lack dedication and commitment. The teaching of learners with special needs
require teachers who are dedicated, responsible and display a positive attitude to learners who are different. Survey studies indicate that general classroom teachers who express negative views toward inclusion often feel ill prepared and unsupported in that effort and not all administrators have been adequately prepared to support inclusive practices. The teachers’ negative attitude can prevent inclusive education from being implemented with success (Dada & Alant, 2001). Teachers label learners according to their group or class such as slow learners, mentally retarded, learning disabled and this is regarded as constituting negative attitude towards them.

Inclusive education policies also play a major part to influence the way teachers form their attitudes towards inclusion. Philosophies regarding the education of children with special needs have changed dramatically over the past two decades and several countries including the United States, United Kingdom and New Zealand have led in the effort in implementing policies which foster the inclusion of student with special needs into the mainstream education system (Nelson, 2005; O’Brian & Ryba, 2005). Kenya has recently advocated the implementation of inclusive education supported by relevant policies (RoK, 2009). Although the movement of inclusive education has gained momentum, one of the key elements in the successful implementation of the policy is the attitudes of the personnel who have the major responsibility for implementing it; that is the teachers (Mitchell, 2000).

Issues of personnel management and attitudinal barriers are crucial in choosing inclusion models. According to Snell & Janney (2000), the choice is guided by student abilities, needs, teacher philosophy and administrative support, among several factors. All factors are integral to the decision-making process and are enormously variable depending on the student, school climate, and educational personnel (Gee, 2002). General and special education teachers’ exposure to a variety of inclusive services models influences their willingness and readiness to implement inclusive practices (McLesky, Waldren, Swanson, & Loveland,
2001). It is doubtful that inclusive education in Kenya is following any particular inclusion model owing to the fact that this is a relatively new practice.

This area of inclusion models lacks adequate studies done in Kenya. There is a growing body of literature that recommends the collaborative teaming model as the preferred model in inclusive classrooms because it capitalizes best on the talents and skills of the participating teachers (Boudah, Schumacher and Deschler, 1997; Walther-Thomas, Bryant & Land, 1996). Studies have shown that the best practices regarding the characteristics of effective collaborative teams include congruent goals and philosophies, the ability to recognize other contributions as equal, the ability to work as equal partners with shared responsibility and accountability, and pooling/sharing resources (Snell & Janney, 2000). Administrators are pivotal in the implementation and maintenance of effective collaboration, and they play a key role in nurturing a supportive inclusive environment (Bateman & Bateman, 2002). Administrators must provide ample training opportunities for both educators and related services personnel and the other resources and support to establish shared planning time. There are no studies done in Kenya to establish whether administrators provide opportunities to educators under them to further their training.

2.2.2 Capacity Building and Human Resource Development

To achieve the objectives of special education and in particular address inclusion, the Ministry of Education in Kenya has stated in its policy that the success will depend on provision of specialized human and institutional capacity (RoK, 2009). SNE teachers in the country are trained at Kenya Institute of Special Education (KISE), Kenyatta, Moi and Maseno universities, among others. Empirical studies do not exist to show whether graduates of these institutions are posted to schools where their services are required. SNE teachers do not have an established promotional structure or scheme of service, a reason why many of them opt for other forms of employment after training. This explains the Teachers’ Service
Commission’s move to bond teachers for three years after training. Bonding is a form of restraining teachers from opting out of the service and seeking work in other sectors of economy.

The Integration Alliance (1992) of UK has circumvented the problem of teachers seeking employment elsewhere by advocating for closure of special schools and the transfer of staff, equipment and materials to appropriate mainstream schools and colleges under the management of central support service. This move is only relevant if teachers and other support personnel are prepared for the changes. For teachers to work effectively in inclusive settings, they need to have the appropriate values and attitudes, skills and competences, knowledge and understanding. European Agency for Development in Special Needs Education (2009) recommends that teachers should be prepared to work in inclusive education in their initial training and then have access to further in-service training later in their careers in order to develop the knowledge and skills to enhance their inclusive practice in inclusive settings. Training for inclusion involves the acquisition of knowledge and skills in differentiation and meeting diverse needs that allows a teacher to support individual learning in classrooms.

Inclusion is a popular placement option for students with special needs in public schools (Kolstad & Wilkinson, 1997). To transform a school into one that embraces inclusive environments effective, general education teachers, special education teachers, and administration must focus on communication and collaboration. These personnel must take a transformational aggressive approach (Smith, 2008). An aggressive transformational approach involves appropriate training methods, planning opportunities, and funding to support the system (Kolstad & Wilkinson, 1997). In Kenya, research has not been undertaken on the efficacy and efficiency of professional and support services to learners with special needs in institutions. There are also no studies done on strategies relating to capacity building
and development of a scheme of service for other related professional support personnel such as; teacher aids, sign language interpreters, and Braille transcribers.

2.2.3 Participation and Involvement of Learners with Special Needs in Decision Making

Participation and involvement of learners with special needs in socio-economic issues and in decision making on matters affecting them directly or indirectly is important in the process of ensuring that these learners enjoy equal opportunities in society. RoK (2009) states that the government declared affirmative action to ensure that vulnerable and disadvantaged groups of persons are actively involved in policy and governance issues. To-date, there is no study done to establish the extent to which vulnerable and disadvantaged groups of persons are actively involved in policy and governance in Kenya. Of importance here is the right of this group of learners to be able to chart their future without being herded like animals. At the core of inclusivity is the human right to education.

According to Ainscow (1991), pursuing a policy and approach of inclusive education means bringing about personal development and building relationships among individuals, groups and nations. This requires involvement of learners with special needs. Studies undertaken in this area indicate that participation rate for students with special needs are low and continue to be an issue (Link, 2008). Empirical studies examining barriers to inclusion and full participation in general school setting by learners have not been undertaken in Kenya from the time the country moved in the direction of inclusive education.

2.3 Resource Mobilization

Resource mobilization is imperative for the success of special needs education services. Resources play a significant role in enabling provision of SNE services in the country. SNE services require specialized human, materials and physical resources. According to Ogot (2008), Kenya’s attempt to fund special needs education specifically targeted special schools,
special units and inclusive schools of which the OCIEP (Oriang Cheshire Inclusive Education Project), schools were included. The 151,000 Kenya shillings received by the five project schools for assistive aids and environmental management in 2003 and 2004 were well utilized due to: Inclusive education knowledge and better monitoring strategies in the project.

The irregularity of the funds disbursements has been reported to be causing anxiety in the schools (Ogot, 2008). There is lack of research on cost-effectiveness of funds sent to schools to promote inclusion. Policy initiatives such as the aforementioned contradict the efforts towards achieving Education for All. The continued insistence by the Ministry of Education on merit in examinations measured through yearly calculations of schools’ mean scores in the national examinations, is a huge hindrance to making schools inclusive as pointed out by Stubbs (2002). As suggested in UNESCO (2004c), agreeable assessment approaches should be developed to enable children with special needs to participate in mainstream education.

In the policy, government claims to provide required specialized teaching staff, albeit challenges faced in having required numbers. Learners with special needs require more and specialized material resources for their education than their non-disabled peers. Material resources are needed at both the individual and school levels. The nature and type of materials required depend on the type and degree of disability (RoK, 2009). A three-country study done in Europe found that newer 'integrated' model or inclusion allocates resources to the child and thus gives the mainstream school some degree of control over how those resources are used (Pijl & Dyson, 1998). However, it is common for those resources to be provided in kind, as services, additional teaching staff, specialist equipment, and so on (Meijer, Pijl, & Hegarty, 1994).

Moreover, the use of resources may well remain largely in the control of the central authority even when devolved to the individual school. In such a situation, the actual control exercised
by the school is therefore strictly limited. Partly in response to this problem, a number of national and local governments have begun to experiment with what we call here 'pupil-bound budgets'. Instead of allocating resources which remain effectively within the control of the central authority, they devolve resources, or the funding to purchase resources, entirely to the school. According to Pijl & Dyson (1998) the school then has more or less discretion as to how it chooses to use those resources or funds to meet the children's assessed needs.

In principle, at least, the decision-making capacity of the school is increased so that it can meet the children's needs effectively and efficiently. Moreover, those decisions are made close to the children and parents so that they can be responsive to their wishes. Indeed, within the pupil-bound budget model, it is possible for the parent and child to take their budget away from one school and into another if they are dissatisfied with the service they receive—thus creating a market-place in special education and providing an incentive for schools to respond to the wishes of their 'consumers'. There is need for a study on the nature of resource allocation to special needs learners and decision-making capacity of the school to meet the child's needs effectively and efficiently.

2.4 Inclusive Curriculum Development

Inclusive education can be defined as ‘the disabled and non-disabled young people learning together in (schools) colleges and universities, with appropriate networks of support’. Here, inclusion means enabling students to participate in the life and work of mainstream institutions to the best of their abilities in accordance to their needs. At the same time, accessible curricula refers to the designing of programs/courses and educational materials barrier-free (fully accessible for all) without affecting the content and standard.

Teachers are the immediate agents of change who by their instructional activities can implement appropriate curricular solutions. According to Ben-Peretz (1980), the perception
of teachers as independent implementers demands that their own needs relating to awareness of prerequisites for implementation, anticipation of difficulties, and consideration of interpersonal relationships be taken into account. The only way of achieving this is by assigning teachers a central role in curriculum making, allowing them to voice their concerns and draw on their immediate expertise. Few studies have delved into the role of teachers in designing and developing curriculum accommodative to learners with special needs. Literature is also lacking on constraints facing delivery of curriculum in inclusive settings in Kenya.

If course content is well designed, students with special needs will be able to gain access to it. It will enable them to receive the same learning experience as their classmates get. A consequence of this approach is that if the course materials are made accessible for students with disabilities, this will increase their usability. According to Ramakrishna and Nembiakkim (2010), inclusion in education involves valuing all students and staff equally by increasing the participation of students, reducing their exclusion from learning activities and by restructuring the cultures, policies and practices. Gaps exist in knowledge on the importance accorded to institutions in building community and development of values, as well as increasing academic achievements of learners with special needs in regular schools.

2.4.1 Curriculum Adaptations

There are a number of implementation concerns related to curriculum adaptation because of the lack of clarity that arises when diagnostic definitions are not available. In spite of these concerns, however a non-categorical functional model of disability is advocated because of the generic nature of inclusive education (Kiernan, Smith, & Ostrowsky, 1986). For this approach to succeed there is the need for relevant related services in terms of learning styles, instructional training methods, modifications and adaptations potentially needed by persons
with special needs. Identifying individual learning styles and appropriate instructional methods involve consideration of the visual, auditory and kinesthetic learning modes relative to various instructional methods such as printed materials, verbal lecture materials, workbook sheets, audio-visual materials; and demonstrations using vocational tools and concrete materials.

The provision of support services should include modifications and adaptations that make instructional materials most effective for persons with special needs in inclusive schools. Modifications and adaptation may include: regular materials in braille; large print versions of regular materials; a note taker; a peer tutor; a person who serves as a reader; captioned film and television; and over-head transparencies; charts and visual materials; and taped versions of written materials. In order to implement the policy of inclusive education, Reis, Burns, and Renzulli (1992) say that educational practitioners, non-governmental organizations, government and other stakeholders must continuously remind themselves that inclusion education is about acknowledging that all children and youth can learn and that all children and youth need support.

As a result of the knowledge-based curriculum, the examinations are also too much content oriented rather than success oriented which is the demand of flexible inclusive curriculum. UNESCO (2003) argue that, while knowledge-based examinations are recognized to have their limitations in terms of both validity and reliability, formal standardized tests may also have adverse effects such as de-contextualized facts and skills; ranking and sorting schools and children; narrowing the curriculum as teachers concentrate their teaching on the information, forms and formats required in the tests; and reinforcing bias in terms of gender, race/ethnicity and social class.
Universal Design principles can be applied to make the courses/programs more accessible for people with a wide range of abilities and disabilities, ethnic backgrounds, language skills and learning styles (Rose, Sethuraman & Meo, 2000). Some of the features include:

Inclusiveness creates a classroom environment that respects and values diversity. a) The institutions should invite students to meet and discuss disability-related accommodations and other special learning needs. Segregating or stigmatizing any student should be avoided. b) Physical access assures the accessibility of classrooms, laboratory classes and field work to individuals with a wide range of physical abilities and disabilities. The safety of all students should be assured. c) Delivery methods use multiple modes to deliver content. Alternate delivery methods, including lecture, discussion, hands-on activities, Internet-based interaction and fieldwork each needs to be made accessible to students with a wide range of abilities, disabilities, interests, and previous experiences.

2.5 Physical Environment

There is a wide diversity in the physical arrangements to support inclusion. Changes may take place from the inside, perhaps in the form of relocating an existing special needs department to a universally accessible resource centre (Sebba & Ainscow, 1995). This sends a message to all staff and students that learning support is available to, and may be required by, any students at some time in their school careers, rather than being the prerogative of a separate, and separate accommodation or caste.

It has been argued that full physical inclusion in the classroom, while not a guarantee of total social and curricular involvement, is at least a necessary precondition for it (O’Brien & Forest, 1989). But the rhetoric of full physical inclusion is somewhat different from the reality, as indicated by Sebba and Ainscow (1995). A student’s school failure and likelihood of being referred to special education are influenced not only by the child’s own
characteristics, but also by the physical environment and the manner in which the classroom operates. Research suggests that the classroom environment most conducive to school failure is one in which a student in academic trouble does individual seatwork while the teacher engages other children in the class in small-group work (Sebba & Ainscow, 1995). Students engaged in individual seatwork receive minimal assistance or corrective feedback while working, increasing the likelihood of failure and consequent referral.

2.6 Global Studies on Special Education

2.6.1 Introduction

In many communities in the world today, obstacles including barriers exist which alienate persons with special needs. These hindrances also hamper the development of persons with special needs thereby creating difficulties for their peaceful existence or in some cases denying them of their basic human rights and freedoms (Ocloo, Dogbe & Gadagbui, 2000). Two nations are chosen in this study- Brunei Darussalam to represent a developing country outside Africa and Ghana in West Africa because it is almost the same age with Kenya in terms of education and political development.

At the 1990 Jomtien World Conference in Thailand, the goals for “Education for All” were set and it was proclaimed that every person: child, youth and adult shall be able to benefit from educational opportunities which would meet their basic learning needs. Ever since that conference, UNESCO, along with other UN agencies and a number of international and national non-governmental organizations work towards these goals. Ocloo et al. (2000) say the inclusion of persons with barriers to learning and development in ordinary schools and classrooms is part of a global human rights movement.
In 1994, at the UNESCO World Conference on Special Needs Education held in Salamanca, Spain, the idea of inclusive education was given a more vivid focus and understanding. The conference was mainly to consider the right of every child to basic education. The marginalization and exclusion of learners from an educational system was addressed at the Dakar World Education Forum in April 2000 and it was captured in the statement, “The key challenge is to ensure that a broad vision of Education for All as an inclusive concept is reflected in national government and funding agency policies. Education for All must take account of the need of the poor and the most disadvantaged young people and adults affected by conflict, HIV/AIDS, hunger and poor health and those with special needs” (Ocloo et al., 2000).

2.6.2 Implementation of Inclusive Education in Brunei Darussalam

Between 1975 and 1994 a number of international events took place that influenced Brunei Darussalam in the direction of wanting to implement inclusive education (Wong, 2005). The events included: the Declaration of Rights of Disabled Persons; the Convention on the Rights of the Child; the World Conference on Education for All; the Year of Special Needs in the Classroom; the World Conference on Special Needs Education in Salamanca, Spain; and the Salamanca Statement and Framework for Action on Special Needs Education (UN, 1989; UNESCO, 1994; Norjum, 2002; Koay & Sim, 2004). Following these events the government of Brunei created the Special Education Unit (SEU) in the Ministry of Education in 1994. Thereafter, students with partial/mild-to-moderate disabilities started being included in the ordinary schools.

Students with severe-to-profound disabilities (with high support needs) remained in the special schools and centers run by non-governmental organizations (NGOs). Inclusive education was fostered further by the mounting of the First Special Education International
Conference held in Brunei in 1996. The country then passed and adopted a National Education Policy the following year which required that all children (including those with special needs) be provided with 12 years of basic education (preschool, primary and secondary). This policy is Brunei’s equivalent of Education for All (EFA) but does not mandate compulsory provision of education. The policy emphasizes the development of human resources to meet the skill needs of the country in a diversified economy.

Although the policy mentions only special needs and not school counseling services, implementation of inclusive education has implications on school counseling as a support service. The government responded appropriately by creating both the Special Education Unit and the Division of Counseling and Career Guidance in the Ministry of Education. The highlights of this National Education Policy especially on special education issues may be summarized as follows: a) Provision of an integrated curriculum as well as suitable and uniform public examinations administered according to the level of education, including special needs, in all schools throughout the nation; b) Provision of facilities for mathematics, science and ICT to enable students to obtain knowledge and skills needed in the constantly changing world of work; c) Provision of self-development and enrichment programs through co-curricular activities in accordance with the national philosophy of Brunei Islamic Monarchy; d) Provision of opportunities in higher education for those with appropriate qualifications and experience, such opportunities to be offered based on national needs as and when they arise; and, e) Preparation of the best possible educational infrastructure in order to fulfill the national human resource needs.

Implementation of inclusive education was outlined in separate handbooks for learning assistance teachers (LATs), regular teachers, and head teachers (Special Education Unit, 1998c). Formal legislation for the provision of inclusive education is contained in The
Education Order dated 31 December 2003 which is printed in the Brunei Darussalam Government Gazette of 2003, p. 996. In view of the policy and legislation stated above the government is the main provider of education to children with special needs. Inclusive schools are registered by the Ministry of Education while special schools and centers are registered either by the Ministry of Culture, Youth and Sports or the Ministry of Health. The number of students integrated /included in the regular schools is not known. Similarly the exact number of children registered in the special schools and centers is also not known but the Brunei Darussalam Country Report (2005) estimated thousands in special education. Students on other degree and diploma programs with a focus on education such as the BA, BSc and Diploma in primary education also take courses in special education (Koay & Sim, 2004). According to the policy of the Ministry of Education all trainee teachers at the university have to take courses in inclusive education. One noticeable concern is that the amount of collaboration between the Special Education Unit and the Division of Counseling and Career Guidance is not known just as there is no information on or about consultations between special education teachers and school counselors.

2.6.3. Towards Inclusive Education in Ghana

The education of persons with special needs in Ghana has a very interesting history. The persons with special needs were basically seen as liabilities in their families and communities. This in effect meant that no provisions were made for their balanced growth and development. Most of these individuals were killed or over protected, misdiagnosed and under-educated such that they led a life that was segregated and debased (Ocloo, 2003).

Formal education in Ghana was generally started by the missionaries and the first schools were established by the benevolence of philanthropists and missionaries. In 1962, the Henderson Committee recommended that all special schools should be taken over by the
Ministry of Education and in 1968, a resolution was adopted by the conference of Teachers of the Disabled demanding that a separate directorate be created for special schools in the country (Ocloo et al. 2000). In Ghana today just like Kenya, the country recognizes the numerous international conventions and declarations and therefore aims at promoting and protecting the human rights of the individual citizens. Again, the national constitution of 1992 is replete with these rights.

In spite of these provisions, the majority of persons with special needs do not enjoy fundamental human rights. The entitlement to these rights is frustrated and denied by various forms of discrimination, inclusion and exclusion arising from socio-economic, political, cultural and religious considerations that continue to justify inequalities and marginalize people with special needs on the basis of physiological differences.

The regulations governing general education in Ghana are deemed to apply to children and young persons with special educational needs. General education is governed by the Education Act of 1961. In 1962, the Education Amendment Act empowered the Ministry of Education to establish a Special Education Division within the Ghana Education Service to handle issues and affairs of persons with special needs. The 1969 Education Ordinance introduced Continuation Schools to cater for students with needs. The 1967 Education Review Committee Report recommended that those who could not do well in school should end up at the Junior Secondary School level and continue with vocational training skills. The Dzobo Committee Report of 1972 mentioned the educational needs of both the slow learners and the gifted. Mandates binding parents to send their children to school no matter their performance could be seen in the Ghana’s constitution and in the Education Reform of 1987 which led to the concept of the Free Compulsory Universal Basic Education (FCUBE).
According to Ocloc et al. (2000) the National Disability Policy of June, 2000 in its vision admitted that the 1992 constitution and the Vision 2020 document advocated for the integration of persons with special needs into mainstream of the economy. The government was to seek regulatory measures to promote the enabling environment for the total integration of persons with special needs into society. The policy sought to present Government strategies for mobilizing and integrating persons with disabilities into the mainstream of the socio-economic life of the communities in which they live; and by so doing, ensure that persons with special needs contribute to achieving the national vision of poverty reduction and improvement of their living conditions.

It is also worth to note that the disability document acknowledged that about 53% of women with disability had no education compared with 37.3% of males with special needs. Even when they manage to enter the formal education system they hardly manage through primary education. About 17.5% of Persons with Disabilities had primary education compared to 25% of total population. This situation is appalling indeed because illiteracy and ignorance among the disabled population is too high to countenance as a developing nation which needs acceleration in human resource development. This condition could be blamed on lack of advocacy and lobbying on part of organizations and pressure groups.

Ocloc et al. (2000) draws parallels with Uganda, where Uganda National Association (UNAB) of the Blind (UNAB) seeks influence at all levels to ensure that the activities benefit all persons with visual impairments in the organization. At the national level, issues of education of the blind are presented to the Ministry of Education and at the district level UNAB is pushing for schools to accept visually impaired children and to provide the necessary related support materials and training for inclusive education.
In Ghana today, the trendy issue for persons with special needs in terms of education is what is called “mainstreaming”. This is very close to the concept of inclusive education which is being advocated to provide for every child to learn and succeed in the least restrictive environment. Really, the importance of this practice is enormous as pointed out by academicians, psychologists, educationists and other researchers. Low (1983) observed that the general case for inclusive education has two main aspects. The first is expressive or symbolic in character. Unnecessary segregation from the community represents derogation from full humanity and citizenship. Secondly, inclusive education also has an instrumental function: separate socialization breeds attitudes of prejudice, and integration particularly at the formative stage of development can do much to sweep away the barriers of ignorance and misunderstanding that keep the handicapped and non-handicapped apart and ultimately lead to discrimination, dependency and inability to cope. The ultimate aim of inclusive education therefore, is to create an environment in which all children will live together harmoniously and learn together so as to actualize their potentials.

Gaylord, Ross and Peck, (1985) indicated in their studies that integrating special children into regular schools positively changes attitudes not only of the non-handicapped children but even of the special children as well. Brinker and Thorpe (1984) have also said that the frequency and quality of interaction between special and ‘normal’ children is actually improved by integration or inclusive education. Indeed, a number of researchers have highlighted the fact that opportunity to attend integrated school goes a long way in influencing the post-school adjustment of persons with special needs.

According to Ocloo et al. (2000), Ghana still practices the segregated and institutionalized approach to the provision of special education services. This situation prevents many children with special needs from entering schools in the least restrictive environments of the rural
areas. In 1995, the Division of Special Education reported that only 2500 persons with
disabilities were being provided with basic education and that thousands of children were on
the waiting list for admission. It is at this point that special education should be addressed in
Ghana from a different perspective such as the social view of critique of exclusion and
discrimination. In this alternative paradigm, emphasis should be placed on facilitating the
development of the clientele approach where users of services are involved in the whole
business of services provision. This goes in line with a right perspective in special education
would emphasize empowerment, participation and social change.

2.7 Development of Special Education in Kenya

A number of studies undertaken in Kenya in recent years trace the onset of special education
to the period of separation through institutionalization to integration and now inclusion.
Special Needs Education (SNE) refers to the education and training program formally
organized for children who are Physically Handicapped (P.H), Mentally Handicapped (M.H),
Visually Impaired (V.I) and Hearing Impaired (H.I). The special education programs in
Kenya are offered in special residential and day schools, integrated schools, units within
regular schools, and small homes that are constructed near regular schools.

Children identified as having behavioral problems are catered for by the Ministry of Home
Affairs at reform institutions also known as approved schools (Otube, 2004). According to
Otube (2004), Kenya embarked on re-examination of special education in May 1964 by
establishing a committee to coordinate rehabilitation services for individuals with disabilities.
Oketch (2009) notes that the committee came up with the Sessional Paper No.5 titled ‘Care
and Rehabilitation of the Disabled’ in 1968. The committee was mandated to; a) make an
assessment of the numbers and types of disabilities in Kenya, b) investigate existing facilities
for the education, training, settlement/ employment of persons with disabilities, c) formulate
a broad program and placement of the disabled involving community care designed to assist
the economic independence of as many disabled persons as possible and, d) examine and
make a report on the existing machinery for the coordination of services to disabled persons.
According to Abilla (1988), the Sessional Paper No.5 of 1968 was one of the earliest
undertakings by the government of Kenya on special education. Abilla points out a
recommendation which required chiefs and sub-chiefs to make headcounts of all persons with
disability in their districts.

In the 1970s, focusing on global trends and changes, Kenya slowly initiated integration of
learners with special needs in regular schools (RoK, 2009). The basic premise of the
integration (or mainstreaming as it has variously been called) movement was that principles
on anti-discrimination, equity, social justice, and basic human rights made it imperative that
students with special needs should enjoy the same access as all other students to regular
school environment and to a broad, balanced and relevant curriculum (Knight, 1999).

As integration slowly took root in the country, the Kenya government showed more interest
in special education. For example in 1986, the Kenya Institute of Special Education was
established to build the capacity of Special Need Education (SNE) service providers through
teacher training/teacher in-servicing and research (RoK, 2009). According to Ndurumo
(1993), between 1980 and 1986, there was a remarkable growth in the enrolment of children
and expansion of special education programs. A report by the Ministry of Education (RoK,
1999) indicates that there had been an increase in the number of special education teachers,
schools and physical facilities in the country leading to increased access and participation by
children with special needs. Primary school level enrolment increased from 6115 in 1990 to
Education is an essential tool for enhancing socio-economic and political advancement of an individual. Hwaga (2008) points out that the current policy trends of educating learners with special needs in many countries worldwide is ‘inclusion in education’, also referred to as ‘inclusive education’. This philosophy of changing schools rather than trying to change the learners evolved early in 1948 and culminated with the Salamanca Statement during the World Conference on Special Needs Education held in 1994 in Salamanca, Spain.

Education development and relevance has been emphasized since independence in 1963. In 2002 reduction of subjects taught became a focus of the government to ensure effective curriculum implementation process. Other reforms continue in the education sector and their impact is reflected in the annual increase in government expenditure. In 2003/2004 financial year, education consumed the highest amount at 75.49% of the recurrent expenditure. Enrolment increased by 6% (1,300,000) due to Free Primary Education implementation in the same period. To cope with this increase, more teachers were required to cater for the increased enrolment. The National Development Plan (2002-2008) notes that primary education allocation amounts to 87.6% of National Expenditure Rate (NER) for the year 2003. This increase in educational budget has only catered for provision of materials and facilities and not for recruitment of teachers as the government continues to replace those who exit through retirement and natural attrition (KNUT, 2005). The persistence of non-recruitment of personnel in learning institutions translates to more workload assigned to implementers of inclusive education.

It is important to consider that administration and organization of special education at school level may raise particular problems at implementation stages, which stem from the multiplicity of tasks to be carried out in schools, as special education extends education in health, social welfare and rehabilitation. This situation may require that a separate department
within the ministry be instituted to provide administrative support and coordination which may be necessary for effective implementation of the inclusive education curriculum with the involvement of other stakeholders in education.

In 2003 the government conceded that there were various challenges in providing free education specifically to students with special needs. It has not provided schools with the necessary equipment and facilities to enable students with special needs to access education. To meet these challenges and to ensure that children with special needs equally benefit from the free primary education, the government of Kenya set up a task force in July 2003 to carry out an appraisal exercise on special education to enable it to plan and provide education to the learners. The task force was commissioned to carry out the following exercises; a) establish the number of children with special needs in Kenya, b) identify the gaps and barriers affecting the provision of special education, c) identify institutional needs and support services required for children with special needs, and establish the unit cost of learners with special needs, d) ascertain the effectiveness of various bodies of the Ministry of Education in their provision of SNE and recommend necessary reorganization.

Upon concluding its exercise, Otube (2004) indicates that, the task force recommended among other things that there should be massive training and in-servicing of teachers in SNE, the schools with public utilities be made disability friendly, SNE be included in all the activities of the Ministry of Education and that the ministry creates awareness and sensitize the public on Special Needs Education. As part of its strategies, the government also established an Education Sector Strategic Plan (ESSP) to take effect sometimes in the years 2003-2007. The aim of the plan was to identify the governments' priorities for special education. True to the ESSP spirit, the government did come up with a special education policy guideline in 2010 in response to the Sessional Paper No.1 of 2005, Special Needs
Education Policy, which stated the overall government policy direction on learners with special needs and disabilities. On 10\textsuperscript{th} March, 2010 at the Kenya Institute of Education, the Ministry of Education launched what is dubbed Special Needs Education Policy. Among other objectives the National SNE Policy framework seeks a) to promote and facilitate inclusion of children with special needs in formal and non-formal education and training, b) to put in place measures to promote barrier-free learning institutions. The SNE Policy sets out clear policy guidelines for all education sub-sectors, including SNE and further underscores the government’s commitment to ensuring that learners with special needs have equal access to quality and relevant education.

Despite the rise in enrolment rates of the learners with special needs especially after the introduction of Free Primary Education, the Government of Kenya pointed out that the total enrolled pupil population was still very small compared to the population of children with disabilities which is estimated at one million. It further notes that the Educational Assessment Resource Centres (EARC) had identified 100,000 children needing special education by 2003 and even those identified had not been placed in special education programs (Otube, 2004). Towards the close of the 20\textsuperscript{th} century, there was an acute shortage of specially trained teachers in the country. The EFA (2000) reported that this shortage was felt mostly in all special schools especially at primary school level and acute shortages of technical and support staff, braille transcribers, audiologists, speech therapists, interpreters, physiotherapists, occupational therapists, and teacher aides at the primary, secondary and vocational levels.

The needs of children with disabilities could not be met if most of the teachers did not have at least basic training in special education. Another limiting factor as cited by EFA was that the existing teachers in special schools did not receive guidance from inspectors on a regular
basis to ensure quality of service. Otube (2004) points out that the EFA Report also cited inadequate specialized equipment and instructional materials in all schools such as hearing aids for the deaf, braille materials and the white cane for the students with visual impairment as well as wheel chairs and crutches for the physically handicapped.

The RoK (1999) argues that the introduction of the 8-4-4 curriculum disadvantaged most learners with special needs because it limits their participation in colleges and universities. This situation is caused by high admission requirements and a crowded syllabus that is insensitive to the needs of learners with disabilities. The failure of the system to cater for learners with special needs, results in the need to always keep up with changing curriculum demands. The RoK reports that children with hearing impairment are disadvantaged when they have to sit for Kiswahili exams because they are also expected to learn English and sign language at the end of primary cycle. They are, therefore, forced to learn more than two languages which is especially difficult as hearing impairment interferes with language development.

In an effort to address this problem, the government, through the Kenya Institute of Education developed a sign language textbook in 1993, which was later revised in 1998 with contributions from persons with hearing impairments. This served as a step towards addressing the needs of students with disabilities. Students with visual impairment on the other hand, have problems of manipulating some objects and identification of colors. RoK (1999) also points out that some practical subjects such as Physical Sciences, Biology, Geography and Home Science have been found to be difficult for the learners with visual impairments. In addition, students with mental disabilities have been found to be incapable of following the regular school curriculum and subsequently, the national examinations as well.
A report by the RoK (2005) provides support to this by citing a disability unfriendly curriculum as one of the challenges facing special education. The RoK (1999), states that provision of education to learners with visual impairments was affected by poor quality braille materials, and the presence of unqualified personnel charged with printing the braille papers. The said personnel usually lack proficiency in braille and are unable to ensure quality of the work produced. The report indicates that students use outdated and poor quality writing equipment. Otube (2004) reiterates that when new text books are introduced in the school syllabus, braille textbooks do not match the content in the new books, leading to significant disadvantages for students with visual impairments. Lack of adequate special schools has led to poor participation of learners with physical disabilities. Other factors limiting their participation include long distances to schools especially in rural areas, poor infrastructure and disability unfriendly environments in the special schools.

Oriedo (2000), on the other hand, postulates that factors affecting the provision of special education are: insufficient time provided during national examinations, inadequate institutions providing special education programs, lack of proper networking between service providers, absence of clear policy guidelines on special education, and a lack of legal framework on special education provisions. Also noteworthy is that most special schools are donor funded yet the issue of their sustainability has never been addressed therefore when the donor agencies withdraw their funding, most programs cease functioning.

According to RoK (1999), regional disparities have been observed in areas such as the rural and nomadic locations which lack basic facilities in special education. In these areas, low enrolment of children with disabilities has been further perpetuated by the fact that most special programs are residential and require fees to be charged in order meet the operational costs. Otube (2004) speculates that in most cases, parents of children with disabilities in these
regions, as in most other regions of the country, are too poor to afford any fees at all. This forces the students to drop out of school.

The enrolment is further stifled by an imbalance in the distribution of the few institutions for the handicapped in Kenya. As evidenced by the Ministry of Education annual report of 1994, special education schools were unevenly distributed with the Central Province having 17, Nairobi Province 10 while the North Eastern Province had only two schools. Gender imbalance was also apparent in special education such that girls constituted only 40% of the total enrolment. The special education sector also faces management problems at national, provincial and school levels, which result from centralized bureaucratic structures (RoK, 2001). This situation has led to ineffectiveness in implementing recommendations made by the various stakeholders.

Otube (2004), states that the networking among special education teachers at both local and national levels in Kenya is irregular or in some cases non-existent. The lack of proper co-ordination among different ministries as well as between the government and non-governmental organizations in the country has not helped implementation of inclusion. More critical is the fact that the sector lacks trained personnel in special education as well as sustainable management information system. Given this scenario, this study seeks to address constraints facing the implementation of inclusive education in light of reviewed issues such as personnel-related constraints, inclusive curriculum development, resource mobilization and physical environment

2.8 Conclusion

The purpose of this study was to describe the constraints facing the implementation of inclusive education in selected secondary schools in Kericho County. This chapter has
explored personnel-related constraints, inclusive curriculum development, resource mobilization and physical environment. A number of research gaps were identified in the study and are presented in the subsequent paragraphs.

It is doubtful that inclusive education in Kenya is following any particular inclusion model owing to the fact that this is a relatively new practice. The area of inclusion models lacks adequate studies done in Kenya. This is a gap that requires an in-depth study preferably as an action research.

Empirical studies do not exist to show whether graduates of institutions offering special education are posted to schools where their services are required. Review of literature indicates that SNE teachers do not have an established promotional structure or scheme of service, a reason why many of them opt for other forms of employment after training. A survey study ought to be undertaken to determine the extent of this teacher turn-over.

In Kenya, research has not been undertaken on the efficacy and efficiency of professional and support services to learners with special needs in institutions that implement inclusive education. There are also no studies done on strategies relating to capacity building and development of a scheme of service for other related professional support personnel such as: teacher aids, sign language interpreters, and braille transcribers. These personnel are key players in inclusive settings.

Participation and involvement of learners with special needs in socio-economic issues and in decision making on matters affecting them directly or indirectly is important in the process of ensuring that these learners enjoy equal opportunities in society. To-date, there is no study done to establish the extent to which vulnerable and disadvantaged groups of persons are actively involved in policy and governance in Kenya. Empirical studies examining barriers to
inclusion and full participation in general school setting by learners have not been undertaken in Kenya from the time the country moved in the direction of inclusive education.

Irregularity of the funds disbursements to all the schools in the country has been reported to be causing anxiety. Policy initiatives that fail to be implemented contradict the efforts towards achieving Education for All and by extension inclusive education. There is lack of research on cost effectiveness of funds send to schools to promote inclusion. A comparative study should be done on the rates of funding to different institutions in Kenya. There is also a need for a study on the nature of resource allocation to special needs learners and decision-making capacity of the school to meet the child's needs effectively and efficiently.

Few studies have delved into the role of teachers in designing and developing curriculum accommodative to learners with special needs. Literature is also lacking on constraints facing delivery of curriculum in inclusive settings in Kenya. Gaps exist in knowledge on importance accorded to inclusive institutions in building community and development of values, as well as increasing academic achievements of learners with special needs in regular schools.
CHAPTER THREE

METHODOLOGY

3.1 Introduction

This chapter discusses in detail the basic methodological orientations and design that were utilized in the study. It also deals with sampling strategies, research instruments, data collection procedures, and data analysis.

3.2 Study Design

A qualitative case study design of two selected inclusive secondary schools in Kericho County was used. According to McMillan and Schumacher (2010), a case provides insight into a specific issue. The focus is on in-depth understanding of the issue. The case study was used to elucidate issues surrounding implementation of inclusive education. The case study used a purposive sample of two public secondary school administrators, teachers and assessment team in Kericho County. A case study method was chosen because the information gathered from the lived experiences of the purposive sample provided data that led to an understanding of inclusive educational practices given that this is still a relatively new concept and the cases under study were very few.

The design was also suitable for a number of reasons. First, past studies analyzing integration or inclusive education in Kenya were descriptive surveys. Secondly, the case study design has the strength of moving from single cases to cross-site analysis of different cases as in the two schools under the current study, thereby increasing the credibility and validity of results. By involving two case schools and one assessment centre, the study gained more insights into
the constraints facing the implementation of inclusive education through triangulation of data from both.

### 3.3 Location of the Study

The study was carried out in Kericho County. Kericho County is an expansive region stretching from Mau forest in the east and River Sondu in the west. It is a region of undulating hills and green lush valleys. It has a cool breeze and one can be tantalized by scenic landscapes. The land is watered by running streams, with grassy downs, splendid forests of confers, a fertile soil, and a country which though exactly under the equator, is singularly like the landscapes of southern England; on the whole one of the fairest countries for beauty on the habitable earth (Mwanzi, 1977). The justification for choosing this site was based on the fact that the Kenya Integrated Education Program (KIEP) jointly with Kenya Society for the Blind have over the years collaborated to run integrated programs in the region. With the shift from integration to inclusive education, the programs have also been adopted in two schools opening their doors to learners with both visual and physical challenges.

### 3.4 Target Population

This research was carried out in two public secondary schools, Kipsigis Girls and Kericho Tea Boys and the respondents were regular secondary school teachers, resource teachers and educational assessment resource centre officers in Kericho County. The total numbers of teachers in the first school (Kipsigis) were 40 and those of the second school (Kericho Tea) were 22. All three educational assessment officers were included in the study.
3.5 Sampling Strategies and Sample Size

3.5.1 Sampling of Schools

Two secondary schools were purposively selected for the study. The information-oriented sampling of the schools was guided by the following criteria: First, is the fact that Kipsigis Girls High and Kericho Tea Boys within Kericho Municipality began as integrated programs for students with special needs, hence, a great deal about issues of central importance to the purpose of the research was going to be obtained.

Secondly, criterion was based on the fact that with the adoption of inclusion in Kenya, these schools were expected to be gradually moving from integration and moving in the new direction of inclusive education. The researcher, therefore, proceeded to employ purposive sampling of the schools as this was dictated by the stated philosophy of inclusion as practiced by the schools.

Kericho Tea Boys and Kipsigis Girls began to integrate students with visual impairments in 1998 and 2005 respectively. In the formative years, Kericho Tea was a mixed secondary school. Boys and girls with visual impairments were integrated following assessment of their educational needs. In the subsequent years, the school was able to admit students from neighboring districts such as Kisii, Bureti, Bomet, Narok and Nakuru. From 2005, the school ceased integrating girls with visual impairments because the neighboring Kipsigis Girls school began integration, and Kericho Tea School became purely a boys’ school.

The two schools receive material and technical assistance from Sight Savers International through Kenya Society for the Blind (KSB). KSB together with the Ministry of Education, through an arrangement known as the Kenya Integrated Education Program, have been sponsoring learners with special needs, annually during the April holidays in Braille skills,
Orientation and Mobility, and Activities of Daily Living. KIEP allocates integrated schools some funds to run their resource rooms and in-service training of teachers through KSB although this assistance is dwindling and in most cases erratic.

In order to access adequate resources for the support of the program’s activities it has been critical for the schools to develop networks with other agencies such as the Ministry of Education, Ministry of Health, and James Finlay Company. Networking involves the sharing of information with the groups of what Inclusive Education entails, its rationale and the initiatives that are required to make it a reality. With the new policy framework on special needs education, it was expected that the schools communities have embraced the various policy provisions including implementation of inclusive education.

3.5.2 Sampling of Teachers

Purposive sampling was employed to obtain a total of 20 teachers from the two schools. This method was chosen because the teachers happened to be important sources of information related to implementation of programs in their schools. Information-rich cases were selected purposely to fit the study.

The first school had one trained SNE teacher and 39 general curriculum teachers including the Principal. The second school had one trained SNE teacher and 21 general curriculum teachers including the Principal. The two specially trained teachers were included in the study. The researcher chose to interview informants with a broad general knowledge and gradually narrowed to those with experience in the area of special needs. The size of the sample was determined by data saturation. According to Morse (1994), saturation is when the themes are repeated and no new information is added with each further interview.
3.5.3 Sampling of School Administrators

There were only two principals and both participated in the current study. Since there were only two principals, each case was studied in its own right and their respective responses triangulated for consistencies.

3.5.4 Sampling of EARC officers

The small number of the officers who work in the Educational Assessment Resource Centre dictated that all of them be included in the study. The three gave their views from the assessment perspective. EARC inclusion helped to shed light on personnel-related issues and specialized resources. They were deliberately sought because they have specific information on certain aspects of the areas under study. Figure 3.1 shows the categories of populations sampled within each school.

![Diagram: Secondary School as the Sampling Unit]

3.6 Research Instruments

A number of specific instruments for collecting data, or what are referred to as field texts (for instance questionnaires) within a research study are suggested by Clandinin and Connelly (1994). One technique was selected as appropriate to the objectives of the study. This was the
interview method. Interviews conducted with administrators, teachers and educational assessment resource team about their lived experiences helped to identify barriers in the implementation of the new policy of inclusion in education.

3.6.1 Interviews

An interview guide was developed to collect data from the schools principals, teachers and assessment centres. The interviews are more formalized and potentially structured tool, with the relationship between the interviewer and interviewee being shaped by the style of questioning selected (Nsuguba, 2000). For this research, the interviews were largely of an informal to semi-structured nature. The interviews were meant to elicit intrinsic feelings, opinions and attitudes of school administrators, teachers, and EARC personnel on the constraints facing implementation of inclusive education. A series of interview questions enabled the collection of individualized lived experiences of educators who directly implement the mandates associated with objectives of the policy.

3.7 Pilot Study

After selecting what the special education experts at Kenyatta University thought were the best items, the researcher administered the instruments to respondents who were asked to answer the questions in a way that reflected their own attitudes and knowledge. At this point, the researcher continued the evaluation of the instrument by conducting item analysis, leading to dropping some of the questions that were not necessary and those that were ambiguous. The piloting was carried out in the two schools but using respondents other than those sampled. Piloting was used to refine the interview schedules, and assisted in highlighting gaps and wastage in data collection, and in considering broader and highly significant issues such as research validity and ethics.
3.7.1 Validity

The researcher consulted with special education lecturers at their department about the identified content area. In the case of researching the knowledge of teachers about specialized curriculum for learners, Kenyatta University curriculum and teacher education experts were requested to identify the content of the test to be developed.

3.7.2 Reliability

Credibility of data in the current study was arrived at through triangulation involving the use of different informants. This is one way of triangulating via data sources to establish reliability. Here individual viewpoints and experiences of head teachers, general curriculum teachers, resource teachers and EARC officers were verified against others and, ultimately, a rich picture of the attitudes, needs or behavior of those under scrutiny were constructed based on their contributions. Van Maanen (1983) urges the exploitation of opportunities “to check out bits of information across informants”. Such corroboration took the form of comparing the responses across respondents from both schools under study. Checks relating to the accuracy of the data took place during the course, and at the end, of the data collection discourse. Informants were asked to read interview transcripts of dialogues in which they had participated. The emphasis was to check whether the informants considered that their words matched what they actually intended. This strategy has been recommended by Brewer and Hunter (1989).

3.8 Data Collection Procedure

Before proceeding to the field, the researcher made arrangements to obtain authority to conduct research from the Secretary, National Council for Science and Technology. The researcher proceeded to the field while fully equipped with data collection tools and protocol
requirements. The study is qualitative, descriptive and contextual in approach and it was necessary to use semi-structured interviews with members of the school community involved in inclusive education. Before the interview, trust was built through written request for permission to the principals of the schools concerned to conduct the research study. The participating respondents were informed of what the research was all about before the main interview. To gain trust, the respondents were interviewed individually at places where they felt at ease, and confident. To obtain co-operation from the respondents, the researcher created good rapport with the respondents. The researcher embarked on interviewing the respondents and writing down the responses. Interview items systematically followed the research questions of the study.

3.9 Data Analysis

Two methods of data analysis were used: Domain and thematic analysis. Domain analysis involved analysis of language of participants in the cultural context of their respective inclusive schools. The data was organized by individual questions to look across all respondents and their answers. The researcher then described the social situation and the cultural patterns already existing in the two schools as a result of embracing inclusion. Semantic relationships of participants helped to inter-relate the social situation and cultural meanings.

Thematically, consistencies and differences were identified and these helped the researcher to group all the data from each question together. To bring meaning to the grouped data, the researcher identified themes or patterns and organized them into coherent categories based on pre-existing research questions. Descriptive headings for each category were created. Themes and sub-themes were used to explain the findings of the study. Interpreting the data involved attaching meaning and significance to the analysis of respondents’ views and cross-
referencing the findings in relation to previously reviewed literature. Finally, the researcher developed an outline for presenting the results and for writing the final report. Quotes and descriptive examples from the interviews illustrated the points and brought the data to life as some found support from literature while others deviated.
CHAPTER FOUR

DATA ANALYSIS, RESULTS AND DISCUSSIONS

4.1 Introduction

This research was undertaken with the purpose of describing the constraints facing the implementation of inclusive education in selected secondary schools in Kericho County. The researcher used the responses of school principals, teachers and Educational Assessment Resource Centre officers. They provided their responses regarding certain aspects of inclusive education through interviews. A descriptive data analysis is presented below based on the research questions of the study which were:

i) What are the personnel-related constraints facing implementation of inclusive education?

ii) What constraints face the availability of resources in inclusive settings?

iii) What are the constraints facing delivery of curriculum in regard to learners with special needs?

iv) What are the physical environment-related constraints facing implementation of inclusive education?
4.2 Demographic and Contextual Information

4.2.1 Gender of respondents

Table 4.1: Respondents to the Study by Gender

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Gender</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>%</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Male</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>32</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Female</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>68</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 4.1 shows that most respondents (68%) in the research sample were females. The population that was targeted for the research may explain this finding. The schools selected for the research sample were schools within Kericho Municipality where female teachers prefer to be posted or transferred so as to be near their spouses working in town. Research conducted by Brodin (1997), Reay and Dennison (1990) have established that schools’ preference for female educators may be explained by, *inter alia*, the following: a) A female educator represents a motherly figure and most insist on being posted to schools where they afford home proximity. b) Female educators have more patience with, and show more empathy for learners with special needs in education. In addition, statistics show that there are more females than males in the teaching profession (Perumal, 2006). Females may view teaching as an occupation that affords them time in the afternoons to attend to their household chores and spend time with their children, and assist them with their homework. Many females are not the sole breadwinners and therefore may see teaching as a second or additional family income.
4.2.2 Teaching experience in years

Table 4.2: Distribution of Respondents by Years of Service in the Teaching Profession

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Teaching experience</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>%</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1-5</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>32</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6-10</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>40</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11-15</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>16</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>16-20</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Above 20</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td><strong>25</strong></td>
<td><strong>100</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 4.2 shows that a large percentage (32%) of the respondents in the research sample have between 1 and 5 years' teaching experience while the majority (40%) have between 6 and 10 years experience. Ainscow (1992) believes that experience together with adequate training is needed for the responsibilities and the demands imposed on educators. Educators in an inclusive classroom may even have more responsibilities and demands imposed on them because of the learners with special needs in education they have to teach. Bergh (1996) maintains that the more experience and training an educator has, the more confidence he will have in teaching.
4.2.3 Categories of respondents

Table 4.3 Distribution of Respondents by Categories

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Designation</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>%</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Principal</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>General Curriculum Teacher</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>72</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Resource Teacher</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>EARC Officer</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>12</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td><strong>25</strong></td>
<td><strong>100</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 4.3 shows the majority of respondents (72%) as general curriculum teachers. Both general and resource teachers need to have a wealth of knowledge about curriculum and instruction for successful inclusion of students with special needs in the general education classroom (Winn & Blanton, 2005).

A Resource Teacher (making up 8% in Table 4.3) is a certified teacher who holds a valid teaching certificate. He may possess a Special Education Certificate, or has often taken additional coursework in the areas of inclusion, assessment, and planning for students with special needs. The Resource Teacher works with students, parents, teachers and clinicians. A large part of the Resource Teacher’s job is to collaborate with other teachers to ensure the success of all students. The Resource Teacher works with the entire student population through teaching in the classroom alongside the classroom teacher. He may work with a small group, half the class, or teach the whole class. Resource Teachers also work with individuals or groups that may need more focused instruction on a specific concept or curriculum outcome. This may occur within the classroom, or outside the classroom. Resource Teachers also work with small segments of school population to plan for individuals who have very specific needs. The study schools have a resource teacher each.
An educational assessment and resource centre (represented by 12% of respondents in Table 4.3) is a facility set up at an existing special school (though currently most of them are located at District Education Offices), unit for those with special needs, health centre, or hospital to which parents can take their children with special needs. The centres may be staffed by teachers, nurses, physiotherapists, occupational therapists, social worker and psychologists. An Educational Assessment and Resource Centre can perform five functions. These are: assessment, parent guidance and counseling, in-service training, production of materials and providing support services to other schools (Kristensen, Baine & Thorburn, 1987). The EARC visited for the present study had three specially trained teachers deployed to the centre by the Teachers’ Service Commission.

4.3 Personnel-Related Constraints Facing Implementation of Inclusive Education

4.3.1 Views on placement of learners with special needs in education

An interview guide was used to elicit the views of the respondents on whether the learners with special needs were rightly placed. The principals indicated that there were problems with placement of learners with special needs citing inadequate resources, staffing, and special rooms as issues that concern them. They also cited negative attitudes among teachers and other personnel in the school as hampering effective implementation of inclusive education. These views agree with the comments of Avramidis and Norwich (2007), that teachers’ beliefs about inclusion suggest that they do not regard students with special needs, particularly those with sensory impairments as belonging in regular classes and would rather prefer them being educated in existing special schools.

Majority of general curriculum teachers (70%) reported a number of constraints to inclusion. Some teachers felt that learners with SNE should be in separate schools because they are
sometimes ignored when all attention is focused on the other learners. Though the learners were seen to be rightly placed, some teachers said that the students with special needs lacked the nitty-gritty in every subject. This in essence means there is insufficient exposure to finer details of the subject matter. Another constraint noted stems from the fact that the schools under study have two categories of learners with visual impairments; the low vision and the blind. Teachers stated that they have no problems with the placement of the blind. Learners with albinism fall in the low vision category (although there are other partially sighted learners) and it is this group that poses many challenges because they can be stigmatized or forced to do tasks intended for the sighted or the blind. One participant noted:

“There is a heavy workload for teachers who handle classes where the totally blind students are placed. The teachers’ lessons should be reduced so that these learners do not feel neglected when the teacher is busy.”

Overall, educators felt the implementation of inclusive education had negative aspects. One participant noted:

“I am satisfied with the placement (of learners with SNE), but the fact that they are here does not mean they are learning. They are getting assistance but not much. I would rather they were in a special school. Being a minority group, I think they are discriminated against.”

Educational Assessment Resource Center officers refer cases of SNE for placement in schools. Those who participated in the study reported that they were not satisfied with the placement. They noted that there were no personnel, and schools were unwilling to take learners with SNE citing inability to attend to their needs.
4.3.2 Special Training of Staff Required

Principals of the two schools indicated that there had been no recruitment of SNE teachers in their schools. The resource teachers in their respective schools were deployed by Teachers’ Service Commission after undergoing further training in special education. Other staffs like braille transcribers were seconded to the schools by the Kenya Society for the Blind (KSB).

All general curriculum teachers stated that the college courses failed to prepare them adequately to handle learners with special needs in secondary schools. Participants reported that there was no additional unit in the university preparing them to face inclusive environments. Those who remember topics in psychology dealing with learners with special needs stated that they were too basic to help one face the demands of teaching in mixed classes. The findings of this study are in tandem with the study carried out by Ocloo and Subbey (2008). They found that Ghanaian teachers were well aware of the concept of inclusive education, but inadequate infrastructure and teachers’ lack of training impeded the implementation of inclusive education.

Inadequacies in training at undergraduate, postgraduate and on-the-job training were the most cited constraints to creating inclusive learning environments. Initial teacher training was reported to be lacking in the area of special needs education and this was said to have had major implications for inclusive practice. A lack of progress on the formal implementation of Individualized Educational Plans (IEPs) was reported and this was linked to a lack of structured training and ongoing supervision. One participant reported that she simply gets along in teaching learners with special needs through guesswork and experience.
One teacher said that she was shocked when she reported at the school the first time. She said:

“During my training at the university, special education topics were mentioned in passing. Teacher trainees should be sent to special schools to gain knowledge and experience to avoid situations like those I underwent when I was assigned a class with special needs learners.’’

Both general curriculum teachers and resources teachers stated that there was need for more special training and induction courses related to inclusion. All the respondents felt that more training was needed for successful implementation of inclusive education.

The national SNE policy framework addresses 15 target areas which have been incorporated as policy provision. Policy provision is interpreted to mean areas of intervention covered by the policy. Capacity building and development is one target area covered by the policy. The Ministry of Education is mandated to: a) Ensure deployment and retention of adequate SNE teachers and other support staff in learning institutions and other areas where their services are required, b) Undertake and collaborate with development partners to develop mechanisms to improve efficiency in human resource training and deployment in institutions offering SNE, c) Develop and implement mechanisms to identify and strengthen recruitment procedure.

There were no comments from the participants relating to the policy provision. Thirteen participants echoed the need to deploy adequate SNE teachers and other support staff in those institutions implementing inclusion of learners with special needs. Majority of respondents also seemed to relegate the status of the special education teacher to just “a resource teacher” concerned with peripheral tasks like brailing and transcription.
One resource teacher in Kericho Tea commented:

“There are no special needs teachers because the would-be specialists fear the laborious work of teaching specialized areas like braille. I am just a resource teacher.”

Generally, participants noted that having the opportunity to undergo a course or attend a seminar on special needs education would improve the implementation of inclusive education. Suggestions for professional development have identified collaborative partnership between universities and school based professionals as influential for promoting successful practice of inclusion.

The findings on this research question compare with Wanjohi (2013) that most of the teachers do not have adequate training on handling both the disabled and non-disabled learners in one class. This affects the understanding of some of the learners of which it is reflected in their performance. Continued poor performance among the learners with special needs due to the poor teaching skills and abilities of the teachers triggers their poor enrollment in the regular schools. Angrist and Lavy (2001) observe that lack of adequate and proper training received by teachers lead to a reduction in their pupils' test scores. Thus, lack of adequate teacher training to handle both the disabled and non-disabled learners in the same class negatively affects the success of inclusive education.

4.4 Constraints Facing the Availability of Resources in Inclusive Settings

4.4.1 Views on specialized material resources

Learners with specific disabilities and special needs in education require specialized educational resources at individual and school levels depending on the nature and extent of disability (RoK, 2009). Responses related to the constraints of implementing inclusive
education pointed at inadequacy of specialized material resources which include braille machines, tactile models, talking books, braille textbooks and low vision devices. The schools administrators reported that provision of learning resources to learners with special needs is organized by the resource teachers in consultation with their offices. The resource teachers act as go-betweens and ensure that braille machines and papers are availed to learners.

Ten general curriculum teachers pointed out the absence of teaching/learning resources. What emerged out of the discussions is that learners with visual impairments undertake knitting in home science. This area lacks both print and braille resources. In one of the schools, the teacher concerned with the subject reported that she had never heard of the subject syllabus. Core subjects such as mathematics and English were reported by participants as being affected by lack of resources. One participant from Kipsigis Girls remarked:

“We have spent the whole of this year asking for class texts.
The school has written severally to the Kenya Institute for the Blind without response.”

Other learning resources like geometrical sets, calculators and abacus were reported to be absent or shared between students. When braille machines breakdown, there are no substitutes and no technicians to repair the same. A resource teacher admitted there was inadequacy of resources to help learners with special needs. The teacher said:

“Sometimes we order for books from ABC (African Braille Center) but they normally write back to say they are out of stock. Tactile models are rarely found and getting time to prepare them is very difficult. It is bad news for a subject like mathematics.”
This finding is in agreement with the views of Wanjohi (2013) that lack of adequate resources to meet the educational needs of the disabled learners in the regular schools causes most of the parents to have doubt as to whether the needs of their children are adequately met in regular schools. Thus, most parents prefer to take their children to the special schools as compared to the inclusive schools. This affects negatively the success of inclusive education.

Majority of teachers were not aware of the sources of basic learning aids and other resources. Most of them were of the view that the resource teacher deals with all the issue of sourcing and allocation of funds and teaching learning resources. The resource teachers admitted that their schools were facing challenges in ensuring that learners with special needs are provided with basic learning aids. Even with the provision of such resources, teachers do not know how to use them. In addition one resource teacher cannot cope with class work preparation of teaching resources, brailing and transcribing.

### 4.4.2 Constraints related to funding of SNE Programs

Placing a student with significant special needs in an inclusive setting without teachers experience and expertise requires in many cases, a great deal of investment. A substantial proportion of the teaching staff may have to be trained and a considerably high level of funding of the program is inevitable. Adequate resources and proper utilization of administrative structures are crucial in the implementation and the realization of the objectives of the SNE policy. Republic of Kenya (2009) notes that majority of parents cannot afford assistive and functional devices needed by learners with special needs. They are expensive and out of reach to many of them.

The school administration admitted that implementation of inclusive education was being hampered by lack of funds. The administrator from Kipsigis Girls explained:
“We do not have much support from the Ministry of Education. We have written to them twice or thrice this year but there is no response. Kenya Commercial Bank, Kericho, has responded to our pleas and assisted us. It is KSB that has been consistent in helping inclusion in this school. We have a physically challenged girl who is being supported by the Catholic Church. The church is quite regular in terms of fees payment and changing of Jaipur limbs.”

The other school administrator corroborated the information by responding:

“Other than occasionally very little from the Ministry of Education, there is small or no funding towards resources. It is occasional and erratic. The issue of funding is through fees from parents.”

Interviewed on who allocates the funds for the teaching and learning resources for the SNE program, the administrators responded that this depends on the requisition from the teachers. One participant noted,

“There is no money for the program. The teachers place requests for the SNE. The problem in sourcing their materials is that they are not available in the market, unless KSB assist in looking for them.”

The teachers discussed the problems associated with the sources and allocations of funds for the SNE program. They said that people who were approached for assistance (funding) took too long to respond to pleas from the schools. In the meantime, delivery of services was hampered hence impacting negatively on implementation of inclusive education. One participant observed:

“We depend on braille papers from Sight Savers International who
work closely with Kenya Society for the Blind. But they do not
send funds to the school. It is only when we ask them to supply
us with material resources that they chip in. Learners with special
needs in education depend on their families like other students.
Donors only chip in if communicated to about individual learners.’’

Interviewed on who decides the allocation of funds for the teaching and learning resources of
the SNE program, participants noted that the head teacher decides in collaboration with the
resource teacher. However, priorities vary and special needs department might not be one of
these. Three quarters of the teachers were not aware of the problems associated with sourcing
of funds for SNE and how these are allocated to the program.

From the interviews, it was found out that the policy statement committing the Ministry of
Education in collaboration with development partners to continually review and increase
budgetary allocation to institutions and programs that provide special needs education had
remained just but rhetoric. The intentions of Ministry of Educations reflect what is done
elsewhere, however, this is not followed up in practice. According to Inclusive Education in
Action (n.d), there appear to be a number of reasons for this: firstly, the education systems
(policies and practice) in countries have evolved over time, within very specific contexts and
are therefore highly individual (this is supported by the Financing study). Whilst there are
similarities in approaches and aims for inclusive education across countries internally, but
especially across European countries, the systems of educational provision for inclusion in all
countries are also individual. Policy and practice relating to inclusion in a country is a result
of developments in legislation as well as understandings and conceptions of teaching and
learning.
4.5 Constraints Facing Delivery of Curriculum to Learners with Special Needs

4.5.1 Extra time needed to deliver curriculum

Time constraints were cited by the majority of interviewees as a barrier to effective inclusive practice, specifically: for administration, paperwork and correcting homework, for developing policy, for staff liaison and collaboration, including collaborative planning time, for liaison with parents and for the development of individual plans and programs. Inadequate, unstructured opportunities for liaison between class teachers, support staff, and other professionals were also seen as a major constraint.

At the classroom level, teachers indicated that there was limited time for differentiation by input and output (that is; differentiation by teacher input, in which during the assessment of tasks an allowance may have to be made for the level of teacher intervention, and differentiation by outcome, in which all pupils undertake a common task and differentiation is sought on the basis of the quality of response or outcome), developing IEPs and doing other administrative work, whilst struggling to deliver the curriculum. On the whole-school level, it was reported that there was limited dedicated time for developing inclusive practice through training in specialized skills, staff meetings and in-service.

In an effort to make curriculum accessible to learners with special needs, teachers reported the problem of time during evaluations. Half of the respondents noted that learners with special needs were disadvantaged during examination period. Transcription of their tests takes longer time and as a result delays the administration of exams. Participants also reported that this category of learners are added 30 minutes to complete doing their papers, hence spilling over to the next scheduled papers. In most cases they fail to complete the tests. In general, this finding was corroborated by studies carried out by researchers such as
deBettencourt (1999), whose findings reflect that major obstacles to inclusive education at the primary school level often result from pragmatic factors such as limited time, large class size, heavy workload, existing regulations, and insufficient institutional support.

Two respondents reported that time is wasted when the test is brailed wrongly, have spelling mistakes or a braille page is missing. It also emerged that, according to the Kenya National Examinations Council guidelines, learners with low vision are required to sit for two science subjects. As a result of this directive, the severe cases of low vision students are not in a position to undertake practical aspects of the examinations, even though they can read large print. The practical aspects are not correspondingly catered for by KNEC, especially in the provision of apparatus. The writings on the apparatus are not enlarged to take care of the needs of the low vision category. The problem noted pointed at shortage of specialist personnel to minimize the peripheral problems that result in failure to undertake efficient evaluation of students with SNE.

Curricular demands at secondary school level and meeting standards in certificate examinations were cited by some interviewees as obstacles to inclusion. A resource teacher pointed out that in relation to resistance to inclusion amongst teachers, fear of the unknown, fear of criticism and ultimately fear of failure were crucial factors. Some interviewees reported that some teachers were resistant to differentiating the curriculum for weaker pupils.

4.5.2 Collaboration between stakeholders

Historically, teaching has been a practice in which teachers spent most of their day alone in a classroom, left to independently teach subject matter and manage discipline issues with little opportunity to work with their colleagues (Gable & Hendrickson, 2000; Smith, Doll, & Gengel, 1998). This isolation has changed somewhat over the years as professional educators
have acknowledged the need to work in partnership with colleagues in order to meet the needs of diverse students (Cole et al., 2000).

Administrators, teachers, EARC officers constitute personnel resource. Responses related to challenges of inclusive education included the quality of collaboration between the school principal, the resource teacher and other teachers. Both principals noted that the collaboration is good and that they normally discuss issues affecting students with SNE with their respective resource teachers.

50% of the general curriculum teachers noted that there was some form of collaboration between the schools with the Kenya Society for the Blind, Kenya Integrated Education Program (KIEP), Sight Savers International, Kenya Institute for the Blind, and African Braille Center (ABC). The other half of the general curriculum teachers admitted the existing collaboration was in no way helping improve inclusion. Both resource teachers admitted there was collaboration between them and the school administration, donors and the EARC officers. The collaboration with other teachers was repeatedly referred to as consultations.

EARC officers stated that they are collaborating with Sight Savers International who provides resources to the students through Kenya Society for the Blind. They named others they collaborate with as personnel from Kericho district hospital who include physiotherapists, the eye clinic and the ENT who give medical attention to the referred cases.

4.5.3 Views on curriculum accessibility

Education for learners with SNE is facing several challenges in regard to the curriculum development. The curriculum for learners with special needs come later (or never) when their counterparts are already familiar with the curriculum contents and requirements. These delays make the students lag behind in the syllabus implementation which negatively affects their
performance in schools. According to RoK (2009), in some cases, by the time the curriculum is designed for them, new changes may be again taking shape in the same curriculum hence the vicious cycle.

Responses related to the constraints of inclusive education included curriculum accessibility by learners. Regarding the flexibility of the curriculum to accommodate learners with special needs, majority of teachers (both general curriculum and resource teachers) elaborated on factors and areas that hinder implementation of inclusion. Teachers have to deal with the overall performance of the students rather than finding a change to attend to each learner individually.

Majority of teachers reported that the curriculum content still needs a lot of adaptations for example: topics such as inequalities, coordinates, and quadratic expressions in mathematics are challenging to learners with visual impairments because there are no braille symbols provided. Normal prints in textbooks and other material resources were also blamed for excluding students with visual impairments in task like reading. One participant reported:

‘The curriculum is rigid. It does not accept these different learners fully and it is biased because it forgets their needs entirely. It is upon the teachers to remember that there are learners with special needs in their class.’

As one of the problems making the curriculum inaccessible to learners with special needs a number of schools subjects were named as inflexible. These include mathematics, chemistry, biology, physics and agriculture. Here, some participants felt these subjects are forced on students with visual impairments.
One participant pointed out that in clothing construction, there is an adapted curriculum which requires learners with SNE to do knitting instead of sewing. However, this is a difficult area for the teacher to teach well due to lack of skills on special education.

The finding of this study is consistent with the findings of studies conducted by Chuck Hitchcock, Anne Meyer, David Rose, & Richard Jackson (2002). They reiterate that students with disabilities are to be educated in the general curriculum and aspire to the same standards and expectations as their peers. This means that all four components of curriculum—goals, media and materials, teaching methods, and assessment—need to apply to all students. One of the biggest obstacles to ensuring this across the board application is that the general curriculum today is largely inflexible, because the printed textbook remains at its core. The medium of print has long dominated communication and therefore education and curriculum design. Once material is committed to paper it cannot be adjusted and changed: the text is one size and available only to those who can handle the physical book, see and decode the text, and understand the concepts necessary to interpret it.

4.5.4 Curriculum Adaptations

Educators have to deal with complex dilemmas in the process of delivering the curriculum in a way which is relevant to the diverse needs of learners in an inclusive environment. This situation often creates stress and can exacerbate feelings of loneliness, isolation and disempowerment. Three quarters of teachers were in agreement that curriculum adaptation is critical at every stage of learning in inclusive setting. One participant voiced the following in this regard:

“You adapt at every stage. I am sensitive of the presence of learners with SNE. For example, in planning exams time-table they are given breaks in between to avoid subjecting them to
Specific content areas were reported as needing adaptations for the inclusion to succeed. Among these adaptations were: subjects like mathematics, biology and physics. Some participants responded:

“The curriculum content still needs a lot of adaptations. Topics like inequalities, coordinates and quadratic expressions are challenging to students with crucial impairments because there are no braille symbols provided. In addition, experiments in the laboratory must be excluding them. That is what I think.’’

Interviewed on what circumstances adaptations are done, teachers were in agreement that this is mainly done during examinations. They pointed out that adaptations are done during examinations and every other time a concept requires simplification. They pointed out that an adaptation is done in cases where there are diagrams or tasks requiring observations. In this case, they look for alternative questions.

4.6 Physical Environment-Related Constraints Facing Implementation of Inclusive Education

4.6.1 Views on Environmental Modification

Physical environment play a critical role in successful implementation of inclusive education. The Ministry of Education’s objective is to enhance provision of accessible safe and friendly environment and facilities for learners with special needs. Findings from interviews with teachers show that the learning environment, buildings, amenities, equipment and furniture, pose accessibility challenges to learners with special needs. These are not allowing them to operate and access education with minimal hindrance.
Majority of the general curriculum teachers felt that learners with special needs were facing challenges associated with the environment. The researcher explored the areas of concern and responses fell into broad categories: Infrastructural and Non-infrastructural. The participants identified lack of special toilets for persons with special needs, paths and roads, stairs, pavements, and ramps as some of the infrastructural concerns of the schools. Other areas constraining effective inclusion are the absence of guard rails along the pavements and stairs, uneven and narrow doorways, poor lighting in the classrooms, muddy footpaths and open drains (Kericho Tea). The type of windows in the schools is not designed with safety of people with special needs in mind. They are dangerous to people with visual impairments when they are left half-open especially along the corridors. Non-infrastructural concerns touched on lack of labels to assist learners with visual impairments in identifying crucial areas of the school, absence of specialized computer programs, lack of orientation and mobility exercises, poor seating arrangement in class and lack of CCTVs in the resource room. A study by Avramidis and Norwich (2002) suggest that educational environment-related variables, such as the availability of physical and human support, were consistently found to be associated with attitudes to inclusion by teachers.

The two school administrators explained the efforts being undertaken by the school to minimize the discomfort facing learners with visual impairment. They identified stairs, toilets, roads, pavements and drains as posing danger to students with visual impairments. Little or no efforts have been made to modify these though the idea has been mooted during Board of Governors meetings on several occasions.

There were constraints noted by resource teachers, which included steep stairs, pit latrines, absence of rails along open drains, lack of special play fields, problems of striking a balance in lighting of classroom, absence of labels on important places, lack of orientation and
mobility training and the need to have proper seating arrangement in the classroom. One teacher recommended louvers to replace windows which are swung outward and cause accidents on those who have visual impairments.

The finding of this study is consistent with the findings of studies conducted by Mukhopadhyay, Nenty & Okechukwu (2012). These researchers found that the majority of the classrooms were inaccessible to learners with physical disabilities; for example, although some schools had ramps, some of the ramps were too steep for students with physical disabilities to move up them independently. Necessary facilities such as toilets were inaccessible. Structural barriers tend to limit independent access to classroom and school activities, and impact negatively on participation and competence in the curricular and co-curricular activities.
CHAPTER FIVE

SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

5.1 Introduction

The purpose of the current study was to describe the constraints facing the implementation of inclusive education in selected secondary schools in Kericho County. The qualitative study included description and understanding of personnel-related constraints facing implementation of inclusive education, identification of constraints about availability of resources in inclusive settings, curriculum-related constraints in regard to learners with special needs, and finally constraints related to the physical environment in the implementation of inclusive education. This chapter includes the summary of the findings, conclusion and recommendations for follow-up research in the area of inclusive education. The summary reflects knowledge gained from the study. Recommendations identify potential topics for educators to look into or implement. The final part constitutes areas for future studies.

5.2 Summary of the findings of the Study

This section provides a summary of the constraints facing the implementation of inclusive education. The data from the study not only revealed the principals’ knowledge regarding IE constraints but also the lived experiences of teachers, and EARC officers about issues of inclusion.

i) The findings showed that placement of learners with special needs remain a big challenge because of the shortage of skilled personnel and the unwillingness of schools to take them, citing inability to attend to their needs. Findings on placement of
learners in regular schools showed that teachers have more workload especially in cases where resource teachers are few.

ii) The study found out that general curriculum teachers have no basic knowledge in handling learners with special needs. The college/university courses do not prepare them adequately for inclusive environments.

iii) It was found that the two schools experience shortage of trained SNE teachers because those already trained fear laborious work like braille and materials development for learners with special needs. In this case, those teachers who have undergone further studies opt to remain in their stations and use the qualification for promotional purpose.

iv) Whereas the policy on SNE advocates for development and implementation mechanisms to identify and strengthen recruitment procedures for SNE personnel, the findings revealed that there has not been any recruitment of this nature in the study schools.

v) Findings related to the constraints of implementing inclusive education revealed that there is inadequacy of specialized material resources to be used in the teaching of learners with special needs. It emerged also that the few available resource materials are shared by learners with SNE in different classes. The study found that even with the provision of teaching/learning resources for SNE, teachers do not know how to put these to use. On the same, it was found that resource teachers faced many problems as they cannot cope with class work, preparation of teaching resources, and other duties.

vi) Time constraints were cited by the majority of interviewees as a barrier to effective inclusive practice, specifically: for administration, paperwork and correcting homework, for developing policy, for staff liaison and collaboration, including
collaborative planning time, for liaison with parents and for the development of individual plans and programs. The present study found that time is a challenge during examination period. Preparation of test for learners with visual impairments takes longer time, delaying the administration of test, and running into next scheduled papers.

vii) Findings showed that there is a dis-connect between Kenya National Examinations Council’s guidelines on choice of subjects for learners with special needs and the situation on the ground. The practical part of examinations is not well catered for in terms of print size, color contrast and/or choice of material to use.

viii) This study found collaborations between different players fairly good. It was noted that school principals were collaborating with resource teachers. Collaboration was also found to exist between the school and other partners like Kenya Society for the Blind in assisting the institutions to implement inclusion.

ix) Education for learners with SNE is facing challenges in regard to curriculum development. The findings showed that the curriculum content still needs a lot of adaptations specially in subjects like mathematics, geography, sciences and practical aspects of certain topics. The curriculum is rigid, as it does not accept fully learners with different needs.

x) Educators have to deal with complex dilemmas in the process of implementing the curriculum in a way which is relevant to the diverse needs of learners in an inclusive environment. Findings showed that curriculum adaptations are critical at every stage and that specific content areas need adaptations for inclusion to succeed. This study revealed that teachers mainly carry out adaptations during the examination period only.

viii) Placing students with significant special needs in an inclusive setting without proper preparation requires a great deal of investment. Findings revealed problems with sources and
allocations of funds for the SNE program. Donors approached for assistance take too long in responding to the requests. When donors respond, they do so when it is too late for any intervention to be meaningful.

xi) For a sound barrier-free environment, enhanced provision of accessible safe and friendly learning and boarding facilities for all learners must be in place. Constraints noted in this included steep stairs, pit latrines, absence of rails along open drains, lack of special play fields, problems of striking a balance in lighting of classroom, absence of labels on important places, lack of orientation and mobility training and the need to have proper seating arrangement in the classroom. These are problems that pose accessibility challenges to learners with special needs.

5.3 Conclusions

The present study aimed at describing constraints facing the implementation of inclusive education in selected secondary schools in Kericho County. The results may not be generalized to the whole country. As inclusion gains momentum in the years to come, more schools will have to grapple with some or most of the constraints summarized above. Based on the data revealed, it can be concluded that:

Learners with SNE especially those with low vision in the study schools do not enjoy complete inclusion due to uncertainty among teachers as to their capabilities and limitations.

Inclusive education is constrained by lack of skilled/trained personnel and unwillingness of the already qualified educators to work in schools practicing inclusion citing heavy work load and lack of motivation. Teachers in schools implementing inclusion have no background in special education, resource teachers are few and teacher education courses do not cover units in special education adequately.
The two secondary schools have no capacity to recruit specially trained teachers to take care of included students with SNE. There is inadequacy of specialized material resources to be used in the teaching of learners with special needs and the few that are available are shared by students in different classes, inconveniencing them in the process. Teachers do not know how to use some resources like embossers, low vision devices, head pointers, braille machines, and so on.

Examination time-table remains one of the biggest constraints to meaningful inclusion. There is a guideline that provides for extra time for examination for learners with SNE but it does not take into account the next papers resulting in continuous sitting of papers. Choosing of subjects for certain categories of learners with SNE remains a nightmare. There is a new directive from KNEC requiring candidates to sit for eight subjects. This has thrown schools into confusion – to take or not to take – certain science subjects. The curriculum structure and content present disability in negative terms. It is very wide and challenges the teachers capacity to meet its demand and in most cases not learner sensitive.

The far that inclusion has come through can be attributed to collaboration between school administration, teachers, the government and donors such as Sight Savers International, Kenya Commercial Bank and local hospitals. Schools implementing inclusive education have not taken steps to curb or reduce accessibility challenges which face learners with SNE. The learning environment, attitudes, buildings, amenities, equipment and furniture are some of the constraints to effective inclusion.

Curriculum development is key to learning both to students with and those without special needs. The curriculum content and requirements is inconsistent with specific needs of certain categories of learners with SNE. Accordingly, this inconsistency becomes a constraint in taking inclusion forward. There are challenges in sourcing and allocation of funds to SNE
programs. This is aggravated by the fact that donors delay in assisting schools and during other times they do not assist at all.

5.4 Recommendations of the Study

The findings of the current study may apply to a variety of educational settings that implement inclusion. The conclusions provide policy makers with information relating to the operation of effective inclusive education and may provide teachers with additional knowledge to offer implementation methods for inclusive training. The recommendations below are intended to solicit viable intervention from a number of players in education including assessment centres, Kenya National Examinations Council, Universities, KIE, KISE, and teachers in schools using or moving towards inclusion delivery models.

i) Learners with SNE should thoroughly be assessed at Educational Assessment Resource Centres (EARCs) to ascertain the degree of their disability.

ii) To be an enabling teacher, specific efforts and motivational structures such as special allowance need to be put in place by the Teachers Service Commission to ensure that teachers accept to be posted to and work in inclusive environments.

iii) Every teacher needs to be skilled and trained in responding to special learner demands. Sufficient opportunities for professional development must be provided by the newly created counties. Professional development is especially important for schools/teachers adopting inclusion because their work demands that they accept new responsibilities and expand their roles to cover SNE.

iv) Teacher training institutions and universities should review their curriculum to include mandatory units/courses in special needs education so that teachers are prepared to work in any environment, and be made to feel like they are agents of improvement.
v) School administrators should scrutinize the barriers that exist in acquisition of material resources for learners with special needs. The process should start by utilizing the available resources and be active in creating avenues for accessing more from the community or donors.

vi) The Kenya National Examinations Council should improve data collection techniques to ensure that all relevant information about prospective candidates is captured. This will go a long way in enhancing equity and fairness in assessment because most cases of learners with special needs will be identified and catered for appropriately.

vii) Kenya Institute of Curriculum Development should come up with a curriculum specific to each SNE category learners to assist examining bodies adopt better strategies of dealing with issues of subjects selection.

viii) The curriculum needs to be flexibly designed to allow teachers to manipulate it and apply various teaching strategies. Materials such as books need to be sensitive to the teachers’ challenges or flexible enough for teachers to adjust according to the learners’ needs.

ix) For the learning environment to be conducive, schools must take initiative to improve on physical facilities to be sensitive to learners with SNE. In addition, socio-cultural attitudes and systems that condemn special needs selectively and create barriers on avenues for accommodation and inclusion should be removed through creation of awareness and sensitization.

x) The Ministry of Education should ensure that funding of SNE programs are regular and adequate. Funding affect the flexibility of schools to make special provisions the necessity of formal identification procedure questions of
accountability and control the position of parents and the need for decentralization of decision making processes.

5.5 Suggestions for Further Research

- The area of inclusion models lacks adequate studies done in Kenya. This is a gap that requires an in-depth study preferably as an action research.

- A survey study ought to be undertaken to determine the extent of turn-over among graduates of special education

- Research has not been undertaken on the efficacy and efficiency of professional and support services to learners with special needs in institutions that implement inclusive education.
REFERENCES


Special Education Unit. (1998c). *Special education handbook for headmasters*. Bandar Seri Begawan: Ministry of Education.


APPENDIX I

INTERVIEW GUIDE FOR TEACHERS

SECTION A: DEMOGRAPHIC INFORMATION

1. Gender: □ Male □ Female

2. School: □ Kipsigis Girls □ Kericho Tea Boys

3. Teaching experience in years: Between □ 1-5 □ 6-10 □ 11-15
   □ 16-20 □ above 20

4. Main teaching subjects …………………………………………………………………………

5. General curriculum teacher □
   Resource teacher □

SECTION B: INFORMATION ABOUT INCLUSIVE EDUCATION

6. What can you say about the placement of Special Needs Education learners in this school?
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7. Do you think the Special Needs trained teachers posted to the school are those whose services are relevant to the type of disability?
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8. What can you say about the demands of teaching in inclusive classrooms?

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9. What is your opinion about the adequacy of personnel trained to handle students with special needs education?

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10. Do you feel the College courses prepared you adequately to handle the secondary school demands with regard to special needs education?

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11. What can you say about the adequacy of specialized material resources for the education of students with disabilities?

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12. How does the school ensure that individual learners with special needs are provided with basic learning aids?

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13. What problems are associated with sourcing funds for the SNE program?

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14. Who decides the allocation of funds for the teaching and learning resources of the SNE program? Are there challenges in the allocation?

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15. What problems do you encounter as you evaluate students with special needs education?
16. Do you face challenges in the choice of teaching strategies in an inclusive class? What challenges are these and how do you resolve them?

17. When you assess students with disabilities, do you evaluate them against their own achievement or do you compare them against other learners?

18. How flexible is the curriculum content to accommodate learners with special needs?

19. What curriculum factors would you say exclude learners with special needs in meaningful learning?

20. Under what circumstances do you ever do adaptation for learners with special needs?

21. What environmental modification do you feel should be made?

22. What environmental modifications would you prioritize to facilitate effective socialization of learners with special needs?
APPENDIX II

INTERVIEW GUIDE FOR THE SCHOOL PRINCIPAL

1. What can you say about the placement of Special Needs Education learners in this school?

2. Do you think the Special Needs trained teachers posted to the school are those whose services are relevant to the type of disability?

3. Is there a transparent recruitment established for SNE teachers in the school?

4. How does the school recruit key resource teachers and other staff for SNE in the school?
5. What can you say about the demands of teaching in inclusive classrooms?

6. What is your opinion about the adequacy of personnel trained to handle students with special needs education?

7. How do you involve learners with special needs in decision making?

8. What leadership positions are learners with special needs hold in the school?

9. How do you involve learners with special needs in cultural, sporting and recreational activities?

8. What are some of the situations that learners with special needs seek your assistance?

9. What can you say about the adequacy of specialized material resources for the education of students with disabilities?

10. How does the school ensure that individual learners with special needs are provided with basic learning aids?

11. What problems are associated with sourcing funds for the SNE program?
12. Who decides the allocation of funds for the teaching and learning resources of the SNE program? Are there challenges in the allocation?

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13. How does the school plan to sustain the allocation of resources for teaching and learning materials?

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14. How do you rate the quality of your collaboration with the resource teacher in the implementation of curriculum to students with special needs?

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15. What environmental modification would you prioritize to facilitate effective socialization of learners with special needs?

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16. Do you feel there is an effort to modify the school environment to accommodate students with special needs?

APPENDIX III

INTERVIEW GUIDE FOR THE EDUCATIONAL ASSESSMENT RESOURCE CENTRE OFFICERS

1. How satisfied are you with the placement of Special Needs Education learners in these schools?

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2. Do you think the special needs trained teachers posted to inclusive the County schools are those whose services are relevant to the type of disability?

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3. What collaboration do you get from other stakeholders to ensure regular assessment of students with special needs?

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4. What is your opinion about the adequacy of personnel trained to handle students with special needs education?

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5. What is the level of collaboration between your office and schools implementing inclusive education?

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6. Do you normally recommend specialized material resources for use in schools?

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7. How do you ensure the specialized resources are appropriately utilized?

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APPENDIX IV

INFORMED CONSENT: PARTICIPANTS 18 YEARS OF AGE AND OLDER

Dear ____________,

I am a student at Kenyatta University working on a Master of Education (Curriculum Studies) degree. I am conducting a research study entitled Constraints Facing the Implementation of Inclusive Education: A Case of Selected Secondary Schools in Kericho County. The purpose of my research study is to describe the nature of constraints facing the implementation of inclusive education in selected secondary schools. A case study design will be used to elucidate issues surrounding implementation of inclusive education and it will be important to put under spotlight the school’s preparedness to implement a program which does not
exclude one group or the other of learners. The design of the study will support the goal to investigate experiences as educators and learners live it (van Mannen, 1990). Your confidential participation will involve an interview process that will be scheduled to last from 10 to 15 minutes. I will explain the procedures for the interview process to you. In this research, there are no foreseeable risks to you. The possible benefit of your participation is the added knowledge for educators to apply when implementing policy mandates.

If you have any questions concerning the research study, please call me on +254736121800 or email me at kachepkwony@yahoo.com. The return of your signed letter indicates consent and approval.

Sincerely,
Chepkwony K. A. Alfred

By signing this form I acknowledge that I understand the nature of the study, the potential risks to me as a participant, and the means by which my identity will be kept confidential. My signature on this form also indicates that I am 18 years old or older and that I give my permission to voluntarily serve as a participant in the study described.

Participant Signature__________________________
Date________________________________________

APPENDIX V

DATA COLLECTION PROTOCOL

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APPENDIX VI

DATA COLLECTION PROTOCOL CONTINUED
1. Arrive at interview site 20 minutes prior to scheduled time to prepare area and ensure all materials are in place.

2. Greet participant and explain interview format.

3. Obtain verbal and written consent.

4. Begin tape recording: identify participant, the date, the school, the time of interview.

5. Initiate interview questions and allow responses for sub-questions that may emerge from interview questions.

6. Inform participant when approximately 5 minutes remain in the 15 minute time allotment defined in the informed consent.

7. Summarize apparent themes to verify accuracy.

8. Conclude interview and thank participant.

APPENDIX VII
APPENDIX VIII

THIS IS TO CERTIFY THAT
Prof./Dr./Mr./Mrs./Miss./Institution
Alfred Kiplangat A.

Of (Address) Kenyatta University
P.O BOX 43844, Nairobi
has been permitted to conduct research in
Kericho Location
Rift Valley District
Province

TOPIC: Constraints facing the implementation of inclusive education: A case of Kericho County

for a period ending 31st March 2012

PERMIT No. NCST/RCD/14/011/1686
Date of issue 9th January, 2011
Fee received KSHS.1,000

Applicant’s Secretary
Signature National Council for Science and Technology
APPENDIX IX

NATIONAL COUNCIL FOR SCIENCE AND TECHNOLOGY

Telegrams: “SCIENCE TECH”, Nairobi
Telephone: 254-020-241349, 2213102
254-020-310571, 2213123.
Fax: 254-020-2213215, 318245, 318249
When replying please quote

Our Ref:
NCST/RCD/14/011/1680/4

Alfred Kiplangat A. Chepkwony
Kenyatta University
P. O. Box 43844
NAIROBI

RE: RESEARCH AUTHORIZATION

Following your application for authority to carry out research on “Constraints facing the implementation of inclusive education: A case of Kericho County” I am pleased to inform you that you have been authorized to undertake research in Kericho County for a period ending 31st March 2012.

You are advised to report to the District Commissioner & the District Education Officer in selected districts in Kericho County before embarking on the research project.

On completion of the research, you are expected to submit one hard copy and one soft copy of the research report/thesis to our office.

DR. M. K. RUGUTT, PhD, HSc
DEPUTY COUNCIL SECRETARY

Copy to:
The District Commissioner
Selected districts in Kericho County

The District Education Officer
Selected districts in Kericho County
APPENDIX X

MINISTRY OF EDUCATION

Tel: 052 – 31127
FAX: 052 – 21361
When replying please quote

District Education Office
P.O. Box 149
KERICHO

Our Ref: No. K/43/VOL.IV/114. 2/2/2012.

TO WHOM IT MAY CONCERN.

RE: RESEARCH AUTHORIZATION – ALFRED KIPLANGAT A. CHEPKWONY.

The above named has been authorized to carry out research on “Constraints facing the implementation of inclusive education, A case of Kericho County for a period ending 31st March, 2012”.

Any assistance accorded to him will be appreciated.

Francis Muthyeke
District Education Officer

KERICHO DISTRICT.
TO WHOM IT MAY CONCERN.

Dear Sir/Madam,

RE: ALFRED KIPLANGAT A. CHEPKWONY.

This is to confirm that the above named person has been authorized to undertake his research study in our institution. He is to interview the teachers between February 6\textsuperscript{th} and February 10\textsuperscript{th}, 2012 on issues to do with special needs education. His research topic is ‘Constraints facing the implementation of inclusive education: A case of Kericho County’.

Yours faithfully,

Nancy Ng’eno (Mrs.)

PRINCIPAL.