UNIVERSITY OF CAPE COAST

INFLUENCE OF TEACHER PREPARATION PROGRAMME ON

TEACHERS' COMPETENCE IN INCLUSIVE PRACTICE IN ASHANTI

REGION, GHANA

RICHARD AMOAKO
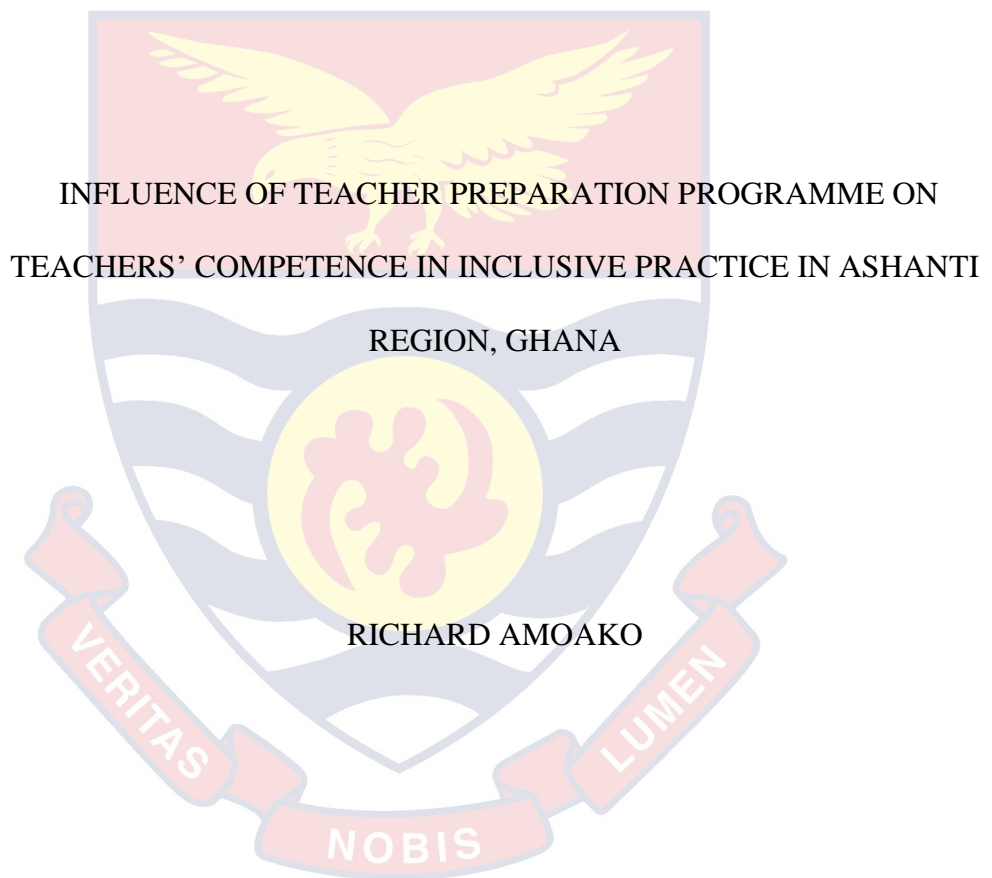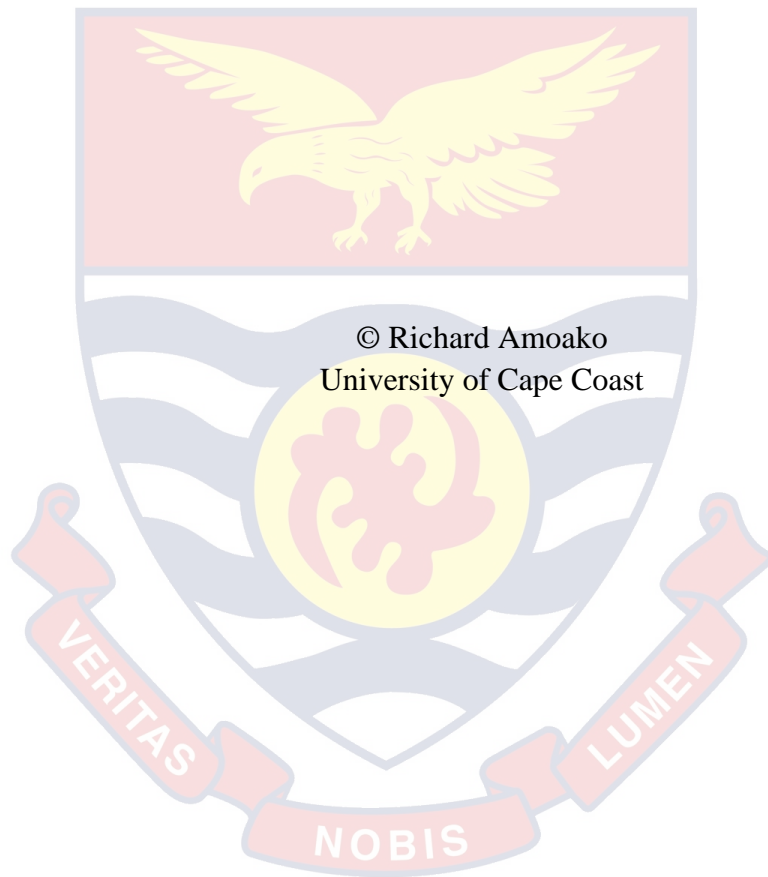
2020

© Richard Amoako
University of Cape Coast

UNIVERSITY OF CAPE COAST

INFLUENC OF TEACHER PREPARATION PROGRAMME ON

TEACHERS' COMPETENCE IN INCLUSIVE PRACTICE IN ASHANTI

REGION, GHANA

BY

RICHARD AMOAKO

Thesis submitted to the Department of Education and Psychology of the

Faculty of Educational Foundations, College of Education Studies, University

of Cape Coast, in partial fulfilment of the requirements for award of Doctor of

Philosophy Degree in Special Education

JUNE 2020

DECLARATION

Candidate's Declaration

I hereby declare that this thesis is the result of my own original research and that no part of it has been presented for another degree in this university or elsewhere.

Candidate's Signature…………………………. Date: ....

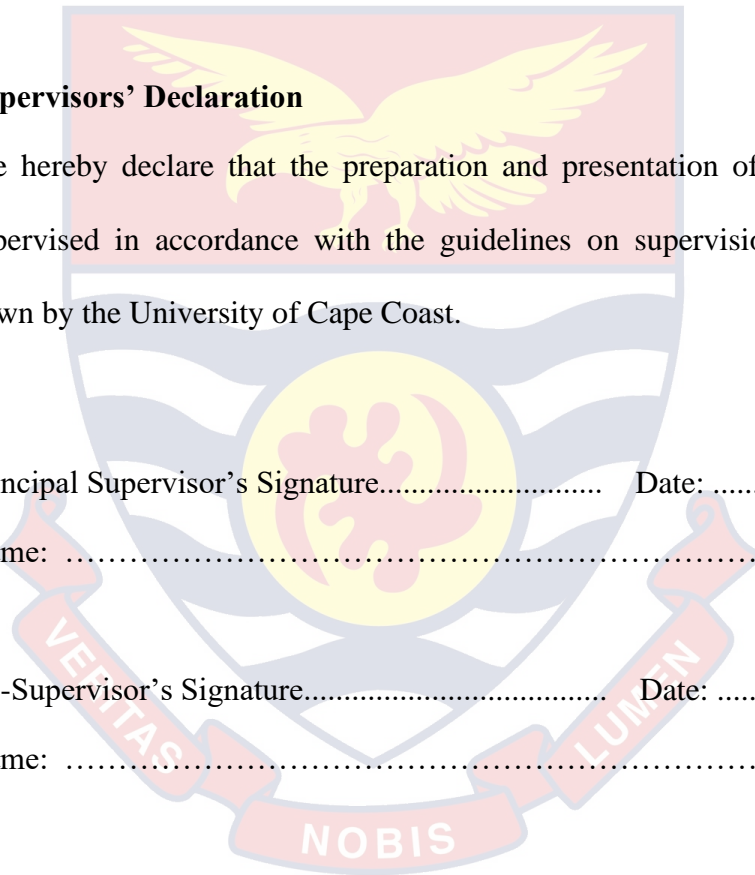Name: ………………………………………………………….

Supervisors' Declaration

We hereby declare that the preparation and presentation of the thesis were supervised in accordance with the guidelines on supervision of thesis laid down by the University of Cape Coast.

Principal Supervisor's Signature............................ Date: ....

Name: ………………………………………………………….

Co-Supervisor's Signature..................................... Date: ....

Name: ………………………………………………………….

ii

ABSTRACT

The study aimed at examining the influence of teacher preparation programme on teachers' classroom management, time management and self-efficacy in inclusive schools in Ashanti Region, Ghana. Descriptive survey design was used. A multi stage sampling technique was used to select 365 teachers who responded to a set of questionnaires. Six research questions were formulated to keep the study in focus. Five hypotheses were also formulated and tested. A questionnaire was developed by the researcher to serve as the instrument for data collection. The study revealed that pre-service teacher preparation programme equip teachers with knowledge on inclusive practices, good classroom management skills and effective time management in an inclusive classroom. It was evident from the study that the existing teacher preparation programme does not train teachers to develop self-efficacy that will help them to function in an inclusive classroom. The study also revealed that there is a significant positive relationship between teacher respondents' knowledge about inclusive practices and their classroom management skills. It was recommended that the government of Ghana through the Ministry of Education, the National Teaching Council and the Ghana Education Service, should organise regular in-service training for teachers in order to upgrade their knowledge in inclusive practices. Also, it is important that students teachers are exposed to practical inclusive classrooms during their pre-service preparation programme to equip them with practical experience with children with special educational needs and disabilities, so that they can build their confidence level when they eventually move out of school.
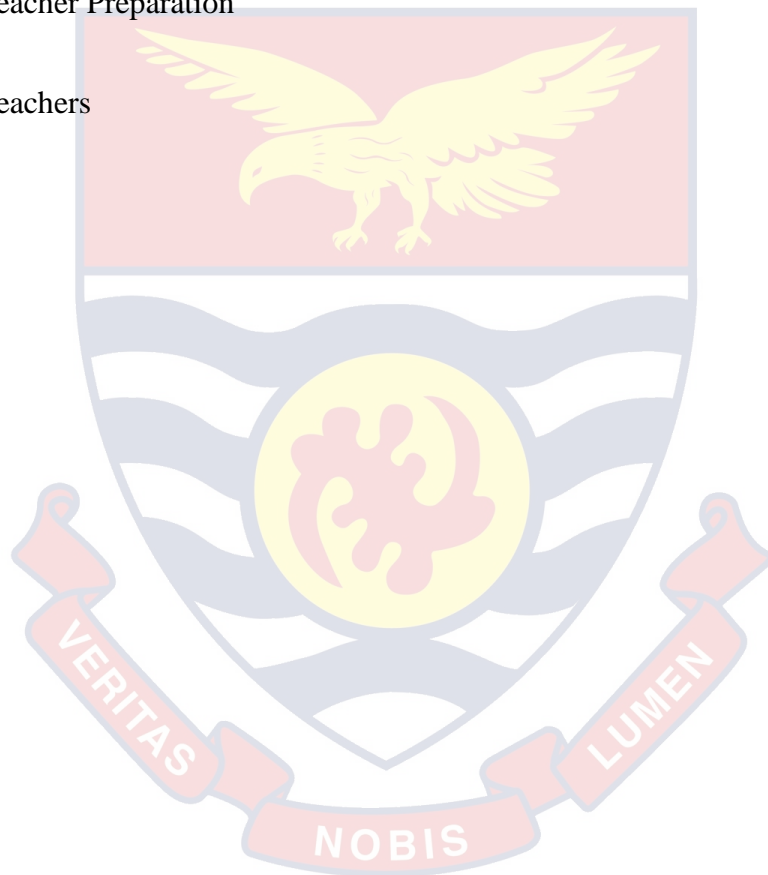
KEYWORDS

Disability

Inclusion

Inclusive School

Perception

Teacher Preparation

Teachers

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

This study has been a collective endeavour. I am extremely grateful for the assistance, advice, and guidance of my supervisors Dr. Irene Vanderpuye and Prof. Emmanuel Kofi Gyimah. I thank you especially for your continuous support and for giving me the confidence to persevere with this work. I appreciate the time you gave for our meetings and for the phone calls, and, for your suggestions and ideas for this thesis. I am grateful to Dr. Kyeremeh Tawiah Dabone of University of Cape Coast and Mr. Aaron Adusei of St Monca's College of Education for their continuous emotional support, assistance, motivation, guidance and encouragement.

I am indebted to the Head teachers and teachers in the Ashanti Region who participated in the study, for their time and energy spent in responding to the questionnaires. Again, I express my sincere appreciation to Mrs. Grace Yeboah and all my course mates for their support and invaluable friendship that they demonstrated, which speared me on to bring this work to completion. Finally, I extend my special appreciation to my family members especially my mother Lucy Lissy Gbomita for their prayers, encouragement, patience and material support.

DEDICATION

Dedicated to my late brother, Mr. Kwaku Amoako
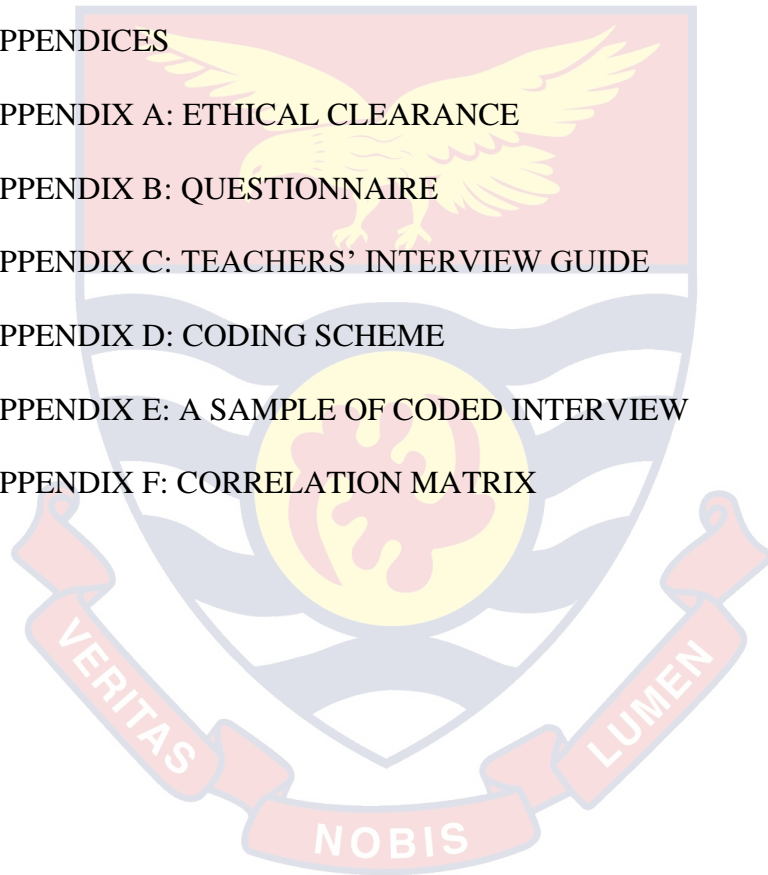
TABLE OF CONTENTS

CHAPTER FIVE: SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS AND

RECOMMENDATIONS

LIST OF TABLES

LIST OF FIGURES

CHAPTER ONE

INTRODUCTION

Background to the Study

The most important contribution teacher education programmes can make to support learning in any country is when institutions mandated to prepare teachers commit their resources to the preparation of professionals for the basic and secondary school education. There is a disparity between the academic practices that Colleges of Education and Universities teach their students and the experiences students actually encounter as beginning teachers (Darling-Hamond, 2010). Wasserman (2007) confirms that her college teacher training did not prepare her for the realities of the overwhelming and exhausting human interactions and dilemmas that make up life in the classrooms. She recalled one professor in particular who repeatedly lectured students on the importance of remembering that all children were individuals with different abilities, hence the need to structure teaching to meet these differences. The current educational system in Ghana makes provision for all children with varying abilities and therefore requires teachers who are trained in the way that they can diversify their instructional procedures to meet the needs of all children in the classroom.

In today's world, education has become the principal means not only to bring about but also to keep up with this pervasive global transformation to be able to survive in fast-altering facets of the society. Being so substantial, educational variables such as teaching, learning, curriculum, and teachers are

1

also discussed and redefined in line with the requisites of the new era in which the education takes place. Among these variables, teachers have become leitmotif, since they are accepted as the most important and vital part of education with their roles of bringing up generations. This assent signifies that teachers' quality is undeniably crucial for societies and the type of curriculum they go through demonstrates it. Studies have established that the single most important school influence on student learning is the quality of the teacher.

In this respect, teachers' knowledge and classroom management skills are of great importance and broadly discussed by researchers and educators (Brophy & Good, 1986; Cruickshank, Jenkins, & Metcalf, 2009; Darling-Hammond, 2006a; Lasley, Siedentop, & Yinger, Senemoğlu, 2011; Tellez & Waxman, 2006). The characteristics of effective teachers are mentioned in literature and these include positive self-efficacy, effective classroom management skills, time management skills, global awareness, critical thinking, creativity, problem solving ability, effective use of information technology, environmental literacy, economic awareness, and knowledge in health. While all these characteristics, knowledge, skills, and abilities are expected from teachers, the general public in Ghana in recent times, complain about the quality of newly trained teachers and questions about the efficacy of the training programmes in teacher institutions has been raised. Agbenyega and Deku (2011) agree that in Ghana, many mainstream teachers show little confidence in inclusive education because they do not have the adequate experience to manage the academic and social needs of pupils with special education needs in an inclusive classroom.

Many countries are striving for providing quality teacher education and building powerful models for educating their future teachers. For example, in the United State of American and European countries, the standards, priorities, and expectations have been to set up standards for better teacher education, which the National Council of Teacher Education (2008) determine as professional dispositions, knowledge, skills, and assessment system, unit evaluation, field experiences and clinical practice, diversity, faculty qualifications, performance, development, unit governance and resources. Also, the Interstate New Teacher Assessment and Support Consortium Standards (INTASC, 2011) has provided the standards for the needed teacher and teacher education as learning environment, planning instruction, knowledge about subject matter, child development and learning theory, instructional strategies, communication, assessment, reflection and professional development, collaboration, ethics, and relationships.

Ghana is aiming at achieving Universal Primary Education for both boys and girls and ensure gender parity index of 1:1 (Millennium Development Goal 2&3), as well as converting all Basic schools in Ghana to be inclusive schools. As the country aims at achieving such targets, one key challenge observed is the issue of quality teachers to ensure quality education (Madeez, 2007). Nketsia (2013) was with the view that inadequate training of teachers is one of the major factors affecting the implementation of inclusive education in Ghana. This is because teachers are seen as the primary stakeholders of inclusive education and for that matter they must be trained to acquire the skills to function effectively in an inclusive classrooms (Deku & Vanderpuye 2017). As a result of inadequate training of teachers, it is believed

3

that many Ghanaian teachers have been found to be the greatest barriers to the education of persons with disabilities in the regular classrooms by labeling the pupils based on their condition instead of providing them with support that will help them to succeed in the classroom. Agbenyega (2003) indicated that disability labels are powerful tools, or weapons that teachers, parents and society use to suppress and exclude students with special educational need and disabilities. Consequently, most pupils with disabilities do not attend school at all or regularly, fail and are made to repeat their classes for several years and in the long-run they either dropout or are asked to leave the school by the school authorities (Agbenyega, 2003; Adera, 2007).

In Ghana, the bulk of pre-service teacher preparation for the basic school level is largely the responsibility of 46 public Colleges of Education. From the early 1990's, the Colleges of Education in Ghana introduced a course in Special Needs Education into the curriculum to provide teacher trainees with some knowledge and skills about special needs in classrooms (Ministry of Education, 2005).

Therefore, the preparation of general education teachers at pre-service and in-service levels should address the issue of education of all children with divers learning needs in the inclusive classroom, so that teachers are better equipped to work in inclusive settings. Some of the issues in teacher preparation that will have to be considered include: Classroom management skills, time management skills, academic preparations, self-efficacy, management skills for adapting the curriculum to cater for diversity, development of teaching-learning resources that are multi-sensory in nature and refocused use of assessment (Jorgensen, Schuh & Nisbet, 2005). For

4

effective teacher preparation towards inclusive education, programmes must inculcate in pre-service teacher an understanding and appreciation for diversity. This is because; research has shown that the general education classroom contains a range of learning needs (Hayford, 2007). Many individuals coming into pre-service training programmes have little or no exposure to special needs children. Exposing pre-service teachers to situations involving individuals who are able, and those who have different learning styles and needs can enhance the preparation of teachers for inclusive education. Schumm and Vaughn (1995), also add that teacher trainees need to mirror inclusive practices and respect for diversity in their classrooms. Consequently, they will be able to adapt and modify their curriculum and instructional strategies to meet the unique learning needs of all learners in an inclusive classroom.

In recent years, Colleges of Education in Ghana are required to ensure that pre-service teachers are trained to be competent to cater for the needs of an increasing range of diverse learners in the classroom. According to Foreman (2008), this move is being promoted by recent international recommendations from the United Nation (UN) and the United Nation Education, Scientific and Cultural Organisation (UNESCO) to include content on inclusion as part of teacher preparation programmes. It is believed that teachers' knowledge and belief about teaching and learning are the most influential factors if inclusive education can be successful. Teachers are key to educational transformation and school improvement and that, teachers do not merely implement the curriculum; they define, develop and interpret it too (Ainscow, 2005). It is what teachers know, think, believe and do in the

classroom that eventually shapes the kind of learning that their students acquire in the classroom.

Statement of the Problem

Every newly trained teacher must acquire the skills in classroom management, time management, academic skills as well as good perception of self-efficacy in order to be a successful teacher in the classroom. Teachers who lack these skills will not be able to influence learning substantially in their learners. Therefore, there is the need for the teachers to acquire these skills and it has become necessary for Colleges of Education to have what is required, in preparations of these teachers. The processes that teacher preparation programmes use to prepare teachers with pedagogy, content knowledge, and classroom management skills is a national concern, especially when paired with teachers' perception of efficacy (Buckner, 2011). There is concern among parents, educators, and policy makers regarding the quality of teacher preparation programmes in Ghana (Ministry of Education, 2015). The nation is experiencing a critical issue concerning the quality of teachers needed to meet demands of the nation (Ministry of Education, 2012). Many stakeholders of education have expressed concern on teachers' classroom management skills.

The researcher's practical experience with pre-service teachers during teaching practice sessions indicates that some teachers are unable to demonstrate proper classroom management skills, time management skills, and adequate knowledge on inclusive practices as well as perception of positive self-efficacy. In an interaction with Fumesua basic school teachers, they reported that they face many challenges when they make an attempt to

meet the diverse needs of all learners in the inclusive classroom. The question is, why are these teachers unable to demonstrate proper classroom management, time management and positive self-efficacy in inclusive schools? There are some studies in Ghana that address teacher preparation for effective inclusive education but these studies do not focus on classroom management. For example, Vanderpuye, Obosu and Nishimuko (2018) conducted a study on teachers' attitude and their perception about resources they need for the effective implementation of inclusive education. They concluded that teachers in Ghana have relatively positive attitudes towards inclusive education. In the same view, Brownell and Pajares (1999) also conducted a study on teachers' knowledge on inclusive education and concluded that teachers' knowledge about inclusive education and disability is low. Gyimah and Amoako (2016) also found out that pre-service teachers know the assessment procedures to identify children with special educational needs and disability.

It is evident in the literature that studies have been conducted on the other variables in relation to teacher preparations for inclusive education in Ghana but not on the classroom management, time management and self-efficacy. However, these are essential skills teachers need to acquire to enable them function effectively in an inclusive classroom. Studies indicate that there is positive relationship between self-efficacy and teacher effectiveness in inclusive classroom. Weisel and Dror (2006) discovered that teachers who have positive self-efficacy are effective in classroom management and are able to achieve their instructional objectives. Nel and Savolainen (2011) also conducted a study on teachers' self-efficacy in South Africa and concluded

that there is positive relationship between teachers' self-efficacy and their effectiveness in an inclusive classroom. It is on this basis that this study seeks to examine the knowledge on inclusive practices, classroom management skills, time management and perception of efficacy of teachers in relation to the type of teacher preparation programme they receive during their initial pre-service training. Since research data suggest that with no proper assessments, guidelines and policies for teacher preparation programmes, teacher preparedness and school-level indicators of learning achievement could be lowered (Coggshall, Rasmussen, Colton, Milton, & Jacques, 2012).

Purpose of the Study

The main purpose of the study was to examine the influence of teacher preparation programme on teachers' classroom management, time management and self-efficacy in inclusive schools**.** Specifically, the study sought to:

1. Investigate how teachers are knowledgeable about inclusive practices.

2. Investigate how teachers effectively manage their inclusive classrooms effectively.

3. Find out the teachers employ skills to manage time effectively in inclusive classrooms.

4. Investigate the level of self-efficacy of teachers in inclusive classrooms.

5. Find out how initial teacher preparation programme has made teachers effective in inclusive schools.

6. Elicit suggestions (from teachers) on the improvement of teacher preparation programme for inclusive education in Ghana.

8

7. Determine whether there is significant relationship between teachers' knowledge on inclusive practices and their classroom management skills.

8. Determine whether there is significant relationship between teachers' knowledge about inclusive practices and their time management skills.

9. Determine whether there is significant relationship between teachers' knowledge about inclusive practices and their self-efficacy.

10. Find out whether there is significant mean difference among teachers' programme specialisation and their classroom management skills.

11. Determine whether there is significant mean difference between gender and teachers' self-efficacy.

Research Questions

The following research questions were formulated to guide the study:

1. How does teacher preparation programme equip teachers with knowledge on inclusive practices?

2. How does teacher preparation programme train teachers to have the skills to manage inclusive classroom effectively?

3. How does teacher preparation programme train teachers to manage time effectively in inclusive classrooms?

4. What is the level of teachers' self-efficacy in their inclusive classrooms?

5. How does teacher preparation programme help teachers to be effective in inclusive schools?

6. What suggestions can be made to improve teacher preparation programmes at Colleges of Education for effective inclusive education?

Research Hypotheses

1. *H0*: There is no statistically significant relationship between teachers' knowledge on inclusive practices and their classroom management skills.

   H1: There is statistically significant relationship between teachers' knowledge on inclusive practices and their classroom management skills.

2. .*H0*: There is no statistically significant relationship between teachers' knowledge about inclusive practices and their time management skills

   H1: There is statistically significant relationship between teachers' knowledge on inclusive practices and their time management skills.

3. *H0*: There is no statistically significant relationship between teachers' knowledge about inclusive practices and their self-efficacy.

   H1: There is statistically significant relationship between teachers' knowledge about inclusive practices and their self-efficacy in inclusive schools.

4. *H0*: There is no statistically significant difference between the programme specialisation of teachers and their classroom management skills.

   H1: There is statistically significant difference between programme specialization of teachers and their classroom management skills.

5. *H0*: There is no statistically significant difference between in self-efficacy of teachers with respect to their gender.

   H1: There is statistically significant difference in self-efficacy of teachers with respect to their gender.

10

Significance of the Study

To promote inclusive education in Ghana as a government policy, teacher preparation is one of the critical issues that can guide policy framework. It is therefore expected that the results emanating from this study would reveal teachers' perceptions about the adequacy or otherwise of the programme of study in preparing teachers towards inclusive education. The findings of this study would also improve inclusive education practices in the country so that children with special educational needs and disabilities would benefit from quality education and be able to develop their potentials to the fullest.

The results of the study would bring to the fore what Government of Ghana, National Council for Tertiary Education (NCTE), Institute of Education, and Principals Conference (PRINCOF) what needs to be done to equip Colleges of Education in Ghana to effectively prepare teachers towards inclusive education. Finally, the results of the study would add information to the body of literature available in Ghana, in relation to teacher preparation towards inclusive education.

Delimitation

Even though there are sixteen regions in Ghana, the study focused on Ashanti region only. Ashanti Region was chosen for this study because it is one of the regions in Ghana where the pilot inclusive education started. It is also considered as one of the biggest region in Ghana with many teachers teaching in the basic schools. Also, the study was delimited in terms of participation of respondents to only teachers who had taught between one to five years in inclusive schools in Ghana. The study focused on only teachers

with 1 to 5 years teaching experience because the researcher intended to elicit information from those who have completed college not long ago. They are the key recipients of the curriculum of Colleges of Education in Ghana. The study only explored the impact of teacher preparation programme on teachers' knowledge, classroom management, time management and self-efficacy of teachers. These are essential ingredients for successful teaching in inclusive schools in Ghana.

Limitations

According to Best and Kahn (1998), limitations are conditions beyond the control of the researcher that may place restrictions on the conclusions of the study and their application to other situations. The instrument used for the study was a self-report measure and for that matter, respondents could give responses that might not reflect the actual situation on the ground. Again, using Ashanti Region only as a study area did not help the researcher to cover a wider area for the study. The sampling techniques did not allow every teacher the opportunity to participate in the study. This implies that the findings of the study are not representative enough to be generalised.

Operational Definition of Terms

An understanding of terminology that was applied in this study is necessary to the interpretation of this study. The following section defines relevant terms as they apply to this study.

Teachers: Teachers are those who have gone through the pre-service preparation programme at the College of Education and have not taught for more than five years.

Perception: It refers to the way teachers teaching in inclusive schools in Ashante Region think about something, phenomenon or an event and their idea of what it is like.

Children with Special Educational Needs: These are children who, for whatever reasons, are failing to benefit from the regular schools and therefore need special education services.

Disability: It refers to the loss or greatly reduced ability to perform a function or some functions due to damage or loss of body part or organ.

Inclusion: It is a concept that explains the type of education in which children with special educational needs and disabilities take a full and active part in school-life, be a valued member of a school community and be seen as an integral member, irrespective of one's ability or disability. That is, educating pupils with disabilities with their non-disabled peers in regular education classroom.

Inclusive School: It refers to "a place where everyone belongs, is accepted, supported, and is supported by his or her peers and other members of the school community in the course of having his or her educational needs met" (Stainback & Stainback, 1990, p.118).

College of Education: An institution that prepares and trains teachers for basic schools

Teacher Preparation: It is all the provisions and training that pre-service teachers receive in order to get the professional qualification in teaching.

Organisation of the Study

The study was organised under five chapters. The first chapter dealt with the background to the study, the statement of problem, purpose of the

13

study, research questions, significance of the study, delimitation, and limitation of the study, operational definition of terms and organisation of the study. The second chapter is a review of related literature in three perspectives, namely, theoretical, conceptual and empirical. Chapter three discusses the methodologies used for the study. They are the research design, population, sampling procedure, research instrumentation, data collection procedure and data analysis procedure. The fourth chapter deals with the results and discussion of the investigation and the final chapter has to do with summary, conclusions and recommendations of the study.
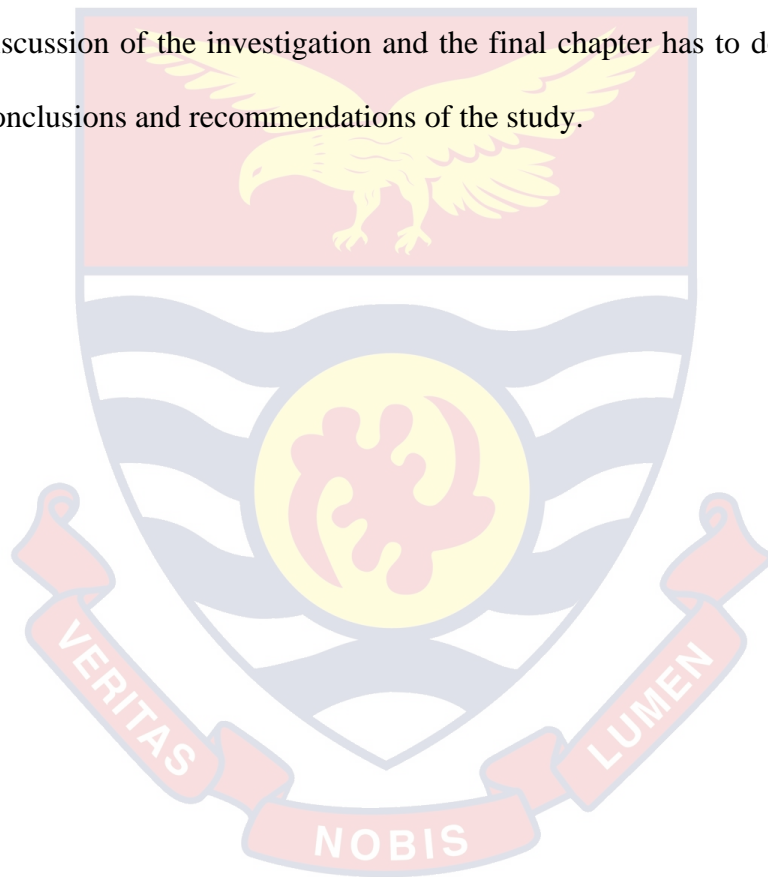
CHAPTER TWO

LITERATURE REVIEW

This chapter presents the related literature on the topic under consideration. It was reviewed in three sections: Theoretical review, conceptual framework and empirical review. The theoretical aspect of the review presents concepts and some theories related to teacher preparation and classroom management. The second part gives a composite picture of the study and explains how the variables in the study are related. The third section is on the empirical studies on teacher preparation for inclusive education.

Theoretical Review

The theoretical framework for this study is the teacher behaviour continuum by Wolfgang and Glickman (1980) and the Model for Inclusive Teacher Preparation. According to the teacher behaviour continuum of Wolfgang and Glickman, instructional and behavioral classroom management can be conceptualised as interventionist, non-interventionist, and interactionalist (Lanoue, 2009; Martin & Sass, 2010).

Traditionally, classroom management has focused on discipline as the foundation for behavioural and instructional management. McArthur (2002) indicates that educators have long understood that behaviour issues can affect the classroom environment. Rosas and West (2009) report, "Classroom management is an understandable concern for teachers, particularly given the fact that schools are expected to provide a safe, orderly environment and that

teachers are accountable for students' academic achievement"(p.86).   To better understand classroom management, Wolfgang and Glickman (1980) developed a classroom management model that is expressed as a continuum from interventionist to non-interventionists, with interactionalist in-between (Wolfgang & Glickman, 1980).

Interventionist	—	Non- Interventionist	—	Interactionalist

Figure 1: Classroom Management Teacher Behviour Continuum of Wolfgang and Glickman (1980).

In the context of this theoretical framework, interventionists react to student behaviour with consequences, while non-interventionists, rather than react to students' behaviour, plan their environment to proactively facilitate the classroom. Interactionalists seek to utilise the best aspects of interventionists and non-interventionists classroom management (Lanoue, 2009; Martin & Sass, 2010; Wolfgang & Glickman1980). These three classroom management approaches are reviewed below, including the important historical figures aligned with aspects of interventionist, non-interventionist, and interactionalist approaches to classroom management.

Interventionist Classroom Management

Interventionist classroom managers seek to manage the classroom by intervening to shape student behaviour with consequences. Many psychologists such as Skinner, Bandura, Dreikurs, and Canter have provided unique contributions to the present understanding of interventionist classroom management. Skinner's Behaviour Management approach focused on consequences for behaviour. He believed that behaviour is shaped by the

16

consequences that follow an individual's actions. In 1974, his book, "About Behaviorism," Skinner stated, "Behaviorism is not the science of human behaviour; it is the philosophy of that science" (p.3). According to Skinner, reinforcements can increase desired behaviour and decrease unwanted behaviour. Types of reinforcements could be social, graphic, tangible, or an activity (Andrius, 2012). Skinner (1974) wrote, *"Everything we know about operant conditioning is relevant to making behaviour more or less likely to occur upon a given occasion. This is the traditional field of rewards and punishment, but much sharper distinctions can be made in taking advantage of what we know about contingencies of reinforcement" (p.181).*

According to American Heritage Dictionary (2009), Operant conditioning of behavior is a process of behavior modification in which the likelihood of a specific behavior is increased or decreased through positive or negative reinforcement each time the behaviour is exhibited, so that the subject comes to associate the pleasure or displeasure of the reinforcement with the behavior.

Skinner (1974) implied that a teacher can control the classroom environment through instantaneous reinforcement. These reinforcements can come in positive (special opportunities, celebrations, candy) and negative (loss of opportunities, office referrals, in school suspension, out of school suspension) forms to create an environment where each student works productively. In this concluding statements, Skinner (1974) states that "…problems can be solved, even the big ones, if those who are familiar with the details will also adopt a workable conception of human behaviour" (p.251). From Skinner's perspective, the student's behaviour can be shaped

by consequences. However, a classroom has more than one student at a time, and learning can occur vicariously. To extend the behaviorist understanding of how learning takes place, a social learning theory was needed.

Albert Bandura as a result, developed the Social Learning Theory. He built it around the view that people learn appropriate and inappropriate behaviours from each other. Bandura's (1986, 1997) view was that students learn through their perceptions and imitations of certain behaviours demonstrated by parents, teachers, or other students. He believed that, as behaviours were exhibited, individuals would emulate one another (Bandura, 1993). This theory has important implications for classroom management. People acquire a self-efficacy or a self-belief system, which allows them to possess control of their thoughts, actions, inspiration, drive, and feelings throughout various levels of life.

Bandura (1997) characterised self-efficacy as the beliefs in one's capability to organize and execute the courses of action required to manage prospective situations. Social Learning Theory, according to Bandura, also emphasizes the importance of student perceptions in the learning process with an emphasis on the idea that people frequently acquire knowledge, rules, skills, strategies, beliefs, and attitudes by watching others (Bandura, 1986).

Social learning is important in classrooms. According to Bandura (1997), self-efficacy persuades the choices people make because a person's experiences and learning from others are the groundwork through which they reveal their behaviour. "Efficacy beliefs are the foundation of human agency. Unless people believe they can produce desired results and forestall detrimental ones by their actions, they have little incentive to act or to

18

persevere in the face of difficulties" (Bandura, 2001, p. 10). Bandura (1997) offeres "triadic reciprocal causation" as an identifier for justifying how one's personal behaviour and uniqueness, along with the 28 surrounding environment, work together to make people both products and producers in their environments (Bandura, 1997). This triadic reciprocal causation is the interaction between thought, influence, and action (Bandura, 1997) in what people believe, think, and experience which determine how they behave (Bandura, 1986; Bower, 1975; Neisser, 1976). Efficacy believe that what a person possesses regarding skills, influence his / her actions in the present and future.

Bandura's theory is the foundation for classroom management strategies that centre on the idea that students learn from each other and that teachers can shape students' behaviour by influencing them to realise that they have the power to change. While Bandura's Social Learning Theory shows how students can learn from the consequences of others, which extended the views of behaviourists like Skinner and Dreikurs (1991) show how interventionalist classroom management can occur in the absence of rewards and punishments by focusing on logical consequences of classroom behaviour.

Rudolf Dreikurs

Dreikurs (1991) developed a social method of classroom discipline. "Dreikurs had four behavioural goals: attention, power, revenge and avoidance of failure. Dreikurs did not believe in the use of punishment, reinforcement or praise. Instead, he believed that natural/logical consequences (directly tied to misbehaviour, involve moral judgments, among others.) and the process of encouragement are the most useful techniques for preventing discipline

problems. (Gurcan & Tekin, n.d., p.6). Dreikurs (1991) believed that students needed to be taught in democratic classroom. Teachers should be warm, friendly, and kind, while at the same time remaining firm. "As the teacher learns to talk less, act more and respect students as individuals with enormous potential she can then teach in a co-operative atmosphere where students are willing to learn and discipline problems are minimal" (Dreikurs & Cassel, 1991, p. 43)

According to this cognitive theory, if students understand the logical consequences of their behaviour, they are more likely to act in a manner that is compatible with the goals of the classroom. Interventionists can be behaviourists like Skinner, or social learning theorists like Bandura, or cognitivists like Dreikurs, in that they all foster methods to intervene with perceived consequences. In addition to these, Canter contributes assertiveness to interventionist classroom management.

Lee Canter

Canter (1976) promoted the reactive interventionist discipline method. Canter and Canter (1976) created and published the Assertive Discipline Plan for classroom management. When consulting for school systems, they found that many teachers were unable to control undesirable behaviour that occurred in the classrooms (Canter & Canter, 1993). The assertive discipline method was more for teachers to execute a discipline plan geared at eliminating behavioural problems. According to Canter and Canter (1993), "Assertive teachers believe that a firm, teacher-in-charge of classroom is in the best interests of students. They believed that the students wish to have their behaviour directed by the teacher" (p.1).   The Canters' viewpoints and

practices have changed along with society, educational trends and demands pushed down from the head leaders in the state as well as Federal Educational Departments. Just as Skinner (1974) recommended the usage of positive and negative reinforcement to alter the classroom environment and instill purpose, Canter and Canter believed in the utilisation of rewards and consequences to stimulate students to make suitable choices.

The Canters (2006) proposed methods to be used for improving academic success for all students by establishing a positive learning environment. They believed that all of this could be accomplished by developing and maintaining relationships between the students and the teachers (Canters, 2006). In order for teachers to be effective classroom managers, they are to possess the following abilities to implement rules, follow procedures, and have positive expectations for their students. One area of the Canter's classroom management approach that is positive was the idea of motivating students far past their individual potential. Canter and Canter (2001) think that teachers should be proactive in terms of creating a functional learning environment and teachers who desire to create this type of learning environment must donate the same consideration and planning as they devote to their teaching.

Canter and Canter (1976) in their work, discuss several benefits of executing an assertive management plan within their classroom. Some of the benefits of implementing this type of management plan are consistency and confidence of the teacher. Essentially, teachers usually lean towards using techniques that prevent any type of behavioural issues or problems. Good and Trophy (1984) in connection with this, reported that many teachers felt their

21

worth as a teacher was directly related to their success of implementation of classroom management skills

Assertive/reactive discipline is geared more toward teachers developing a reward system, which consists of positive and negative consequences based on the student's behaviour. The original model states that teachers are to write students' names on the board when a violation occurred and a punishment would be given (Canter & Canter, 1976). Needless to say, that model has been discarded and replaced with keeping names in a journal or record book. This eliminates embarrassment and protects teachers from violating privacy acts. The Canter system created a real downside in that teachers were expected to use a reward system for behaviours that were expected but never were these linked to real life experiences. According to 'No Child Left Behind,' teachers are to develop strategies that are genuine to real life experiences (U. S. Department of Education, 2008).Unfortunately, Canter and Canter did not develop any other type of discipline methods or practices that were assertive discipline methods. Their primary belief was that if teachers use disciplinary action to control their students, then a well behaved environment would occur in the classroom (Canter & Canter, 1992). They believed that responsible behaviour should be taught, but the educator's expectations must also be taught and re-taught with the same rigour as an academic lesson (Canter & Canter, 2001).

The interventionist classroom management approach is reactive in nature, providing consequences for student actions (Skinner, 1974), which may help others learn by observation (Bandura, 1997). Further, logical consequences can be as powerful as rewards and punishments (Dreikurs,

22

1991) and interventionists can be assertive (Canter & Canter, 1992). However, the interventionist classroom management approach has limitations. For example, interventionists are, in general, reactive rather than proactive. Student behaviour drives the classroom and the teacher can become a full time disciplinarian rather than a teacher. According to Churchward (2009), "Once a teacher gets caught in the reactive mode, classroom problems seem to multiply" (p.1). Rather than react to students' actions, non-interventionist classroom managers should take a proactive approach.

Noninterventionist Classroom Management

Non-interventionist (proactive) classroom management is geared towards planning ahead to extinguish any behavioural issues before they occur in the classroom. The non-interventionist management can be more constructive than the interventionist strategy and should lead to positive behaviour and the development of self-discipline, thus, the learners' moral behaviour (Erasmus, 2009).

The non-interventionist may post rules in the classroom, discuss correct ways to act in the classroom, and praise good behaviour. Some of the popular proponents of the proactive (non-interventionist) theory are Rogers, Kounin, and Wong. A brief overview of the philosophy and unique contribution of each of these noninterventionist (proactive) classroom management pioneers are follows.

Carl Rogers

Research for Teachers (2008) highlighted Carl Rogers's beliefs on classroom management. "He believed that teachers should "seek to create emotionally warm and supportive environments in which they worked

23

collaboratively with their students to achieve mutual goals" (Research for Teachers, 2008, p. 1). According to Ganly (2010), another proponent of non-interventionist management, which is reinforcement, is a positive way to discipline students, and it is a helpful tool in the goal of classroom management.

Rogers believes in experiential learning, along with self-actualization (Research for Teachers, 2008). Rogers thinks that if teachers were real, praised their students, showed empathy and understanding, then classroom management issues would be obsolete. Kounin (1970) contributed the "ripple effect of discipline" to non-interventionist (proactive) management. He conducted a study over the course of five years to determine how a teacher's method of handling the misbehavior of one child influences other children who are audiences to the event but not themselves as targets. After watching thousands of hours of videotapes, he was able to discover a teacher's classroom management skills affecting student behaviour in the class. The researcher identified various techniques associated with effective teaching such as, demonstrating to the students that the teacher is aware of everything happening in the classroom and that they have the ability to deal with multiple situations at one time, and can deal with small behaviours immediately. Kounin ended his book by concluding that, "one might say that a mastery of group management techniques enables a teacher to be free from concern about management" (p. 145).

Harry Wong

In "How to Be an Effective Teacher: The First Days of School" (Wong, 1998), He listed four characteristics which a well-managed classroom possesses. These include students involved with their work, especially with academic, teacher-led instruction; students always know what is expected of them and they tend to be successful; there is very little time off task such as wasted and disruption, the classroom environment is work oriented along with being pleasant and relaxed.

Kizlik (2009) commented on the importance of using appropriate effective praise versus ineffective praise. He explains that one should monitor his or her praise to ensure wanted behaviours (Kizlik, 2009). For the most part, the Wongs recommend that teachers establish procedures and teach them to students using a three-step approach (Wong & Wong, 1998). They believe that being effective means the teacher has an assignment the minute the students enter the classroom. According to White (2006), Wong's beliefs about the classroom are more focused on curriculum and Wong's philosophy is definitely not one for play in the learning environment. Instead, it is more geared towards the students working and producing at all times. As a matter of fact, the Wongs suggest that teachers explain all classroom rules, procedures, and consequences to students (Wong & Wong, 1998). They believe in teacher readiness, meeting students, seating plan, and immediate feedback. Their belief is led by the three most important student behaviours: discipline, procedures, and routines.

However, Wong and Wong (1998) recommend that all educators make the appropriate changes to their classroom management method in order to

meet the individual needs of each classroom. They rationalized that efficient classroom management generates an environment that is a safe and productive learning environment for all stakeholders (Wong & Wong, 1998).

The non-interventionist approach to classroom management focuses on proactive rather than the reactive strategies of the Interventionists. However, it is possible that optimal classroom management may include both proactive and reactive approaches. This approach is called Interactionalist classroom management,

Interactionalist Classroom Management

The interactionalist classroom management style is a combination of non-interventionist and interventionist styles. Glasser was the major proponent of this management technique. Glasser's (1997) beliefs are based on his two theories: Reality Theory and Choice Theory. Choice Theory allows opportunities for students and teachers to understand their individual behavioural differences. Changes and accommodations are made in the classroom once the teacher recognises how the students would like to be treated.

In Reality Theory, redirection of misbehaviour is tackled by employing logical consequences, such as individual improvement plans for students, teacher/student conferences, and providing ways for students to evaluate their own behaviour. Ritter and Hancock (2007), define the interactionalist, like Glasser (1997), as believing that students learn from interacting with peers in their environments. Interactionalists have a shared classroom management strategy versus interventionist and noninterventionist.

26

William Glasser: Based on Glasser's (1997) Reality and Choice Theories, insight in changing of misbehaviour by means of logical consequences and conditioning would assist classroom management techniques used in the classroom setting. "Choice theory teaches that we are all driven by four psychological needs embedded in our genes: The need to belong, the need for power, the need for freedom, and the need for fun" (Glasser, 1997, p.17). Basically, Choice Theory presents opportunities for teachers and students to recognise the individual behavioural differences of others. In the course of these opportunities, modification and adjustments occur in the classroom due to teachers realising and understanding how their students desire to be treated in order for students to place teachers into their personal worlds. When teachers and students display optimistic attitudes, classroom management becomes easier. By itself, Choice Theory concept has grown into being used as a strategy employed as a behaviour management technique in classrooms today. Based on Glasser (1986, 1997), Reality Theory includes the re-direction of misbehaviour using logical consequences, which includes an array of factors needed to meet the basic needs of students: teachers indicating to students they care and possess a personal interest, teacher/student conferences, offering students ways to evaluate their own behaviour, along with accepting responsibility, and creating improvement plans for individual students. In support of the interactionalist approach to classroom management, Lanoue (2009) shows that interactionalist beliefs can be trained in teachers, with the belief that interactionalist classroom management is superior to Interventionist or noninterventionist approaches to classroom management in fostering student outcomes.

27

In summary, while interventionists are generally reactive in providing consequences for student behaviour, non-interventionists are generally proactive in providing learning environments that bypass negative student behaviours, and interactionalists manage their classroom with a combination of interventionist and non-interventionist approaches. Each of these philosophies promises superior student outcomes.

Model for Inclusive Teacher Preparation

Many researchers such as Schumm and Vaughn (1995); Giangreco, Dennis, Cloninger, Edelman, and Schattman (1993) have noted the lack of professional training in inclusive techniques and practices for general and special education teachers. Many professionals in education do not have the requisite skills needed to function effectively in the inclusive classroom and therefore pose a lot of challenges to the development and implementation of inclusive education in the country. If teacher education programmes are to prepare educators to be successful in the classrooms of the future, they must re-conceptualize and redesign their approach to pre-service preparation of teachers. In preparation of pre-service teachers for inclusive education, Schumm and Vaughn (1995) stated that the most effective teaching strategy used in preparing pre-service teachers towards inclusive education is incorporated in the inclusive teacher preparation model.

This model is a proposed model for developing and implementing an inclusive teacher preparation programme for inclusive education. It has two major dimensions. The specific programme components and the outcomes of the model as shown on the diagram below.

COMPONENTS

```
┌─────────────────┐      OUTCOME              ┌──────────────┐
│ Collaborative   │                           │ An Inclusive │
│ Teaching        │   Understanding Diversity │ Teacher      │
├─────────────────┤                           │ Preparation  │
│ Techniques &    │   Adapting to Change      │ Program      │
│ Strategies      │                           │              │
├─────────────────┤   Flexibility/Creativity  └──────────────┘
│ Collaborative   │
│ Experiences     │
└─────────────────┘
```
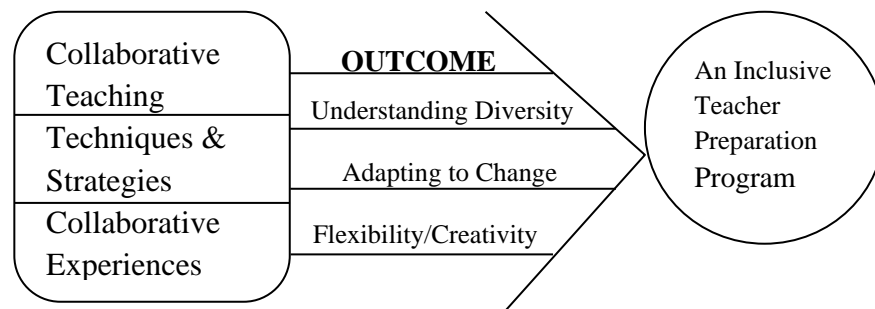
Figure 2: An inclusive teacher preparation model

Source: Schumm and Vaughn (1995).

This model provides a framework for developing and implementing a teacher education programme that will prepare teachers to teach in inclusive educational settings. There are two major dimensions of the model. One deals with the outcomes of the model and the other focuses on specific programme components.

Programme Outcomes

To be effective, an inclusive teacher preparation programme must instill in the pre-service teacher an understanding and appreciation of diversity. Teachers must be trained to understand that learners come to the learning environment with diverse learning needs and that these needs must be met to enable them succeed in the inclusive classroom. In general, most educators, which include teacher educators, have not had a great deal of experience in teaching students with diverse needs and abilities. This is due to the fact that they had no prior knowledge in special educational issues. Many individuals coming into pre-service training programmes have had limited experiences with children with special educational needs and disabilities. Exposing pre-service teachers early and often to situations involving

29

individuals who are uniquely able and those who have different learning styles and needs can help them to develop the professional skills to assist every child in the classroom. Pre-service teachers also need to mirror inclusive practices and accommodate diversity in their classrooms. Most teachers have little knowledge in addressing diversity in the classroom. Expanding their knowledge level is essential if teachers are to be successful in addressing the wide range of diverse abilities present in today's classrooms.

Pre-service teachers must also be ready to accept change and they must learn early in their preparation to be flexible and creative. In Ghana, our educational system has undergone tremendous changes and these changes will continue in the future. One of the biggest roadblocks to inclusion however has been the inability of many educators to shift from one operational paradigm to another (Skrtic, 1986). Since we do not know the types of situations and challenges that will face teachers in the coming decades, we must prepare them adequately so that they can adapt to changes that may occur in the inclusive classroom. To do this successfully, they must also have the ability to be flexible and creative in meeting these challenges and solving problems. This can be accomplished by providing experiences that require prospective teachers to develop creative problem-solving skills and to view situations from different perspectives.

Programme Components

As shown in Figure 2, there are three major components that constitute the supports for this model. These components are; the collaborative teaching, techniques and strategies, and collaborative experiences. The collaborative teaching is concerned with the instructional approach used in the classroom. If

30

Colleges of Education are to prepare pre-service teachers to teach collaboratively, they must utilise this model in their pre-service preparation classes. The diagram (see Figure 3) shows the collaborative teaching model.

```
┌─────────────────┐          ┌─────────────────────────┐
│ Collaborative   │          │ Co-Teaching             │
│ Teaching Model  │ ───────▶ │ Collaborative Planning  │
└─────────────────┘          │ Cooperative Learning    │
                             │ Integrated Curriculum   │
                             │ Integrated Activities   │
                             │ Collaborative Evaluation│
                             │ Group Process Skills    │
                             └─────────────────────────┘
```
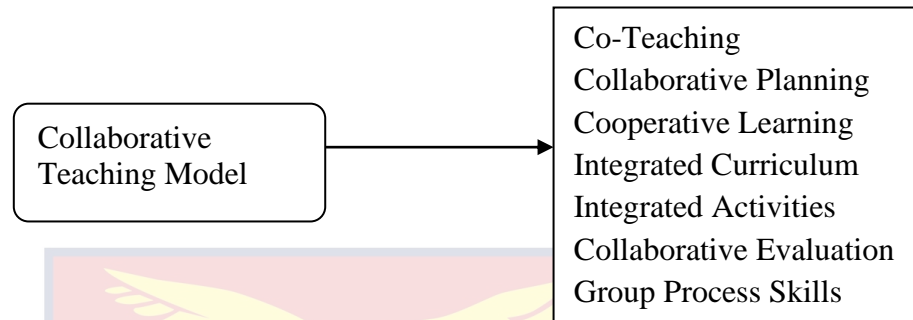
Figure 3: Using the collaborative teaching model

Source: Schumm and Vaughn (1995)

As indicated in Figure 3, there are a number of ways the collaborative teaching model can be accomplished. According to Schumm and Vaughn (1995), teacher educators can co-teach classes, modeling for their students collaborative teaching skills. This can be done with general and special education faculty, as well as with faculties of other disciplines outside education. Collaborative planning for classes and collaborative evaluation of students can also be used as a means of demonstrating how such practices can be done effectively. Such approaches as collaborative learning arrangements and activities requiring students to develop and practice group process skills can also be utilised in the classrooms. Finally, college tutors should integrate curriculum objectives as well as instructional activities across classes and across disciplines.

```
┌─────────────────────┐                    ┌──────────────────────────────┐
│                     │                    │ Accommodation                │
│ Techniques and      │  ───────────────▶  │   -   Curriculum             │
│ Strategies          │                    │   -   Activities             │
│                     │                    │   -   Evaluation             │
└─────────────────────┘                    │ Effective Practices          │
                                            │ Modifying Materials          │
                                            │ Resources and Supports       │
                                            │ Instructional Arrangements   │
                                            └──────────────────────────────┘
```
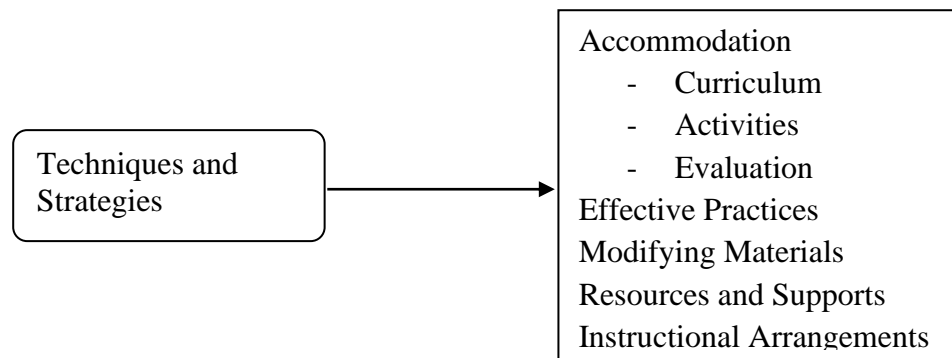
Figure 4: Techniques and strategies for inclusive education

Source: Schumm and Vaughn (1995)

As shown in Figure 4, this component involves techniques and strategies for inclusive education. Teachers who are expected to teach in settings with children who have diverse learning needs must have the instructional tools to do so successfully. Instead of spending a huge amount of money and resources on in-service training to give teachers instructional skills to teach students with diverse needs, these resources and monies could be directed elsewhere if teachers could be prepared adequately during their training session they will emerge from their pre-service training possessing those skills.

Pre-service teacher preparation programmes should address appropriate accommodations in curriculum, instructional activities and evaluation procedures. Again, the modification of materials, and the effective identification, development and utilization of resources must also be considered. In addition, the pre-service programme should prepare pre-service teachers to use various types of instructional arrangements such as multi-level teaching, cooperative learning and peer tutoring (Schumm & Vaughn, 1995).

32

```
┌─────────────────┐              ┌──────────────────────┐
│                 │              │ Multiple Experiences │
│ Collaborative   │─────────────▶│ Practicum            │
│ Experiences     │              │ Student Teaching     │
│                 │              │ Simulation           │
└─────────────────┘              │ Role Playing         │
                                 │ Field-Based          │
                                 │ Inclusion Models     │
                                 └──────────────────────┘
```
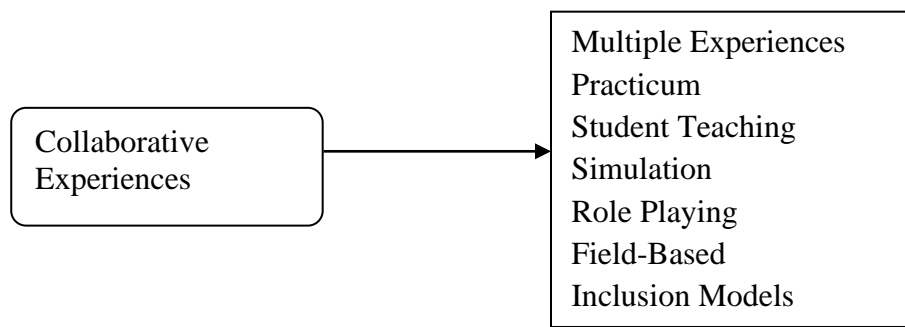
Figure 5: Providing collaborative experiences to pre-service teacher

Source: Schumm and Vaughn (1995)

This component of an inclusive teacher preparation model relates to collaborative experiences. It states that the prospective teacher should be given the opportunity to observe and work in collaborative, and in inclusive settings. This requires that the pre-service preparation should include multiple opportunities for the prospective teacher to observe and work in actual classrooms where inclusive practices are being implemented. In addition to this, pre-service teachers should also participate in other activities in the school that promote inclusive practices. This includes collaborative planning and problem solving activities, as well as curriculum adaptations and modifications.

If Colleges of Education in Ghana are to prepare teachers to teach effectively in inclusive classroom, they must mirror inclusive practices in their teacher preparation programmes by considering the model for inclusive teacher preparation. This model would equip the prospective teacher with the required knowledge, skills and experiences needed for successful inclusion. The use of this model in the preparation of pre-service teachers would help to train teachers who are endowed with the expertise to create learning environment that is accessible to all learners and capable of accommodating every child's learning needs in the classroom.

33

The teacher preparation model seems to share similar views with the social model of disability. They both recognize the importance of creating enabling environment that respect diversity. The social model of disability views disability as a consequence of environmental, social and attitudinal barriers that prevent people with impairments from participating fully in all activities that take place in the social environment. Under this model, disability is caused by the society in which we live and not the fault of an individual with disability, or an inevitable consequence of their limitations. Disability is the product of the physical, organisational and attitudinal barriers present within society, which lead to stereotyping and discrimination. To remove this phenomenon, it requires a change of approach and thinking in the way in which society is organized.

According to Oliver (1990), the genesis, development and articulation of the social model of disability by persons with disability themselves is the rejection of the personal tragedy theory that suggests that disability is some terrible chance event, which occurs at random to unfortunate individuals. Oliver maintains that this model does not deny the problem of disability but locates it squarely within society. According to Oliver, disability is a result of the society's failure to provide appropriate services and adequately ensure that the needs of persons with disabilities are adequately taken into account in its social organisation. The proponents of the model further contend that the consequences of these failures do not simply and randomly fall on the individuals but systematically fall upon the persons with disabilities as a group who experiences this failure as discrimination institutionalised throughout the country.

34

What this model seems to indicate is that disability is real and normal and it is not something reserved for some particular or unfortunate people. It can happen to anybody at any point in life. The problems that persons with disabilities face in their daily routines of life emanate from society. In the planning and organization of societal structures, the unique needs of persons with disabilities are not taken into account. Public infrastructures such as road, building, hospitals and schools are provided without due consideration for persons with disabilities who are also legitimate members of the society and therefore have entitlement to uninhibited use of public facilities.

Low (1997) supported Oliver's position by saying that if a person with disability is disadvantaged, it has nothing to do with their characteristics. Rather, it has to do with the discriminatory arrangements created by the society, which do not adequately accommodate the needs of persons with disabilities. This author again emphasized that the challenges that persons with disabilities face in their societies have no linkage with their traits. It is the inadequate plans and preparations put in place by the society that creates such problems. Supporting the assertion of Oliver (1990) and Low (1997), Tassoni (2003) states that the social model of disability on the other hand reflects a new attitude towards people with impairments. The model considers primarily that persons with disabilities are people who have rights and these rights must be respected by the society.

The social model of disability looks to empower people as it emphasizes on their rights to make choices and to live an independent life in the society. It also puts a challenge on the society to become more inclusive so that persons with disabilities are not seen as being problems or burden to

35

society or individuals who need   pity. According to Tassoni (2003), the social model of disability sees some terminologies such as mental retardation and wheelchair bound as unhelpful. They instead suggest terms such as intellectual disability and wheelchair user as preferred terminologies. Ash, Bellew and Davis (1997) commented that the social model of disability sees disability as a social construct. Individuals who have impairments become disabled because society has created barriers for them as a result of their impairments.

In support of the foregoing, Avoke (2005), argued that people with impairments were disabled by a social system that erected barriers to their participation. He further explains that it is the social barriers which create disability, and that the difficulties in living as a person with disability is due to discrimination and prejudices rather than the impairment. The barriers that prevent any individual from playing a part in society are the problem, not the individual. There are so many barriers that exist in our societies that create disability for persons with impairment. These barriers are found in areas such as education, information and communication systems, banking facilities, working environments, health and social support services, transport, housing, public buildings and amenities. The devaluing of individuals with disability through negative images in the media such as films, television and newspapers also serve as a barrier. The social model has been developed with the aim of removing these barriers so that individuals with disabilities will have the same opportunities as everyone else to determine their own life styles (WHO, 1980). To achieve this, advocates of the social model argue that inclusive education must be intensified. They further state that inclusive education encourages personal and social relationships and attitudes that promote acceptance and

support for persons with impairment and remove all forms of prejudices and discriminations within society. It is therefore imperative to call on Colleges of Education in Ghana to prepare pre-service teachers to acquire the necessary skills, knowledge and competencies needed to remove these barriers to create access, opportunity and participation for all children in an inclusive classroom to enable them develop their potentials to the fullest.

Relevance of the Social Model of Disability to this Study

The model is relevant to this study when considering the perceptions of tutors of Colleges of Education in Ghana on pre-service teacher preparation for Inclusive Education because it explains clearly that it is society's perceptions, attitudes and prejudices that create disabilities for persons. It creates the understanding that several barriers exist in our social environment which impede the development of individuals with impairment. They prevent them from accessing public facilities in the society and therefore create disability for them. It is therefore a clarion call for society to remove barriers and impediments that prevent individuals with special educational needs and disabilities from achieving their full potentials. Teachers are therefore to advocate for facilities like school buildings, transport, roads and hospital that are disability friendly.

Prospective teachers can champion for the rights of persons with disabilities and advocate effectively for them only when they are equipped with inclusive orientation during their pre-service preparation stage. The model therefore, supports that teachers must be trained to understand and accept persons with disabilities and debunk all forms of negative perceptions they hold about persons with disabilities so that they can include and support

them both within the school and the community at large to enable them achieve their potentials.

Historical Development of Inclusive Education

Inclusive education policies, principles and practices were first adopted at the world conference held in Salamanca, Spain in June 1994. The delegates of the conference recognised the need and urgency for providing education for individuals with special needs within the regular education system. In this conference, which was under the auspices of United Nations Educational Scientific and Cultural Organization (UNESCO), delegates representing 92 governments and 25 international organisations discussed and made a framework for Action on Special Needs Education and a statement on the rights of the child. In the second paragraph of the statement, there are five major clauses, which spell out the key issues in inclusion. These are:

1. Every child has a fundamental right to education, and must be given the opportunity to achieve and maintain an acceptable level of leaning

2. Every child has unique characteristics, interest, abilities and learning needs

3. Education system should be designed and educational program implemented to take into account the wide diversity of these characteristics and needs

4. Those with special educational needs must have access to regular schools which should accommodate them within a child-centred pedagogy capable of meeting these needs

5. Regular schools with this inclusive orientation is the most effective means of combating discriminating attitudes, creating welcoming communities, building an inclusive society and achieving education for all. Moreover, they provide an effective education to the majority of children and improve the efficacy and ultimately the cost-effectiveness of the entire education system.

Still in the second paragraph, is a statement that places the onus on regular schools to combat discriminatory attitudes and create welcoming communities? The statement was emphatic on leaving exception to where there was compelling reasons for doing otherwise (UNESCO, 1994,UNESCO 2001) re-echoes the argument that the paradigm shift implied by the Salamanca Statement was broadly a reform aimed at welcoming diversity amongst all learners (Gyimah, 2006). This was to be an increase in the capacity of local neighbourhood mainstream schools to support the participation and learning of increasing diverse range of learners. Vislie (2003) sees the Salamanca Statement as a challenge to all countries to recognise the right of all children to avert discrimination and failure.

Currently, the view of special education has changed mostly in many countries. Instead of segregating children with special educational needs and disabilities in different or separate classes and schools, the ideology of inclusive education is gradually taking place. Inclusive education gives access to education and human rights for all individuals. This gives all children including those with special needs the freedom to be educated in the regular school where equal opportunities and access are guaranteed.

Stainback and Stainback (1992), support this view by arguing that it is necessary to avoid the negative effects of segregation. In support of this educational phenomenon, Mittler (2000) opines that the main argument driving the inclusion agenda centres on human rights issues. He argues that it is a basic right for pupils to attend their mainstream school and be fully included in the academic and social processes. Therefore, any form of segregation is seen as a potential threat to the achievement of this basic right. The Centre for Studies on Inclusive Education (CSIE, 2002) also contends that segregated schooling violates children's rights. This suggests that segregation treats children in a way that does not recognize their equality and dignity. Similarly, Tilstone, Florian and Rose (1998) emphasize a growing sense of injustice about the idea of segregated special schooling for children with special education needs.

This has led to the call for more inclusive education opportunities as a right and equal opportunity. In the last decade, inclusive education has been embraced by many countries as a key educational policy. The Salamanca statement which was signed by the representatives of 92 countries called on governments "to adopt the principle of inclusive education; enrolling all children in regular schools unless there are compelling reasons for doing otherwise" (UNESCO, 1994, p. 44). National legislation in many countries including the United State of America (IDEA, 1997) and the United Kingdom have promoted "inclusive education" for pupils who have special educational needs and disabilities. This involves educating them in mainstream schools with normal achieving peers and is contrasted with the provision of education in separate special schools or classes

Concept of Inclusive Education

Inclusive education has no clear-cut definition though some professionals have made the attempt to define the concept. According to Stubbs (2008), definitions must continue to evolve if inclusive education is to remain a real and valuable response to addressing educational rights challenges. In view of that many people assume that inclusive education is just another version of special education or is related only to learners with disabilities. But the key concepts and assumptions that underpin inclusive education are in many ways, the opposite of those that underpin special education. Inclusion involves a different approach in identifying and attempting to resolve difficulties that arrive in schools. Inclusive education implies a radical shift in attitudes and a willingness on the part of schools to transform practices in pupil grouping, assessment and curriculum.

The notion of inclusion does not set boundaries around particular kinds of disability or learning difficulty, but instead it focuses on the ability of the school itself to accommodate the diversity of needs. It implies a shift away from a 'deficit' model, where the assumption is that difficulties have their source within the child, to 'social' model, where barriers to learning are seen to exist in the structures of schools themselves and, more broadly, in the attitudes and structures. Deiner (2005), defined inclusive education as a type of education that involves placing children in an educational setting that provides the support that meets their emotional, social and educational needs. UNESCO (2008) states that inclusive education is: an ongoing process aimed at offering quality education for all while respecting diversity and the different

41

needs and abilities, characteristics as well as learning expectations of the students and communities, eliminating all forms of discrimination

The current thinking has moved beyond the narrow idea of inclusion as means of understanding and overcoming a deficit. Inclusion is now widely accepted as concerning issues of gender, ethnicity, class, social conditions, health and human rights encompassing universal involvement, access, participation and achievement of school activities (Ouane, 2008). Inclusive education describes the process by which a school attempts to respond to all learners as individuals, by reconsidering and restructuring its curricular organisation and by providing and allocating resources to enhance equality of educational opportunities (Hyam, 2004).

Ainscow, Booth and Dyson (2004) asserted that inclusion can be understood to comprise four elements and they include the following

1. It is a process

2. It is concerned with identification and removal of barriers

3. It is the presence, participation and achievement of all students

4. It involves a particular emphasis on those groups of learners who may be at risk of marginalization, exclusion or under achievement.

Giangreco, Dennis, Cloninger, Edelman and Schattman (1993) also state that inclusive education has five components and all of these should occur on an ongoing basis. They contend that inclusive education is said to be in place only when all the five features occur regularly. The five features are:

1. Heterogeneous grouping: All students including those with special needs are educated together in groups and the number of students with and without disabilities approximates natural or normal proportions.

42

2. A sense of belonging to a group: All students including those with disabilities are considered active members of the class. Students who have disabilities feel welcomed as those without disabilities.

3. Shared activities with individualized outcomes: Students share educational experiences, for example, lesson, laboratories, field work, and group learning at the same time. The learning objectives for the students are individualised to meet each student's learning needs.

4. Use of environments frequented by individuals without disabilities: The learning experiences take place in general education classrooms and community work sites.

5. A balanced educational experience: Inclusive education seeks an individualised balance between the academic, functional and social/ personal aspects of schooling. For example, the development of students' self-image and social skills are as important as their reading and mathematics skills.

   If the above can be implemented successfully, then it will require the commitment of leadership. This effective leadership being talked about is the ability to inspire and stimulate others to achieve worthwhile goals (DuBrin, 2010). Consequently, experience has revealed that no goal supersedes the creation of equal learning opportunities for all children. Therefore, it really behooves educational-policy makers and authorities to inspire confidence and support among the people needed to achieve the educational goals for all in an inclusive environment.

   Okyere and Adams (2003) identified seven factors necessary for inclusive education to succeed. These are:

43

1. Visionary Leadership: For inclusive education to succeed in Africa and especially Ghana, Directors of Special Education Division and regular school head-teachers should have a dynamic vision of the whole process. Special education should no longer be viewed as the means to help students with special educational needs to meet the demands of regular classroom, but a part of the classroom services that must be available to accommodate the learning needs of all students in the regular school, including those with special educational needs. To support this assertion, MacBeath and Dempster (2008) point that to ensure leadership for learning, school leaders need to focus on learning, create environment for learning, as well as promote learning dialogue between teachers and learners.

2. Collaboration / Cooperation: Inclusive education is based on the premise that no one teacher can possess all the expertise needed to meet the educational needs of all the students in the classroom. Instead, teachers should have a support system through collaboration with trained experts and peer assistance.

3. Refocused Use of Assessment: Traditionally, assessment was used to determine eligibility for special education services. Thus, emphasis was usually on formal type of assessment with the use of standardized or norm-referenced tests. The inadequacies and biases of formal assessment are evident in several studies that were carried out in the developed world. As a result, emphasis has now been shifted to the use of alternative assessment such as authentic assessment, performance-based assessment and portfolio assessment.

44

4. Support for Staff and Students: The necessary skills needed to be acquired through in-service training should be given to them. There should also be flexible planning time for special education and regular teachers to meet and work together.

5. Funding: Government must recognise the fact that for inclusive education to succeed, they must be prepared to provide adequate funding. Even though the current economic recession makes it more difficult to meet the needs of all children with disabilities, it is still imperative to treat them in the same way as "normal" individuals are treated. That is, making their education a priority. In order to encourage inclusive education, more funding should be made available to inclusive schools, and the children in the segregated schools should be encouraged to join their "normal" peers in the regular schools.

6. Effective Parental Involvement: Generally, parental involvement of education of children with disabilities in African is negligible. Parents are always confronted with the dilemmas as to what to do with their children who have disabilities. This is compounded by the traditional beliefs and the negative attitudes towards such children. Parents should be willing to live with their children in the communities and provide for their daily needs as they do for siblings. For parents to participate meaningfully in the training and education of their children, there is the need to provide them first with the information on their children which will help them to

45

disabuse their minds of the superstitious beliefs and negative attitudes towards individual with disabilities.
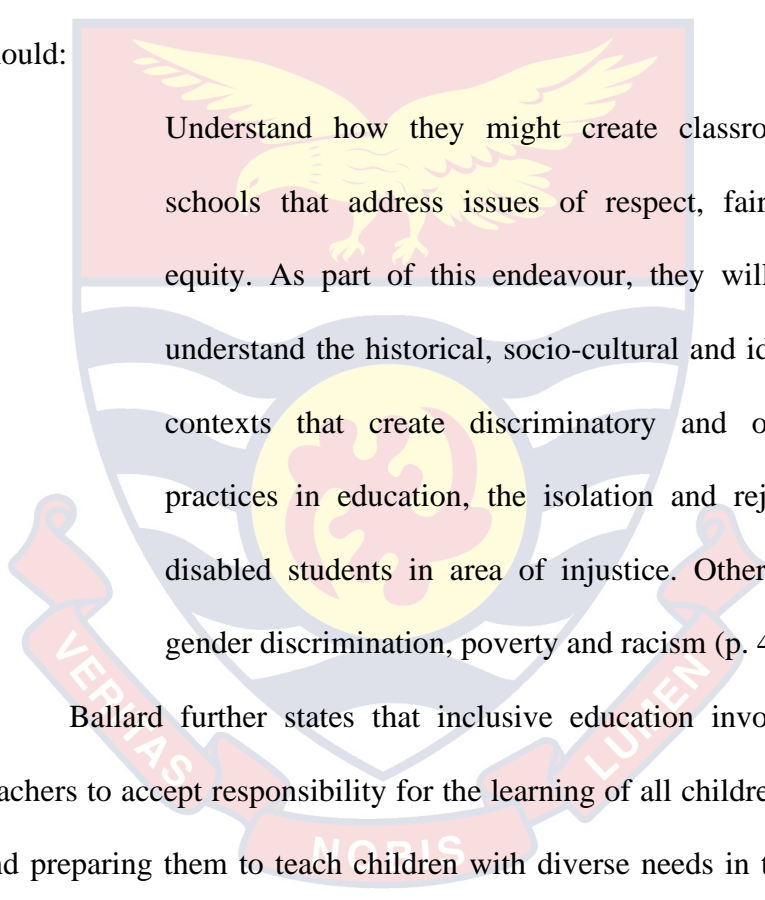
7. Curriculum Adaptations: The success of inclusive education also depends on the general education teachers' ability to adapt instruction when students have difficulty acquiring skills and information. The curricula and method of instruction must meet the needs of the students.

Several strategies can be used to adapt curriculum and instructions. General education teachers should therefore be equipped with these strategies in order to function effectively in an inclusive classroom. Teachers can modify instructional materials and activities, change teaching procedures, and alter the requirement of learning task. Abosi (2000) is of the view that the practice of inclusive education requires effective planning. In addition to changing attitudes, there must be provision of additional teaching materials, resource teachers, modification of instructions to create accessibility, and flexible but effective curriculum. Bishop (1995) suggests that the practice of developing inclusive schools involves understanding inclusion as a continuing process as well as strengthening and sustaining the participation of all students, teachers, parents and community members in the work of the school. There is the need to restructure the cultures, policies, and practices in schools to respond to the diversity of pupils within their locality.

Arnesen, Allen, and Simonsen (2009) note that 'inclusion may be understood not just as adding on to existing structures, but as a process of transforming societies, communities and institutions such as schools to become diversity-sensitive' (p. 46). These authors further state that the

international commitment to human rights has led to a changing view and reduced emphasis on an individual's disability which has, in turn, led to its classification as socio-cultural. This view is consistent with the disability studies perspective, which recognizes disability as another interesting way to be alive and sees individual support as the norm for all learners.

Ballard (2003) says that inclusive education is concerned with issues of social justice, which means that graduates entering the teaching profession should:

> Understand how they might create classrooms and schools that address issues of respect, fairness and equity. As part of this endeavour, they will need to understand the historical, socio-cultural and ideological contexts that create discriminatory and oppressive practices in education, the isolation and rejection of disabled students in area of injustice. Others include gender discrimination, poverty and racism (p. 47).

Ballard further states that inclusive education involves helping all teachers to accept responsibility for the learning of all children in their school and preparing them to teach children with diverse needs in their classrooms. Based on the above assertion, inclusive education can be said to be an extension of integration or mainstreaming. This is because, in inclusive education, all students with disabilities are expected to be educated in the regular or ordinary schools. Rather than considering the needs of students with disabilities and placing them in educational facilities where those needs will be met, the ordinary or regular school becomes the focus. The focus

47

determines the kinds of support a regular school needs in order to meet the needs of all children in the school including children with special educational needs and disabilities. Inclusive education therefore goes beyond just placing all children with special needs regardless of their disabilities in regular classroom. This requires a well groomed school environment, classroom management and practices that cater for the needs of all children.

Mittler (2002) views inclusion as a process of reform and that it allows all pupils to have access to the whole range of educational and social opportunities offered by the school. This includes the curriculum, the assessment, recording and reporting of pupil's achievement, the decisions that are taken on the grouping of pupils within a school or classroom, pedagogy, sport and leisure. The aim of such reform is for the school to provide equal opportunities to all pupils to avoid segregation, isolation or discrimination.

Booth (1999) defines inclusion as a process of increasing participation of learners in regular schools reducing their exclusion from the curriculum, cultures and communities of neighbourhood mainstream centres. For this to succeed, teachers, schools and systems need to change so that they can better accommodate the diversity of needs that pupils have. It also means that barriers within and around the school that hinder learning and participation of all students should be identified and removed. Hence, inclusive education enables all students including previously excluded groups, to learn and participate effectively within mainstream school system.

In addition to the above views on inclusive education, Angelides, Stylianou and Gibbs (2006), are of the view that inclusive education is related to participation and learning, to the acceptance of difference to the school as a

48

whole, to democracy and also to society in general. They further pointed out that inclusive education is about all children having the right to attend the school in their neighbourhood. Practice does not simply refer to the placement of children with special educational needs and disabilities into mainstream schools but it is also concerned with the conditions under which all children can be educated effectively. Thus inclusive ideology basically means the adaptation of the school curriculum by educators to respond to the uniqueness of individuals, to increase their presence, access and participation and finally achievement in learning society (Booth, Ainscow, & Kingston, 2006; Oppong, 2003). It is about increasing the participation of all in children, and reducing all forms of exclusion from local educational opportunities. Inclusion is a never-ending process of increasing participation and combating exclusion. It is about the participation of everyone; children and young people and their families and other adults involved in their education.

However, Booth, Ainscow, and Kingston (2006) argue that inclusion cannot be carried on only by encouraging the participation of individuals but a consideration must be given to the obstacles within the settings and systems that may impede participation. For instance, participation in education settings cannot be encouraged for children if staff who work with them have no power over what or how they teach or the development of their own workplace. This implies that inclusion is about developing education settings and systems so that they are responsive to diversity in a way that values all children

In the definition by UNESCO (1994), inclusion is seen as a process of addressing and responding to the diversity of needs of all learners through increasing participation in learning, cultures and communities and reducing

exclusion within and from education. It involves changes and modifications in content, approaches, structures and strategies, with a common vision that covers all children of the appropriate age range and a common conviction that it is the responsibility of the regular system to educate all children. The Agra Seminar's (1998) definition of inclusive education cited in Stubbs (2008) states that:

1 Inclusion is broader than formal schooling: It includes the home, the community, non-formal and informal education.

2 Inclusion acknowledges that all children can learn.

3 Inclusion enables education structures, systems and methodologies to meet the needs of all children.

4 Inclusion acknowledges and respects differences in children; age, gender, ethnicity, language and disability status.

5 Inclusion is a dynamic process which is constantly evolving to the culture and context.

6 Inclusion is part of a wider strategy to promote an inclusive society (p.38).

 Rouse and Florian (1997) citing Inclusion International (1996), refer to inclusion as the opportunity for all persons with disabilities to participate fully in all educational, employment, consumer, recreational, community and domestic activities that typify every society. What this definition seem to imply is that persons with special educational needs and disabilities should be allowed to take part fully in all activities of human endeavour to make them develop the sense of belongingness which will enable them develop their

50

potentials to the fullest, so as to contribute their quota towards the development of the nation.

Globally, there is a clear move towards inclusive practice and wide agreement on the key principles first encompassed in the Salamanca Statement (UNESCO, 1994). Since that time, these principles have been reinforced by many conventions, declarations and recommendations at European and global levels, including the UN Convention on the Rights of Persons with Disabilities (2006), which makes explicit reference to the importance of ensuring inclusive systems of education. The UNESCO Policy Guidelines on Inclusion in Education (2009) sets out the following justifications for working towards inclusive practices and educating all children together:

1. Educational justification: Inclusive schools have to develop ways of teaching that respond to individual differences and benefit all children.

2. Social justification: Inclusive schools are able to change attitudes towards diversity and form the basis for a just, non-discriminatory society.

3. Economic justification: It costs less to establish and maintain schools that educate all children together than to set up a complex system of different schools 'specialising' in different groups of children.

The Agency Teacher Education for Inclusion project uses the following definition of inclusion, which is significantly broader than earlier definitions that have often focused on the dilemma between special education and 'integration' into mainstream school. The UNESCO (2007) definition states that inclusive education is: 'an ongoing process aimed at offering quality education for all while respecting diversity and the different needs and

51

abilities, characteristics and learning expectations of the students and communities, and eliminating all forms of discrimination'(p. 3).

It is clear, then, that thinking has moved on beyond the narrow idea of inclusion as a means of understanding and overcoming a deficit. It is now widely accepted that it concerns issues of gender, ethnicity, class, social conditions, health and human rights, encompassing universal involvement, access, participation and achievement (Ouane, 2008). However, the ideology of inclusive education as outlined above is implemented in different way across different contexts and varies with national policies and priorities which are in turn International.

Concept of Teacher Education

Teacher education refers to the policies and procedures designed to equip teachers with the knowledge, attitudes, behaviour and skills they require to perform their tasks effectively in the school and classroom. Teacher education is often divided into initial teacher training and education and teacher development or continuing professional development.

Adeosun, Oni, Oladipo, Onuoha and Yakassai (2009) defined teacher education as that component of any educational system charged with the education and training of teachers to acquire the competencies and skills of teaching for the improvement in the quality of teachers for the school system. Okafor (1998) regards teacher education as that form of education which is planned and systematically tailored and applied for the cultivation of those who teach particularly but not exclusively in primary and post primary levels. This teacher education also encompasses the training and preparation of other

52

educational personnel such as administrators, supervisors and guidance and counseling officers.

In Ghana, teacher education is "the type of education and training given to and acquired by an individual to make him or her academically and professionally proficient and competent as a teacher" (Republic of Ghana, 2002, p.92). Inherent in this definition is the fact that the concept of teacher education may be looked at as a process of recruiting, preparing, assessing, certifying and registering would-be teachers to function at the appropriate levels of the nation's educational system as professionals, guiding and facilitating learning and other socializing activities of learners. From the foregoing, teacher education, whether pre-service or in-service, can be seen as the deliberate and conscious effort to intervene in the personnel and professional development of the individual or a group of persons who want to be professional teachers.

Scope of Teacher Education

The two important things that can be deduced from the definitions of teacher education are that teachers must be academically and professionally competent. For this to happen, the teacher must go through rigorous academic and professional initial training. In addition to this training, the teacher also needs to go through social training since he or she is a social worker. This is important because according to Ho and Toh (2000), a teacher's practice is not just an expression of his or her own professional knowledge that is informed by one's professional background, experience and perceptions but it is also one which is shaped by personal attitudes, beliefs and goals.

The need for the teacher to have a sound academic training is of utmost importance. Sadker and Sadker (2002) have stated that, teachers must have a rich understanding of the subject(s) they teach and appreciate how knowledge in the subject(s) is created, organised and delivered. This gives teachers the instructional repertoire which allows them to create multiple paths to the subjects they are teaching. There must, therefore, be a sound academic preparation involving encounters with the subject matter or content of the various discipline to enable the teacher to acquire that repertoire of knowledge which makes them feel competent and confident wherever and whenever called upon to discuss any aspect of the discipline. The purpose of teacher education in Ghana is the training and development of the right type of teachers who are committed and dedicated (Republic of Ghana, 2002). It is envisaged that such a teacher should be capable of;

1. applying, extending and synthesizing various forms of knowledge

2. developing attitudes, values and dispositions that create a conducive environment for quality teaching and learning in a school

3. facilitating learning and motivating individual learners to fully realize their potentials

4. adequately preparing the learner to participate fully in the national development

It is important to link with the scope in order to get a comprehensive understanding of the issues involved. The vision of teacher education in Ghana is to prepare the grounds for quality teaching and learning outcomes through competency-based training of teachers. The mission is to provide a comprehensive Teacher Education Programme through pre-service and in-

service training that would produce competent, committed and dedicated teachers to improve the quality of teaching and learning in Ghanaian classrooms. However, teacher training and preparation in some of the universities and colleges in Ghana, according to Avoke and Avoke (2004), are focused purely on methodologies and assessment practices that are not tailored to the needs of the children with disabilities in inclusive schools. According to Avoke and Avoke methodologies at the pre-service teacher training programmes continue to be directed towards practices of regular schools. Consequently, teachers do not teach towards differential learning outcomes since approaches adopted by many teachers in Ghana tend to be examination driven instead of helping the individual students / learners to develop holistically, taking into consideration the three main domains of development- that is cognitive, affective and psychomotor.

Boaduo, Milondzo and Gumbi (2010) have intimated that teacher education and training of the twentieth century prepared teachers to teach and produce learners who could not use their acquired knowledge and skills to help humankind to live fulfilling lives. This, accordingly, has created serious dilemma and has had negative implications for generations of yesteryears and even today.

In Ghana, in the last two decades, there has been frequent change in the teacher education landscape as a result of inherent weaknesses in the system. Some of the observed weaknesses such as the absence of connection between the needs of schools and teacher education have resulted in inadequate initial teacher preparation and lack of defined standards for teacher development. Again, they have contributed to making teacher education not to

achieve the needed quality. The education reforms of 2002 in Ghana gave lots of recommendations in an attempt to make the system corrective. However, it failed to make mention of the technical rationality model which underlines the reflective practitioner philosophy of teacher education (Fish, 2005). Hence, it is important that any meaningful teacher education programme should be modeled along the reflective practitioner model, the cornerstone of which are reflective practice, building a teaching portfolio, writing of statement of teaching philosophy and action research.

The primary benefit of reflective practice for teachers is a deeper understanding of their own teaching style and ultimately, greater effectiveness as a teacher. Other specific benefits noted in current literature, include the validation of a teacher's ideas, beneficial challenges to tradition, the recognition of teaching as artistry, and respect for diversity in applying theory to classroom practice (Ferraro, 2000).

Objectives of Initial Teacher Education in Ghana

Teacher education plays a crucial role in empowering a group of people to assist the greater majority of individuals to adapt to the rapidly changing social, economic and cultural environment to ensure the development of human capital required for the economic and social growth of societies. Research has shown that, apart from students, teacher effect accounts for approximately 30% of the variance in students' academic achievement (Diez, 2007; Hattie, 2003). It is said that if they (teachers) acquire the professional competence and attitudes that enable them to optimally perform their multiple tasks in the classroom, in the school and in the community, teachers become the single most important contributing factor

in ensuring quality educational provision (Dave & Rajput, 2000). Providing competent and professional teachers who can deal with issues to enhance the teaching and learning processes is necessary. The major objective of the school system, as designed by the Education Reform Programme of 1987 "to make education more relevant to the socio-economic realities of the country, so that every Ghanaian child will be able to live a productive and meaningful life" (UNESCO, 2010, p. 2).

A critical aspect of this professional competence is reflected in what Hattie (2003) asserted as, a search driven by the goal of ascertaining the attributes of excellence–because if we can discover the location of these goal posts, if we can understand the height of the bar of the goal posts, we then have the basis for developing appropriate professional development, the basis for teacher education programmes to highlight that which truly makes the difference the basis for extolling that our profession truly does have recognizable excellence, which can be identified in defensible ways, and the basis for a renewed focus on the success of our teachers to make the difference.

The underlying principle of teacher education is to provide teachers with better knowledge and skills, together with better incentives to use their knowledge and skills for the benefit of children, through the creation of an accessible, integrated teacher education and training system which provides a structure for continuous professional development throughout their teaching careers (UNESCO, 2010). In their report, the Presidential Committee on the Review of Education Reform in Ghana states that the objective of teacher

education in Ghana as the training and development of the right type of teacher who is competent, committed and dedicated. Such a teacher should be capable of;

1. applying, extending and synthesizing various forms of knowledge;

2. developing attitudes, values and dispositions that create a conducive environment for quality teaching and learning in schools

3. facilitating learning and motivating individual learners to fully realize their potential;

4. adequately preparing the learner to participate fully in the national development effort (Republic of Ghana, 2002).

With this background, it is clear why the need to train quality teachers has become predominant in the discourse of teacher education. As has been noted by Hattie (2003), we should be asking where the major source of variance in students' achievement lie, and concentrate on enhancing these sources of variance in order to truly make the difference.

Following this, the Ministry of Education (MoE) states through the National Teacher Education Policy (NTEP) states that, the objectives of teacher education are to;

i. provide the teachers with a sound basis in the content of the courses they teach; sound professional skills that will enable them to guide and interest the children in the acquisition of learning and basic vocational skills and foster qualities of leadership.

ii. create favourable conditions in which children learn how to learn with pleasure and ease.

iii.   enable them to integrate themselves within the community (UNESCO, 2010). The central objective is to produce highly knowledgeable, competent, committed and dedicated teachers capable of potentiating, facilitating and encouraging learning in students (MoE, 2011).

Among other things, on successful completion of their initial teacher education, it is expected that newly trained teachers possess the requisite knowledge and skills to plan for and manage learning programmes for students. They demonstrate knowledge and understanding of the implications for learning of students' physical, cultural, social, linguistic and intellectual characteristics. They understand principles of inclusion and strategies for differentiating teaching to meet the specific learning needs of students across the full range of abilities. Newly trained teachers have an understanding of their subject(s), curriculum content and teaching strategies. They are able to design lessons that meet the requirements of curriculum, assessment and reporting. They demonstrate the capacity to interpret student assessment data to evaluate students' learning (Robson, 2012) and modify teaching practice. They know how to select and apply timely and appropriate types of feedback to improve students' learning. From the literature, there is general consensus that initial teacher education is to provide prospective teachers with the knowledge and skills needed to carry out their work as teachers successfully (Darling-Hammond & Bransford, 2005).

Initial Teacher Education Policy

Teacher education is important because of its impact upon teacher quality. Teaching is a complex and demanding intellectual task, one that cannot be accomplished without the adequate preparation. Teacher education not only ensures that teachers are – and remain competent, but it also guarantees that they stay motivated through time (Eurydice, 2004). Research shows that the most effective way to raise educational quality is to modify initial teacher education and recruitment, and to develop the means to train teachers that are already in-service. Indeed, teacher education has a significant impact on teachers' behaviours and teaching skills, and on the student outcomes (Musset, 2010). In the public school arena, the policies enacted by state governments help to select individuals who will have admission to this honoured profession. These policies have an enormous influence on the quality of the nation's teaching force, making it crucial that they are based on the best knowledge and evidence available (National Council for Tertiary Education).

There are many different challenges that have to be dealt with in different countries, and the design of the teacher education has to respond to the specific needs of each system. The situation can be very different from country to country. Some countries experience teacher surplus and others have to cope with teacher shortage. The shortage of teachers may be general (all type of schools, all types of teachers), or focused on certain subjects (mathematics, languages, science, etc.); locations (rural areas, impoverished communities) or special kind of schools for persons with special needs.

Teacher attrition is also a problem (Cobbold, 2010). As pointed out by Musset (2010), "there is no magical―"policy mix" that can be applied in each and every situation" (p. 3). This is why it is important for policy makers to have at their disposal a repertoire of good practices such as the one offered by OECD and those offered by academics and organisations which deal with issues relating to teaching and teacher education. The apprehension of these good practices in their specific context, and the understanding of their interaction with the other inputs of the educational system, can lead to a reflection on how to combine these practices between themselves with the goal being the design of a policy that fits the specific needs of a particular country and educational system. According to UNESCO report on education for all beyond 2015, there has been a spate of publications from influential bodies to support this trend. They include, the Global Partnership for Education Strategic Plan 'Learning for All' 2012, DFID's 2010 'Learn for All' education strategy, World Bank's '2020 Learning for All' education strategy, USAID's 'Opportunity Through Learning' and 'All Children Reading' Grand Challenge as well as the Brookings' Institute's 'A Global Compact on Learning' initiative. Private foundations have also re-crafted their portfolios in this direction with Hewlett's Quality.

The research survey publications by Uwezo in Kenya, Tanzania and Uganda and Pratham's ASER in India, which reveal the acute lack of learning within classrooms, have been particularly influential to trigger this trend. Unfortunately, though, in most cases, the overwhelming emphasis has been on measuring 'learning outcomes' rather than making concrete investments to improve 'learning'. The Bank, for example, has developed a new tool—

61

System Approach for Better Education Results (SABER) which provides detailed, internationally comparable, learning-focused assessments of the quality of each country's education policies including student learning assessments. The logic is that countries are unlikely to make sustained progress toward learning for all, unless they measure student learning and target it for improvement. The motto seems to be that delivering on results requires measuring the right results. But there is a danger that this overemphasis on outcomes can divert energies and resources from investments in quality inputs which are crucial to deliver quality learning outcomes. These policies have forced many initial teacher education programmes to conform to cultural scripts to produce teachers who would only drill students to pass examinations.

These features of the teaching occupation, Lortie (2002) notes, produce a tilt toward continuity and conservation of past practices that enjoy broad cultural legitimacy even as they fail to serve the emergent reform ideals of excellence and equity. The project to produce technical knowledge in teaching that would reliably link means to ends has not enjoyed any breakthrough successes. Under these conditions, a persistent challenge of teacher education has been the lack of firm anchors in a system of practice and in some body of codified knowledge. Its problems begin not with teacher preparation itself but in the enterprise it seeks to serve and develop (Sykes, Bird & Kennedy, 2010). In this context, teaching and learning is filtered through a medical model in which students are made analogous to patients to be cured, and, as such, the knowledge from research that provides the most effective means for the cure, serves as the dominant paradigm for professional practice. Biesta (2007)

contends that when professional action is viewed as effective intervention, then professional action: ''…is based [simply] on the idea that professionals do something–they administer a treatment, they intervene in a particular situation–in order to bring about certain effects'' (p. 7).

In Ghana, the process of initial teacher training commences when pre-service teachers are selected into various Colleges of Education to undertake programmes leading to a specialisation in science, mathematics and technical skills or a specialisation in the teaching of general subjects. Candidates are eligible for certification as long as they complete a state-approved teacher preparation programmes. Over the years, policies on teacher training have been erratic and inconsistent with each changing government having to change what has been previously done in terms of policy framework and resource allocation towards improving initial teacher training. For example, in studies conducted by Akyeampong, Pryor, Westbrook and Lussier (2011), and Lewin and Stuart (2003), they found that many countries across Sub-Saharan Africa do not have coherent policies on primary teacher education or where they existed, they were fragmented and incomplete.

Lewin and Stuart (2003) found that despite the notable need of policy on teacher education to the achievement of nationally and internationally agreed objectives of universalised primary schooling, improved quality, and enhanced equity (Darling-Hammond, 2010) in access and retention (Cobbold, 2010), "the development of coherent, medium term, financially sustainable teacher education policy, tailored to meet the demand for new teachers, have been widely neglected" (p. ix). States influenced the nature of teacher preparation by prescribing coursework in subject matter and/or education and

by establishing student teaching requirements. However, state policies rarely promote specific approaches to instructional practice. In Ghana, College reforms including the recent 'In-In-Out' programme which replaced the three-year fully residential training in 2004 are often not influenced by research evidence. Even though evidence suggests that pre-service education and training is very necessary for teacher professional development and improvements, teacher quality cannot be achieved by maintaining the status quo in the way teacher policies are developed and implemented. Again, Ghana is saddled with the problem of having to recruit many more teachers in order to achieve Education for All (EFA) goals and the increase in students' enrolment. For example, between 1999 and 2005 the number of children in school rose by 36% and the trend continues (UNESCO, 2008). While this rapid increase deserves celebrating as it seeks to achieve the Free Compulsory Universal Basic Education (FCUBE) and EFA goals, these encouraging numbers hide a challenge since such a rise in school attendance requires a large and fast increase in numbers of teachers. In many African countries, the task of training so many teachers quickly enough to respond to immediate needs is proving particularly daunting (Akyeampong et al., 2011). It is feared that governments' quest to achieve the Millennium Development Goals (MDGs) on education and the EFA goals will not be achieved and the broader project to improve teaching and schooling will be hijacked or waylaid. Darling-Hammond (2010) stated that we will continue sliding down the slippery slope we have been on as a nation since the 1987 educational reform. Since the reforms, we have advanced little in achievement, especially in international comparisons, with no real reduction in the achievement gap.

There is an intense discussion on the quality of teachers the existing programmes produced basically from the sort of achievement results basic school pupils obtain in national examinations such as Basic Education Certificate Examination (BECE). However, the focus of meeting the challenges of pupils' enrolment has required governments to direct attention on the provision of infrastructure to the detriment of how teacher education can support the training of competent teachers to meet the real needs of students in the classroom (Akyeampong, 2011; Moon, 2007). It is believed that this will lead to an expanded inequality in access to school resources and learning opportunities. Meanwhile, many other nations have been pulling ahead, making intensive and sustained investments in teaching—the major policy strategy our Ghana has been unwilling to try. The most recent national pupil to teacher ratios (Akyeampong et al., 2011, UNESCO, 2011) suggests that current procedures are inadequate to the task of achieving an equitable distribution of teachers across regions, districts and schools. Although guidelines for staffing schools exist, they are not sufficiently clear to ensure uniform interpretation. In Ghana, recruitment seems to have followed suggestions by donor agencies such as the World Bank's policies, which "encouraged the recruitment of 'parateachers' on cheaper, short-term contracts in favour of more trained, qualified and permanent recruitment of the teacher cadre to fill the enormous teacher vacancies in developing countries" (UNESCO, 2012,p. 17). These traditional practices with regard to the recruitment of student teachers and the deployment of teachers seem to have exacerbated the situation. Many analysts worry that the emphasis on quantity in the previous Education for All and Millennium Development Goal

framework has diluted efforts at ensuring quality. Hence, most recently, "the global agenda is shifting towards a focus on learning outcomes and the way we measure such outcomes" (UNESCO, 2012, p. 17).

Current Teacher Education Policy in Ghana

Over the years, much focus has been on the attributes of excellent teachers in an attempt to restore more faith in the public school system which has taken a major condemnation in line with students' achievement. For example, it is established that, till date, less than half of the children under the age of five worldwide, and only 17 per cent of children in sub-Saharan Africa, receive any pre-primary education. More than 70 million adolescents (UNESCO, 2012) too lie outside the formal education system. In the case of developing countries, the quality of education "is often so abysmal that even children who complete primary education often lack basic literacy and numeracy skills"(UNESCO, 2012, p. 8). This notwithstanding, the universally regarded centrality of the teacher as an agent of the transmission of knowledge and the critical social institution of education has affected the way teaching and learning is conducted in schools as teaching has often centred on the teacher rather than the pupils they teach. It is often believed that teachers possess the competence to transmit the knowledge and values articulated in curriculum contents. However, teachers seem to have an inadequacy in the encouragement and nurturing of creative and critical thinking among their students (Akyeampong et al., 2011). The typical redress has been to devise so-called 'idiot-proof' solutions where "the proofing has been to restrain the idiots to tight scripts–tighter curricula specification, prescribed textbooks, bounded structures of classrooms, scripts of the teaching act, and all this

66

underpinned by a structure of accountability" (Hattie, 2003, p. 1). The national testing movements such as school-based-assessment (SBA) systems have been introduced to ensure teachers teach the right stuff, concentrate on the right set of processes (those to pass pencil and paper tests), and then use the best set of teaching activities to maximize this narrow form of achievement. Therefore, teacher education should be of the utmost concern to policy makers, education providers and all stakeholders in education.

Ghana's National Teacher Education Policy (NTEP) has as its scope and purpose to develop professional teachers who are well-equipped with knowledge, skills, the right attitudes and values to meet the needs of quality education in the 21st century. It seeks to bring clarity and coherence to the complex but critical matrix of teacher education and activities from pre-service throughout the professional career of the teacher. It also seeks to equip teachers to properly undertake their essential and demanding tasks and to enable them to enhance their professional development and competence continually (MoE, 2011). The policy determines the needs of teacher education training system in Ghana by drawing on the nation's constitutional obligations, the Ghanaian experience as well as local and international research. The policy seeks to provide an overall strategy for successful recruitment, retention and professional development of teachers to meet the social, economic and political needs of Ghana, premised on the need to have quality teacher education, with an overaching aim of producing "highly knowledgeable, competent, committed and dedicated teachers capable of facilitating and inducing learning in students" (MoE, 2011, p. v). In furtherance of the notion that quality teachers are pivotal to every education

reform process, the principles underlying the NTEP are influenced by the philosophy of teacher education in Ghana which stipulates that Ghana needs to prepare for its schools, teachers who are:

1. Morally, emotionally and intellectually balanced

2. Organizers of knowledge and facilitators of learning

3. Attentive to the cultural milieu and social backgrounds of learners

4. Abreast of current issues that will enable them to become effective agents of social change

5. Capable of contributing to the building of a knowledge-based and just and democratic society

6. Innovative, creative and research-oriented

7. Reflective practitioners

8. Aware of the pertinence of life-long learning to effective professional practice and deliberately pursue it

9. Capable of operating at specific levels of the educational system

10. Conversant with and effectively use information and communication technology as a tools for teaching

11. Capable of playing leading roles in the development of their communities. (MoE, 2011; pp.23).

These principles are to be executed in the current context of teachers being the largest single occupational entity and profession forming about 66% of the public sector workforces. It has been said repeatedly that their role in ensuring quality learning is quintessential and that they have strategic significance of for intellectual, moral and cultural training for young children.

68

However, teachers are by and large poorly paid. From a high position, the teaching profession has experienced a downward movement on the ladder of occupational prestige throughout the African continent. In the immediate post-independence era of the 1960s, at the height of human capital theory and when education was declared 'the priority of all priorities' for national development, a few countries such as Côte d'Ivoire, adopted a policy acknowledging the critical role of the teacher from the basic to higher education levels. Investment in the development of teacher training institutions, higher teacher salaries and benefits including housing and pensions, were among the policy items that constituted eloquent indicators of government consistency in actualizing its stated policy (Cobbold, 2010).

However, this policy was dismantled under the structural adjustment programmes (SAPs) that led to salary freezing or even decrement the elimination of many aspects of benefits (including housing), employment freezes, which caused higher student/teacher ratios, an internal and cross-national brain drain in addition to the impact of HIV/AIDS decimation of teachers, all of which created devastating consequences for teacher morale and motivation. As of now, teachers' salaries are among the lowest, even in nominal terms, as there are fewer fringe benefits in teaching than in other professions with equivalent levels of education and training (UNESCO, 2011). This has led to college admissions attracting mostly high school graduates with low academic performance or people who might not be so much interested in the teaching profession. Teacher education graduates who take up teaching appointments have little motivation for teaching and for lifelong

69

learning and therefore do not stay in teaching for long (MoE, 2011; UNESCO, 2011; Cobbold, 2010).

In sum, literature suggests that concerns of teacher quality, competency and professionalism have taken the canter stage in government policies, and have become dominant in teacher education discourse among employers, policy makers, higher education providers and researchers as they are constantly and passionately looking for approaches and explanations about how to train, retain and improve students' learning. In the hope of achieving these, several programmes and frameworks have been proposed and used to train teachers, especially in Ghana. However, students' performance in examinations such as Basic Education Certificate Examination does not seem to suggest an ending sight to mass failure among students in basic schools, and this has raised eyebrows on the effectiveness of initial teacher education and its impact on students who are learning how to teach. An appreciation of the crucial role of teachers has also been steadily increasing in the international post-2015 education agenda. As GEF (2013) asserts, "we need a strong cohort of both female and male teachers who are paid well and respected in their communities" (p. 16). This assertion is probably based on a general belief that no education system is better than its teachers - the principal resource in the system and therefore UNESCO in 2011 advocated that policies that efficiently address teacher training and retention should be made the central focus of national and international education policies. Many have suggested governments resorting to different forms of training teachers other than the use of initial training colleges. Others are also of the view that, Initial Teacher Education (ITE) can contribute significantly towards the development of

teacher identity and professional dispositions that are essential for teacher retention, quality and effectiveness on the job.

Therefore, programmes that seek to prepare teachers must do so adequately in meeting the complexities and demands of the teaching career today. Initial teacher training should foster self-regulatory behaviours in pre-service teachers with the hope that they would sustain their dynamism on the job. This is critical in that teachers work in complex and unpredictable conditions that call for complex and diverse reflective and reflexive practices (Bolton, 2014). There is therefore the need to train teachers who can self-regulate in their acquisition of content and pedagogical knowledge with the belief that this will be mirrored in the quality of their work. This will eventually bring greater unity and wholeness of experience from training and on the job to themselves, and greater empathy between them and their students (Bolton, 2014; Darling-Hammond, 2010; Walker-Gleaves, 2009). Classrooms and schools largely need teachers who can persevere and show resilience in the face of adversities and that pre-service teachers should possess self-regulatory dispositions to motivate them for life-long learning and actively take part in the transformation of their profession.

Challenges Facing Colleges of Education

Teaching is a complex profession that is influenced by various components of teacher competencies and quality that requires a more integrated and dynamic approach in designing its training programmes. The quality of teacher education has been put under the microscope in recent years and debate is raging on the quality of teacher education programmes, as well as the problems encountered by teaching and teacher education in many

71

countries. Stakeholders need to acknowledge these problems as an important starting point both for reviewing the emerging agenda for change and for considering alternative prospects (Sykes, Bird, & Kennedy, 2010). Cuban (2009), in his history and recent update on efforts to reform teaching, reviewed six reasons why liberal reforms (which he characterised as "student-centred" in contrast to traditional "teacher-centred" instruction) have not had firmer grip on schools, especially in America. Even though historical records from several reform eras over the past century indicated each explanation, Cuban (2009) had for the six explanations he offered for why reforms have had seemingly no effect, each had merit, despite the fact that none could account for all of the evidence (Sykes et al., 2010, p. 464; Cuban, 2009). In concluding his analysis, Cuban (2009) proposed a superficial model that depicts the "situational constraints" on teachers growing out of wide range of "cultural patterns, the historical development of the teaching occupation, the organization and culture of schools, and others" (Sykes et al., 2010, p. 464). In their analysis, which parallels that of Cuban, Sykes et al. (2010) contend that, the field of teaching and teacher education is faced with dilemmas and in order to complement the more communal established assessment of teacher education, there is the need for occupational analysis as well. According to Lampert (2010), teaching involves managing several issues in different domains in the classroom. In her view, teaching is a relational work that demands "intellectual and social collaboration" (2010, p. 22) and that teachers should learn how to advertently direct their agencies to maintain productive relationships with their students (Mansfield, Beltman, Price, & McConney, 2012; Darling-Hammond & Bransford, 2005; Rice, 2003).

72

However, there are even challenges with, and differences in the use of the word "practice" in the field of teacher education based on Sykes et al. (2010), Lampert (2010), and Cuban's (2009) assertions I recognize that school teaching has faced daunting spectra of constraints in responding to reform efforts. Moreover, progress in teacher education must be mostly troubled as it addresses the nature of teaching in the schools (Cuban's puzzle), pre-service training and professional development; its own institutionalization in universities, and the relations between school and university. As posited by Sykes et al., "each of these three aspects gives rise to tensions and dilemmas, and their combination sums to a wicked brew of problems, which systems analysts would characterise more properly as a 'mess'" (p. 464). In most literature on teaching and teacher education, the problems are spread through text and bringing them together would be useful in stabilizing the full situation of the challenges facing teacher education.

Teacher Preparation towards Inclusive Education

With the switch to inclusion, a new kind of teacher is required. Obi and Mensah (2006) noted that the adoption of inclusive education means that the general education teachers who are not specially and adequately trained and prepared to teach children with disabilities would assume the overall responsibility of education of these children with special teacher taking auxiliary roles in regular schools. Oppong (2003), identified four major roles expected of modern teachers in addition to traditional roles. He listed them as follows:

1. Planning and implementing Individualised Educational Programme (IEP)

2. Using specialized materials and equipment

3. Working closely with specialised personnel, and

4. Working in collaboration with parents and families of children and youth with special needs.

This obviously implies that the teacher will have to exhibit some amount of professionalism in his or her work. Professionalism refers to skills or qualities required or expected of a member of a profession. A profession is a paid occupation, especially one that requires advanced education and training, (Hornby, 1995), as cited in (Boison, 2006). Obi and Mensah (2006) again disclosed that in advance countries, prior to the introduction of inclusive policy, general education teachers were prepared for mainstreaming, these teachers were gradually brought to accept the inclusion policy. It is this arrangement that probably led to the introduction of the special needs education into the initial Teacher Training Colleges in Ghana in the 1991/1992 academic year. Nevertheless, Obi and Mensah (2006) affirmed the report of Caseley-Hayford (2002) that although teacher trainees in Teacher Training Colleges and institutions offer special needs education as part of educational foundation courses, the course content is not adequate to prepare teachers for inclusive education. This meant that teachers were not adequately prepared for the task of inclusive education in Ghana.

Several studies in general and special education have reported that pre-service teachers' preparation has been characterised by a lack of effectiveness to meet the challenge of inclusive education. Lombard, Miller, and Hazelkorn (1998) conducted a study in 45 states in the U.S. to explore the attitudes and skills of teachers regarding the inclusion of students with disabilities. The

researchers reported that in general, teachers did not feel prepared to meet the needs of students with disabilities and had received little or no pre-service training or in-service training regarding inclusive practices. Again they found that teachers had not participated in developing Individualised Education Programmes for students with disabilities.

Similarly, in Northern Ireland and Scotland, 231 teacher trainees were surveyed, and almost all of them believed that their preparation did not enable them to meet the demands of inclusive education (Wishart & Manning, 1996). In essence, although many pre-service and in-service teachers believe that general education classrooms are the best setting for students with disabilities, they report that they are inadequately prepared to teach students with special needs in inclusive settings (Sprague & Pennell, 2000; Vaughn, 1999).

Underlying the process of inclusion is the assumption that the general classroom teacher has certain knowledge and understanding about the needs of different learners, teaching techniques and curriculum strategies. Florian and Rouse (2009) state, "The task of initial teacher education is to prepare people to enter a profession which accepts individual and collective responsibility for improving the learning and participation of all children" (p. 596). Savolainen (2009) reports that teachers play an essential role in quality education and quotes McKinsey and Company (2001) who said that the quality of an education system cannot exceed the quality of its teachers. In view of this, Sanders and Horn (1998) stated that the quality of the teacher contributes more to learner achievement than any other factor, including class size, class composition, or background.

75

The need for 'high quality' teachers equipped to meet the needs of all learners becomes evident to provide not only equal opportunities for all, but also education for an inclusive society. In support of this, Reynolds (2001) says that it is the knowledge, beliefs and values of the teacher that are brought to bear in creating an effective learning environment for pupils, making the teacher a critical influence in education for inclusion and the development of the inclusive school. Cardona (2009) supports the fact that concentration on initial teacher education 'would seem to provide the best means to create a new generation of teachers who will ensure the successful implementation of inclusive policies and practices' (p. 35).

The OECD Report (2005) 'Teachers Matter' recognises that the demands on schools and teachers are becoming more complex. Society now expects schools to deal effectively with different languages and student backgrounds. It expects schools to be sensitive to culture and gender issues and to promote tolerance and social cohesion. Again, teachers are to respond effectively to disadvantaged students and students with learning or behavioural problems, use new technologies, and keep pace with rapidly developing fields of knowledge and approaches to student assessment. Teachers, therefore, need confidence in their ability and the knowledge and skills in inclusive education to meet the challenges that they will encounter in the present school climate (Carroll, Forlin, & Jobling, 2003).

While commenting on the need for continuous staff development to create inclusive schools, Malarz (1996), said that just as schools are different, so are their reasons for becoming inclusive. One thing that is constant in all schools, however, is the need for ongoing research-based staff development.

This is especially crucial when schools include students with disabilities and special needs education. Malarz (1996) further remarked that, three questions could help guide school's staff development efforts. These are:

i. Have all necessary members (administrators, teachers, paraprofessionals, etc.) received specific training in the different types of disabilities their students have?

ii. Do they know what to expect from students with disabilities and special needs and understand how to encourage and challenge them?

iii. What are the best teaching techniques for the students with disabilities and special educational needs?

iv. Do teachers have time to keep abreast with their subject areas and share teaching success?

Furthermore, TASH resolution on inclusive education added that:

1. Teacher training programmes at the in-service and pre-service levels that are inclusive and collaborative of general and special education teachers should adopt so that all teachers will be prepared to teach all students effectively;

2. Appropriate staff development programs for administrators, teachers, family members, paraprofessionals and related services staff which will develop the necessary understanding, skills and behaviour; and,

3. Professional development designed to ensure that teachers of students with disabilities and special educational needs are acknowledgeable about research-based practice for effectively teaching students to high standards.

77

From the foregoing discussions, it is clear that for inclusive education to be effective in Ghana, much needs to be done in terms of how the general education teachers are prepared. This is because the task of the general education teacher in an inclusive classroom is very crucial and they need to be adequately prepared to function effectively in inclusive settings.

Academic Knowledge of Teachers and Inclusive Education

The importance of teacher's knowledge, skills and competence in any educational endeavour cannot be over emphasized. Teachers play a very critical role in the educational environment. Ali, Mustapha and Jelas (2006), noted that teacher competence is noted in the knowledge and skills they possess. That is, the knowledge and skills the teacher uses in the classroom to deliver his or her instructions effectively would determine whether that teacher is effective or not. Teacher competence in inclusive education is even the most deciding factor. Many teachers feel that they are not qualified to work with persons with special educational needs and disabilities and they do not think that the training they require to equip them with skills and knowledge to enable them function effectively in an inclusive classrooms is available.

Also, teachers who have had negative experiences with students with special educational needs and disabilities are unwilling or reluctant to work in inclusive settings. Research has shown that teachers who are aware of the inclusion ideology and know the policies of inclusion can define the pragmatic meaning of inclusion and are more willing to be part of the inclusion team. This explains the importance of the study of special education as a core course in all teacher institutions in Ghana. When pre-service teachers study special education as a discipline at the pre-service level, they learn the various

78

categories of children with special educational needs and disabilities that they are likely to meet in the general education classroom and know the causes and the characteristics they exhibit in the classroom. This will enable the general education teachers to be able to identify a child with special educational needs and disabilities in the classroom and the kind of intervention to adapt to manage such individual in the inclusive classroom.

According to Kapp (1994), the pre-service teacher should be aware of the following:

1. The importance of early identification of disability and aid to learners with problems and the educator's task in this regard.

2. The most important causes and manifestations of learning and behaviour problems in learners.

3. The identification procedures that may be employed, such as screening and criterion-referenced tests.

4. Informal methods of gathering information.

5. The basic principles and possible forms of assistance

According to Nell (1996), the knowledge should include educators being adequately prepared to assess children with special educational needs and disabilities. They are to adapt curriculum content to the needs of the learners in the classrooms and to utilise special ortho-didactic devices and instructional aides, accommodation, modifications as well as use or solicit for medical and para-medical assistive devices required by some of the special needs children. It also includes the use of appropriate teaching strategies based on the learners' total level of functioning. According to Levitz (1996), one of the aims of teacher education programme is to provide effective instruction to

pre-service teachers in order to facilitate learning effectively in the classroom. In support of this, Lewis and Doorlag (2006) maintained that limited knowledge and experience can lead to the development of prejudice and non-accepting attitudes. Thus, if teachers are not informed about issues relating to special education and inclusive education, they will still hold on to the stereotypic mind they have about persons with disabilities and therefore, refuse them in the general education classroom.

Studying special education will eliminate all forms of negative perceptions and discriminatory attitudes in the general education classroom. The general education teacher will increase his competency level of teaching and their willingness to tolerate students with disabilities in their classrooms.

Hayford (1999), in a study on "Students-teacher perceptions on inclusive education in Ghana", found out that teachers who have been exposed to special needs education tend to have positive attitudes towards children with special educational needs and disabilities. The results of the study further revealed that as teachers become more aware of the nature and needs of children with special educational needs, they tend to look for better if not the best of services for them. This author emphasised the need for teachers to have at least a working knowledge of special education. This knowledge will put the general education teacher in a better position to attend to the diverse needs of all children in the inclusive classroom.

Allabatuo (2012), assessed 185 teachers who had taught for less than 5, years in Gambia on the knowledge and practices of inclusive education. They indicated that the curriculum they were taught with invariably endowed them with the skills and knowledge to identify and manage children with special

educational needs. Asamoah (2010) conducted a study in Ashanti Mampong in Ghana among teachers indicates that majority of the respondents (64% of 170) had the knowledge in inclusive education but inadequate in equipping them with the skills in managing children with special educational needs and disabilities in an inclusive classroom.

Concept of Classroom Management

Classroom management is a term used by teachers to describe the process of guaranteeing that classroom lessons run smoothly despite disruptive behaviour by students (Kenyon, 2007). The term also implies the prevention of disruptive behaviour. Classroom management is commonly referred to as the application of standards set in the classroom for positive student behaviour (Orr, Thompson, & Thompson, 1999). Kaufman (2001-2004) conceptualised classroom organisation as physical structures and procedural systems rather than behavioural guides that promote ease of classroom movement and learning efficiency. Good organization appears to diminish student confusion, frustration, and disruptive behaviour; increase their ability to navigate the classroom independently; and promote academically productive social interaction. Jones and Jones' (2004) definition asserted the classroom to be an environment where both the teacher and the student both work together to facilitate learning and minimise disruptions. Veenman's (1984) review of teacher concerns identified classroom discipline as the most frequently cited concern for young professionals, appearing in 85% percent of the nearly 100 articles reviewed.

Classroom management focuses on encouraging and establishing student self-control through a process of promoting positive student

81

achievement and behavior. Thus, classroom management is influenced by academic achievement, teacher efficacy, teacher behaviour, and student behaviour. It integrates three major components including (a) content management, (b) conduct management, and (c) covenant management (Froyen & Iverson, 1999). Froyen and Iverson (1999) pointed out that "content management occurs when teachers manage space, materials, equipment, the movement of people, and lessons which are part of a curriculum or programme of studies" (p. 128). The effective delivery of content is dependent upon the management of behaviour in the classroom, which Froyen and Iverson (1999) refer to as conduct management. Again, Froyen and Iverson (1999) explain that "conduct management refers to the set of procedural skills that teachers employ in their attempt to address and resolve discipline problems in the classroom" (p. 181). The achievement of balance between content management and conduct management is linked to what Froyen and Iverson refer to as covenant management. To them, "Covenant management focuses on the classroom group as a social system that has its own features that teachers have to take into account when managing interpersonal relationships in the classroom" (Froyen & Iverson, 1999, p. 128). Covenant management then, is an ecological approach to classroom theory that accounts for all influences in the environment as contributors to classroom climate. There is some limited research based on culturally responsive classroom management (Weinstein, Curran, & Tomlinson-Clarke, 2003; Weinstein, Tomlinson-Clarke, & Curran, 2004). Theories already exist regarding classroom management strategies that can be applied in settings where students and teachers are culturally unified and who are mostly categorised by

the main culture (Bohn, Roehrig, & Pressley, 2004). Culturally responsive pedagogy begins to look more closely at the connection of culture and student achievement.

When teachers are sensitive to and have understanding of their students' lives, they use this information to build bridges to new knowledge in ways that are engaging and motivating to the students (Willis, 2000). Culturally responsive classroom management builds on this idea of culture in the classroom. Often, cultural misunderstandings can be found at the root of supposed misbehaviors and power struggles between teachers and students. Effective classroom managers use techniques and strategies that are culturally aligned with their students' lives. One alternative model of classroom management is what Caine and Caine (2008) described as relaxed alertness, which is creating an atmosphere where the student feels safe thus allowing the learning process to begin. By creating a safe atmosphere, student anxiety is reduced and disruptive behaviours are minimised. The aforementioned philosophers support the belief that teachers are to establish a classroom that is safe and teach content-based information, values, respect, and compassion. These models provide useful guides, but many teachers find challenges in the classroom that are not addressed by theories or strategies. Consequently, Ackerman (2007) raised the following questions: How far should a school or classroom teacher go? Is there ever a point in which nothing can be done to help a student? The author answers using the story of the prodigal son, in Luke 15:11-33 of the Bible. The father in the story does release his child into the pains of the world with an attitude of being ready for his son's return when he is ready for the father's shelter and love. This is the manner in which

educators can release these students from their care, recognizing that after making all attempts nothing can be done in their care to help the students. But when the child or adolescent is ready for their care, the educators accept them back into their fold with eagerness and celebration.

Ackerman (2007) states that the first tool to assist teachers in making wise decisions concerning instructing and assisting students is prayer. Christian teachers should pray for themselves and their students. Teachers are human, and it is normal for teachers to make mistakes in how they handle challenging students. Prayer and guidance from God can help keep them on track. In prayers, the teacher can welcome the fruits of the spirit to fill his or her heart with love, joy, peace, patience, kindness, goodness, faithfulness, and self-control in dealing with these students (Galatians 5:22-23; Ackerman, 2007). The teacher can undergo spiritual growth by praying for these challenging students. Such students give opportunity to show patience, God's love, and grace. To help teachers apply their instructional skills to improving students' behaviour, Ackerman (2007) applied the keys to successful classroom management in the Christian classroom using the acronym PRAISE:

Proactive behaviour management is the primary key for preventing negative behaviours. To determine how to handle a behavioural challenge in a particular student, a teacher needs to assess the situation in which misbehaviour occurs to determine the intent and a specific behaviour plan. Identifying the intent of the student's misbehaviour is another important key in developing an intervention plan. It is also critical in dealing with any behavioural challenges that the teacher approaches the student with all

84

sincerity by seeking what is best for that individual child. It is most important to empower the student to manage his or her own behaviour. The acronym PRAISE represents the keys to any successful student behaviour plan and a simple way to plan, organize, and evaluate successful behaviour management (Ackerman, 2007).

Learning Classroom Management Skills, teachers learn best by studying, doing, reflecting, collaborating with other teachers, looking closely at students and their work, and sharing what they see. The art of teaching is learned via (a) classroom instruction, (b) modeling, and (c) classroom experience (Miller & Silvernail, 1994). This kind of learning cannot occur in college classrooms detached from practice or in school classrooms detached from knowledge about how to interpret practice. Good settings for teacher learning in both colleges and schools provide lots of opportunities for research and inquiry, for trying and testing, for talking about and evaluating the results of learning and teaching. The combination of theory and practice occurs most productively when questions arise in the context of real students and work in progress and where research and disciplined inquiry are also at hand (Miller & Silvernail, 1994). Shulman (1986) introduced the phrase "pedagogical content knowledge" concerning teachers' knowledge of their subject matter and the importance of this knowledge for successful teaching. Pedagogical content knowledge identifies the distinctive bodies of knowledge for teaching. It represents the blending of content and pedagogy into an understanding of how particular topics, problems, or issues are organised, represented, and adapted to the diverse interests and abilities of learners. Pedagogical content

knowledge is the category most likely to distinguish the understanding of the content specialist from that of the pedagogue (Shulman, 1987).

In Shulman's theoretical framework, teachers need to master two types of knowledge: content, also known as "deep" knowledge of the subject itself, and knowledge of the curricular development. Shulman (1986, 1987, & 1992) created a model of pedagogical reasoning that comprises a cycle of several activities that a teacher should complete for good teaching: comprehension, transformation, instruction, evaluation, reflection, and new comprehension. The cycle begins at comprehension as the point of understanding the focus of the curriculum. From there, the understanding is transformed into actual instructional practice that clearly moves through the last parts of the cycle.

Effective teachers must model, teach, and demonstrate all behaviours they want students to emulate, including social skills. Good teachers allow students the opportunity to practice the exact behaviours they expect. Long, Frye, and Long (1989) found that effective teachers cannot prevent all discipline problems. Even effective teachers will need support as they endeavour to establish a positive classroom environment. The potential for problems exists outside of the classroom: thus, there is a need to address the parents as part of the plan for acceptable behaviour. All teachers need to be attentive to any antecedent that might lead to a negative behavior of a student (Long, Frye, & Long, 1989).

Concept of Time Management

Time management skills such as setting and prioritising goals, planning, and organisation are necessary for a successful inclusive education in Ghana. Time management is therefore a topic of importance to educators,

researchers, and psychologists, as it relates to both academic and job performance (Liu, Rijmen, MacCann, & Roberts, 2009; Macan, 1994). Despite the growing concerns of time management, there is no concise definition of time management that exists in a literature (Claessens, van Eerde, & Rutte, 2007). One popular definition states that time management involves determining one's needs, setting goals to meet needs, and prioritising and planning to meet goals (Lakein, 1973). Years later, a similar definition of time management surfaced with goal setting, the mechanics of time management, and organisation again, noted as key components (Macan, Shahani, Dipboye, & Phillips, 1990).

In terms of the relationship between Time Management and Academic Performance, although the connection is intuitively clear, little research has been conducted linking time management to academic performance. There is, however, a growing body of research that suggests time management is positively related to academic performance (Adamson, Covic, & Lincoln, 2004; Britton & Tesser, 1991; Lahmers & Zulauf, 2000; Liu et al., 2009; Macan et al., 1990; Trueman & Hartley, 1996). For example, in a study of middle school students, Liu et al. (2009) found that the time management skills of planning and organisation were positively related to course grades. These relations held over time and, in fact, were stronger after six 6 months. Further, researchers have theorised that time management strategies are important cognitive aspects of self-regulated learning that can lead to higher academic achievement (Dembo & Eaton, 1997; Eilam & Aharon, 2003; Zimmerman & Risemberg, 1997). High achievers are more able than average or low achievers to invest their efforts and abilities in time management

related self-regulatory processes, such as planning (Eilam & Aharon, 2003). Furthermore, Britton and Tesser (1991) found that both the time management skill of short-term planning and time attitudes were related to academic achievement. If the ability to effectively manage one's time were indeed positively related to academic performance, then, presumably, interventions that improve time management would be of value to students.

Existing time management interventions include training in skills such as goal-setting, scheduling, prioritising tasks, self-monitoring, problem-solving techniques, delegating, and negotiating, as well as conflict resolution (Bruning & Frew, 1987; Higgins, 1986; Morisano, Hirsh, Peterson, Pihl, & Shore, 2010; Richardson & Rothestein, 2008). Those focused specifically on time management are often centred on setting goals and priorities, the mechanics of time management (for example, making to-do lists), and/or one's preference for organisation (for example, preference for a well-organised rather than disorganised work day; Claessens, 2007). Macan (1990) suggested that time management training should lead to increases in those areas and, in turn, this should lead to increased perceived control of time (Claessens, 2007). However, research findings on the effectiveness of time management interventions in adults have been mixed as some researchers have found that time management training does not lead to differences in time management behaviours (Briddell, 1987; Kirby, 1978; Macan, 1994, 1996; Robinson, 1974), while other researchers have reported that exposure to such training can lead to improved use of time and completion of tasks (Hall & Hursch, 1982; King, Winett, & Lovett, 1986; Maher, 1986; Orpen, 1994; Woolfolk & Woolfolk, 1986). Studies (Green & Skinner, 2005; King, 1986; Macan, 1994;

Slaven & Totterdell, 1993; Van Eerde, 2003) have concluded also that, after training, participants were likely to engage in time management behaviours more frequently (Claessens, 2007). Additionally, variables such as accurately estimating time, time on important tasks, anxiety, and procrastination seem to be positively affected by time management training (Burt & Kemp, 1994; Eilam & Aharon, 2003; Francis Smythe & Robertson, 1999; Hall & Hursch, 1982; Van Eerde, 2003).

Research on the time management of college students has also received mixed support. Adamson (2004) assessed the time management of first-year college students who were exposed to a time management demonstration, a lecture on stress and coping, and given a time management manual and exercises (for example, calendar, to-do list) after completing a survey. Students who read the manual scored significantly higher in meeting deadlines and effective organisation than students who did not. Although many of these students felt that their time management skills did not improve, they still reported that time management was important to their success (Adamson et al., 2004). Additionally, Terry and Doolittle (2008) assessed college and graduate students' self-efficacy and time management skills before and after the use of a time management tool (for example, students set goals, monitored time use, received feedback, recorded time spent working [a] toward goals, [b] in social matters, [c] on entertainment, and [d] sleeping). Although the students reported an increase in time management behaviours, there was no actual effect on self-efficacy and learning, regardless of the type of feedback they received or when they received it. Few studies, however, have investigated the impact of time management interventions on adolescents,

despite the fact that researchers (Hattie, Biggs, & Purdie, 1996) have reported that younger students gain the greatest benefits when such habits are developed early.

Concept of Self-Efficacy

The concept of self- efficacy belongs to the social learning theories which Albert Bandura developed. This concept deals with the values, goals, actions, professional functioning and loyalty of the person which can perform a certain task (Bandura, 1986; Pinquart, Juang & Silbereisen, 2003). The feeling of self- efficacy is based on a system of beliefs holding an interaction with the environment and helping the individual to cope and realise his skills effectively (Bandura, 1997; Knoll, Rieckmann, & Schwarzer, 2005). The power of the individual's belief in his capacity influences his tendency to cope with specific situations (Bandura, 1986; Burkett, 1999). Self- efficacy is sometimes defined as the belief of people in their capacity to manage events which have an influence on their lives and on their environment, so that their needs will be satisfied. It can also be seen as the capacity of people to achieve the required motivation, cognitive skills and actions, in order to succeed in execution of the tasks which were chosen for them. According to Bandura (1997), there are several ways to encourage and increase self- efficacy: Thus by successful experience in execution of challenging tasks, study of models of behaviour, verbal persuasion and a high level of mental and physical alertness. He also claims that the teacher is empowered by identification of his forces and capacities, the increase of awareness of these traits, development of self-confidence and belief in himself, reduction of the negative opinions of the school staff towards him, and giving individual and group opportunities for the

expression of their skills. The role of the educational institution is to discover the strong points of the student, to realise himself until he will excel. The feeling of self-efficacy has an influence on behaviour and on emotion. People who doubt their capacity, tend to invest less effort, and give up on a task if they find difficulty in it, and in situations in which they are incapable of coping, they feel anxious and there is a negative arousal of feelings. Self-efficacy deals with the belief of a person in his capacity, and not in his skills as they are tested in tests. The factor of motivation plays a key role in studies of the student and without it learning will not take place and there will be no educational achievements. If the student is endowed with the positive trait of self-control, he will turn to challenging tasks and will focus on the development of his initiative and motivation. As a result of the increase of efficacy, empowerment will be executed with him when he passes from a state of helplessness to a situation in which he has much control of himself and events in his life, and consequently his level of achievements will rise.

Following the cognitive revolution that took place in the field of psychology in the 50s and 60s of the previous century, the focus of the psychological world passed from the basic and unconscious needs of the person and from treating him by means of punishment and reinforcements that would teach him a lesson to cognitive processes. One of the most important discoveries on this matter was the discovery that motivation processes are composed also from expectations of the individual of the results of his behaviour. Self-efficacy, which was defined as the most important concept, is belief in capacity. Bandura (1986) coined the term 'feeling of self- efficacy', and claimed that this is a component of the connection between knowledge

91

and action, and of assessment of the capacity to execute a task which would cause the required result. Bandura (1990) also presents the belief in the capacity to mobilise the motivation, cognitive resources, and actions, which are required for control of the demands of the task, and this stresses the theoretical aspect.

These are cognitive, social, verbal and physical experiences which build the self-efficacy of the person when he undergoes them. In order to realise our resources effectively, and in order to execute complex tasks, we need good abilities and high self-efficacy, although there is no connection between the level of abilities of the person and his assessment of his capacity to take advantage of them in various tasks. Self-efficacy is a process of evaluation, which creates an estimate which determines how the person thinks, feels, and operates which contribute much to motivation and ambitiousness. Schein-Feder (1995), described the feeling of self- efficacy as a belief which a person has and with that he can achieve things in which he is interested. These beliefs fill a central role, as they shape and determine the various behaviors of the person and they are the central contributors to his development (Albion, 1999). Bandura (1986, 1997) claimed that self-efficacy developes during the social learning of the individual and consequently benefits his experiences. Bandura thought that learning is based mainly on cognition, and therefore self-efficacy is perceived in a defined and conscious way by its holders. Bandura (1986, 1997) identified four sources of information contributing to development of a feeling of self-efficacy:

1. **Performance accomplishment**- The amount of success of a person in his tasks contributes to the feeling of self-efficacy, whereas previous failure

reduces the feeling of self-efficacy. The real influence of the personal experience of self- efficacy depends on the conditions of the task which was executed and on its result. If a certain task was executed under challenging conditions, and gained reinforcements, conceptions of increased self-efficacy are formed following this success. The personal experiences, which the person experiences when he executes a certain task, consolidate the self-efficacy of the individual, and usually the successes and failures of the actions of a person influence this perception.

2. **Vicarious experience**- A person learns with the help of observation of others. Observation of the capacities and actions of others can help him in shaping his expectations of himself. If a person finds difficulty in forming a forecast or prediction of the capacity to implement his abilities in a certain task, then he can borrow this information from the performance of another person executing a similar task.

3. **Verbal persuasion**- experience of verbal persuasion is an influential factor mainly if the persuading people are perceived as having significant and relevant capacity and experience by the person constituting the target for the act of persuasion. If the persuading people are significant others like parents or teachers, then as a matter of fact, this persuasion is more significant. The persuasion can receive influence on the amount of generality of the perception of self-efficacy. The persuading person will instruct the instructed person by special reference to the person's successes or failures in similar situations, and thereby will reinforce or weaken his specific self-efficacy. If the persuading person directs his reference to different situations, then the general self-efficacy will be reinforced or weakened.

4. **Physiological state**- an unpleasant physical feeling at the time of performance of a certain action, can create with the person a feeling of low self- efficacy. On the other hand, pleasant physical feelings increase the feeling of self-efficacy (Bandura, 1986, 1997). Physical and emotional reactions under calm and pleasant conditions or under conditions of anxiety or fatigue, indicate to the individual his capacity or incapacity to succeed in the performance of his task. The physical arousal has an influence mainly on the feeling of specific efficacy as it is expressed in specific situations.

Teachers' efficacy was defined by Gunkey and Passaro, (1994) as "the belief or persuasion of teachers that they can influence the quality of students' learning, even of those who are considered as problematic cases or lacking motivation" p. 27.   The importance of teachers' efficacy emerges from its cyclical character. Higher levels of belief in efficacy lead to greater efforts of teachers, which in turn lead to better performance, which again supplies information for formation of higher beliefs of efficacy (Malinen, Savolainen, Xu, 2013).Beliefs of efficacy, especially of experienced teachers, apparently stay quite stable when the teachers are exposed to new training. Yet, even experienced teachers with firm efficacy beliefs may need to reevaluate their beliefs when they cope with new challenges, like teaching in a new sort of framework. In addition, we have to remember that teachers' efficacy is specific to context. Teachers can feel capable of teaching certain subjects to certain students in certain frameworks when they perceive themselves as less capable in different circumstances.

General teachers' efficacy deals with teachers' beliefs as to the way in which teachers generally can influence students' learning whereas personal

teachers' efficacy is a more individual and specific belief as to the efficiency of their teaching itself. The second strand of teachers' efficacy research, which is often called the Bandura strand, defines teachers' efficacy as a type of self-efficacy. Other research findings support the idea that one needs to perceive self- efficacy of teachers as a multidimensional structure. Apparently, this is valid in a number of countries and cultures. The number of self-efficacy dimensions of teachers which were found in studies usually ranges from three to six, which mainly depend on the measuring instrument and on the focus of research. The dimensions were connected often with class management, instruction, motivation and student engagement, and in a newer form, cooperation with colleagues and parents (Chan, 2008a, 2008b). In a study carried out in the People's Republic of China (Cheung, 2008) on the structure of different dimensions of teachers' capacity along Bandura's strand of self-efficacy, two dimensions of self-efficacy were found from data which were collected among Chinese teachers (from the town of Shanghai). The first dimension deals with efficacy in teaching and engagement of students, and the second with efficacy in keeping discipline. In a study which investigated teachers and teaching students in Hong Kong (Chan, 2008a), six dimensions were found which are: self-efficacy in teaching very able students, class management, guidance and counseling, increase of student engagement, teaching designed to absorb variety, and teaching designed to enrich learning. Afterwards the author (Chan, 2008b) adds a further dimension which is self-efficacy in work with colleagues and parents, to his list. There are significant differences between the results which were found in the education system in

the People's Republic of China and in Hong Kong, as there are significant differences between the two systems.

Inclusive education is also a concept which can carry different meanings in different contexts. Regardless of a growing international consensus towards inclusion as a universal goal, there is no acceptable definition in the world of inclusive education. But there is a certain universal consensus of several basic characteristics of inclusive education for children with disabilities. These traits include regular classes in neighborhood schools together with other children of the same age, access to support services and accessories, and access to personally matched programs. Usually people agree on inclusive values like equality and participation but do not agree on their implications for educational practice. The universal transition towards inclusive education also has implications on research on self- efficacy of teachers. Apparently, there is growing interest in connection with what was required from teachers in combined classes and there are many instruments measuring self- efficacy which were recently developed containing items dealing with abnormality of students. Indeed, the number of studies whose focus is self- efficacy of teachers of inclusive education is limited, but often these studies implemented scales of general teachers' efficacy. In order to fill this deficiency, a new measuring instrument was developed (Sharma, 2011), which is the scale of self- efficacy of teachers for inclusive practice.

It is possible to divide this scale into three subscales; efficacy in the use of inclusive instruction, efficacy in cooperation, and efficacy in management of behaviour (Savolainen, Engelbrecht, Nel & Malinen, 2011). A further study suggests that there is a positive connection between self- efficacy

of teachers and attitudes towards inclusive education. It was discovered by Meijer and Foster, (1988) that Dutch teachers with higher self-efficacy scores were more liable to feel that it is suitable to place children with special educational needs in a regular class. A study which investigated Israeli junior school teachers (Weisel & Dror, 2006), drew the conclusion that teachers with a high level of self-efficacy had more positive attitudes towards inclusive education. There is also an American study (Sondak et al., 1998) which indicated that inclusive education was more acceptable to teachers with higher self-efficacy than those who have low self-efficacy. It was also discovered that beliefs on teachers' efficacy had a direct influence on the perceived success of teachers in teaching special education for students in regular classes.

A further study which was carried out in Israel by Almog and Shechtman, (2007), observed integrated Israeli classes and concluded that teachers with a higher self- efficacy coped better with a number of types of problematic behaviour of students. A researcher who tested Finnish and South African teachers (Savolainen, 2011), found that self-efficacy, especially self-efficacy with cooperation, had a positive connection with the attitudes towards inclusive education. It was also found that teachers with seniority in teaching students with special needs hold more positive opinions than teachers with less experience (Boer, 2011). With certain studies, there are findings suggesting that self-efficacy will be able to predict satisfaction of teachers from their job and that it is also linked to professional commitment of teachers.

Therefore, supply of support for teachers in order to increase their self-efficacy in teaching inclusive classes will be able, not only to improve their attitudes but also to create dedicated educators who enjoy their work. But

there is also a disadvantage placement of teachers in situations which are too demanding without further support sometimes is counterproductive. Negative experiences reduce the level of self-efficacy and also create negative attitudes. Even with much support and intensive training, it is unrealistic to expect that beliefs on teachers' efficacy will change overnight. The beliefs of experienced teachers (Tschannen- Moran, Woolfolk Hoy, & Hoy, 1998) stayed fairly stable when the teachers participate in the new training. In the field of education, a definition of self-efficacy with teachers is based on the social-cognitive theory of Bandura focusing mainly on the teacher. According to this theory the definition of self-efficacy is the belief of the teacher in his capacity to organize and implement methods of action, for the sake of achievement of the goals in specific educational tasks. The basic assumption existing in the educational research literature is that one of the central factors influencing the effectiveness of the teacher and his behaviour in class are his pedagogic beliefs (Pajares, 1992; Richardson, 1996).

 Role of Teacher Efficacy in Classroom Management

Teachers' feelings of preparedness are also significantly related to teachers' sense of efficacy and their confidence in their ability to achieve teaching goals and manage their classroom (Darling-Hammond & Young, 2002). Teacher efficacy is defined as "the extent to which the teacher believes he or she has the capacity to affect student performance" (Berman, McLaughlin, Bass, Pauly, & Zellman, 1977, p. 137). The novice teacher often focuses on the aspects of their teaching skills that are most limited and place pressure on themselves to perfect every aspect of their teaching practice. Many teachers believe that without mastery of all aspects of teaching, they

cannot be effective educators, and many new teachers question their competence (Fry, 2004). Tschannen-Moran and Hoy (2001) characterised teacher efficacy as a variable that impacts teachers' dedication, instructional behavior, student achievement, and teachers' beliefs that they can assist the most apathetic student to learn.

They suggested that teacher efficacy encompasses three quantifiable components; efficacy in student engagement, instructional strategies, and classroom management. Many teachers, lacking confidence in their ability to manage classrooms, characterise classroom management as an authoritarian practice. Marks prior to taking a course in behaviour management, marks (2010) found that beginning teachers envisioned ideas of control, authority, and power, where the teacher was described as the disciplinarian. Amongst the participants, a group of novice teachers created metaphors to illustrate a friendship between a teacher and student using symbols such as holding hands, shaking hands, and playing together to illustrate ideas of friendship. Mid-term analysis was conducted after 10 weeks of methods and one full day each week of field experience for about 80 hours. The themes that emerged from this wave of data collection and analysis are teacher as nurturing, as a positive influence, as community partners, and as flexible. End of term analysis was conducted after pre-service teachers had worked full-time in classrooms for five weeks. Questionnaires were sent out, and of the 25 sent to students, 10 were completed and returned to the researcher. Students who responded were overwhelmingly positive, expressing how much they utilized the social skills strategies learned in the course. Most notably, pre-service teachers used many preventative and proactive management strategies.

99

Mongillo (2009) posited that teacher efficacy was enhanced through teacher education courses that combined theory and practice, a finding which reinforces previous research (Darling-Hammond et al., 2006; Latham & Vogt, 2007; Ryan, 1979). Courses that modeled good teaching or required teachers to relate coursework to real classroom settings were mentioned as having the most influence on their teaching practices. Teachers who did not feel competent in their practice cited courses that were not linked to student teaching or any other real-world experiences (Mongillo, 2009). This research indicates that self-efficacy begins in a classroom that takes cognizant of the challenges teachers are likely to encounter in their daily teaching practice and build around instruction about those challenges.

These kind of learning experiences give pre-service teachers the chance to have the hands-on experience and the opportunity to put theory into practice; this is what makes the student teaching experience an essential part of the teacher training program. Mentoring was also found to have an influence on self-efficacy. Mongillo (2009) found that teachers had mixed relationships with their mentors and that they shared their student teaching as the "best part of the training." They enjoyed the hands-on experiences of being in a classroom and the occasion to observe many other teachers in real settings. Additionally, the novice teachers in this survey put importance on the preparation and thinking practices obtained during their teacher preparation programmes. Two of the teachers repeated that they experienced success when their classes are well-thought-out, not only for a day, but also equally for a single lesson and within the curriculum framework for the entire year. A third teacher extended this by stating, "Knowing how an individual lesson relates to

100

the state standards helps remind me of what is important about my teaching."

Also, the teachers who feel successful view the reflection techniques taught in their preparation programs as being "key" to feeling successful.

Improving Inclusive Education Practices in Ghana

In spite of the challenges inclusive education may pose, it can have lots of benefits. If the country will attain success in practicing inclusive education, we need to develop positive attitudes for children with special educational needs and disabilities, and have sustained investment in staff and school facilities for those with special educational needs and disabilities (The Audit Report, 2002). Teachers must adapt their school-based curriculum to accommodate the needs of children with special educational needs. The school environment should be the type that promotes access to classrooms and materials.

While recognising the role the Special Education Division of the Ghana Education Service in the development of inclusive education, the Ministry of Education should collaborate with the Ministry of Health and the Department of Social Welfare to implement of the inclusive education policy in the country. Policies by themselves are not solutions, but they can clearly define the roles each stakeholder should play in meeting special educational needs in regular settings (Gyimah, 2006). Both the central and the peripheral governments such as the District/Municipal and Metropolitan Assembly should come together to support the inclusion agenda.

Though parents are not professionals, their involvement is crucial to any policy on inclusive education. They can contribute a lot to the identification and assessment of at-risk conditions and lend help with the

drawing of the Individualized Educational Plans in meeting needs. They will be happy if schools involved them. Ghana, as a member of the United Nations, we cannot be left out as all countries march towards inclusion. Therefore, we must all come on board to support and contribute to the success of inclusive education programme in Ghana.

Conceptual Framework

The hypothesised conceptual framework of how the variables are related is presented in Figure 6.

Teacher Preparation Programme   **Teacher Competence**
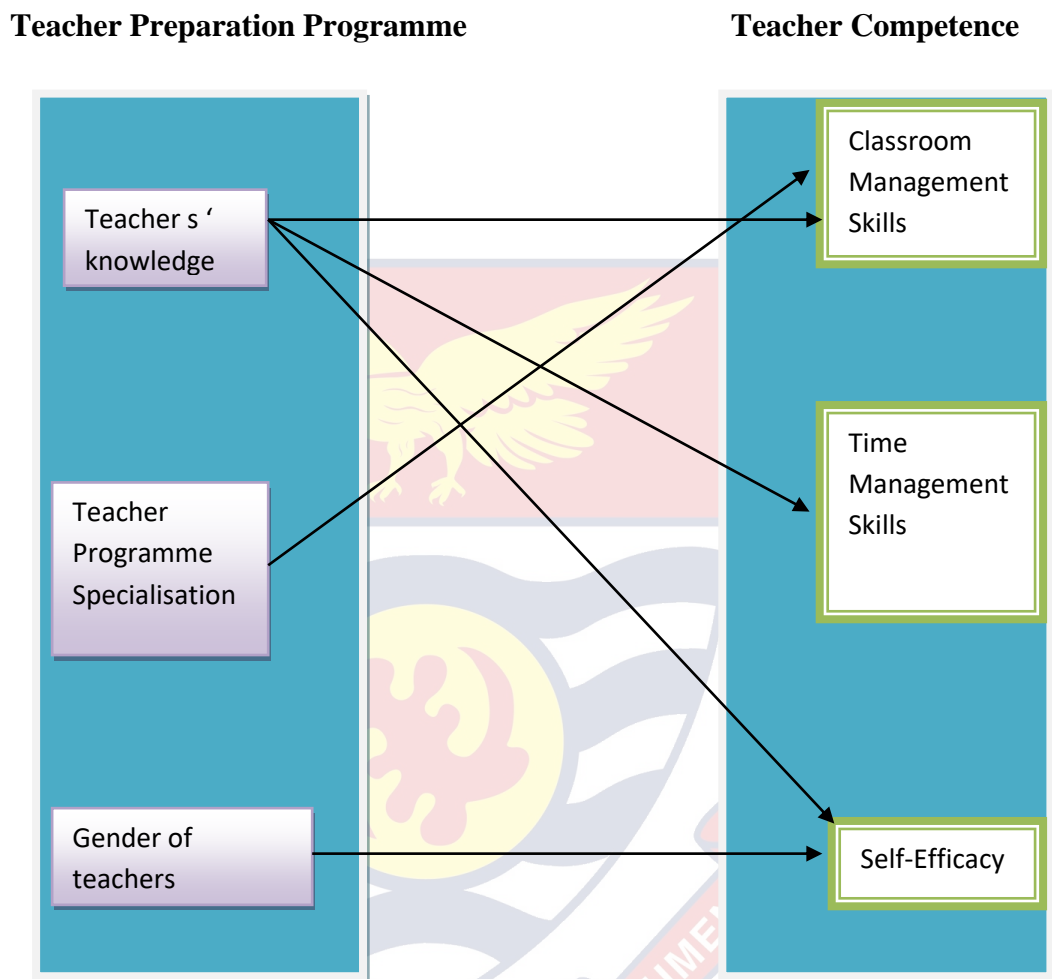
Figure 6: Conceptual Framework

The variables in the study and how they are related give meaning to the investigation as presented in Figure 6. The independent variable is the teacher preparation programme, which consists of theoretical or content knowledge, and practical or pedagogical knowledge, while the dependent variable is the teacher competence which must be reflected by the teachers demonstrating knowledge in inclusive practices, classroom management skills, time

103

management and self-efficacy. It is anticipated that after the pre-service teachers have been exposed to the teacher preparation programme they should be able to show competencies in an inclusive schools. That is why the current study aims at investigating to report on how effective teachers are with respect to inclusive practices in Ghana.

Empirical Research on Classroom Management

Empirical research has demonstrated the importance of classroom management. Little and Akin-Little (2008) concluded a self-assessment survey addressing classroom management practices to 149 teachers, encompassing four major components of classroom management: classroom rules, enhanced classroom environment, reinforcement strategies, and reductive procedures (Little & Akin-Little, 2008). The survey revealed that 83% employed verbal reprimands in response to class disruptions, 97% showed verbal praise used as reinforcement for appropriate behaviour, and 63% showed frequent behavioural problem where students freedoms were revoked, while 10% showed the utilization of corporal punishment in response to chronic offenders. Further, Taila (2009) found that high school student outcomes were better when students perceived the teacher management approach as being well prepared and well organised. Together, the findings of Little and Akin-Little (2008) and of Taila (2009) demonstrate the wide range of teacher utilisation of rules, procedures, and consequences in managing the classroom.

In a study of 22 teachers of grades 3-6, Gilpatrick (2010) discovered found that "100% of the teachers felt that they could become discouraged with the ineffectiveness of their classroom management strategies. Yet, 64% of the teachers claimed that their current strategies are effective in minimizing the

104

disruptions made by noncompliant students." (p. 59-60). The findings of Gilpatrick (2010) demonstrate the importance of determining the optimal classroom management strategies for promoting positive student outcomes. Empirical research comparing the interventionist, noninterventionist, and interactionalist approaches to classroom management began with the Beliefs on Discipline Inventory of Wolfgang and Glickman in 1980. The development of the Attitudes and Beliefs on Classroom Control (ABCC) by Martin, Yin, and Baldwin in 1998 allowed researchers to directly focus on classroom control from interventionist, non-interventionist, and interactionalist perspectives. However, the ABCC and the revised ABCC-R (Martin, Yin, & Mayall, 2007) had unacceptable overlap in inter-item correlation and therefore lacked discriminate validity. For these reasons the Behaviour and Instructional Management Scale (BIMS) (Martin & Sass, 2010) was designed to provide a psychometrically sound measuring instrument for determining interventionist, noninterventionist, and interactionalist approaches to instructional and behavioural classroom management. Crucial to appreciating the background of the proposed study, interventionist, non-interventionist, and interactionalist management styles can now be reliably measured using the Behavioral and Instructional Management Scale (BIMS) (Brannon, 2010; Martin & Sass, 2010). The most essential findings that are behind this study are from Martin and Sass (2010). Classroom management is "multi-faceted contracts that includes two independent constructs: Behavior Management and Instructional Management" (Martin and Sass, 2010, p. 1126). Martin and Sass (2010) performed three studies on the Behaviour and Instructional Management Scale (BIMS). These studies included 550 K-12 certified teachers from the

Southwestern United States. In the initial study, Martin and Sass (2010) assessed a shortened form of the 24-item BIMS using an exploratory factor analysis. The factor analysis showed a reliability of 0.85, respectively. As for the second study, the validity and reliability was investigated through using a confirmatory factor analysis in another shortened version of the survey. Both factors, behavioural and instructional management revealed a good internal consistency (alpha = .77). After the previous studies, Martin and Sass (2010) felt discriminate and convergent validity should be tackled on the BIMS. This prompted the last study conducted. Martin and Sass (2010) did a comparison between the BIMS and a short version of the Ohio State Teacher Efficacy Scale (p.1126).The study revealed a good overall model fit. The findings of these studies verified that the Behaviour and Instructional Management Scale successfully measures teachers' beliefs of their practices in the areas of behaviour and instructional management. In addition to the verification of the BIMS, Martin and Sass suggest the 24-item BIMS for use in future studies to incorporate a relationship across gender, grade levels, and content areas.

Additional research studies have conferred similar results to Martin and Sass's (1998, 2010) findings. Baker's (2005) research study was seeking to discover the self-efficacy beliefs of Ohio's 345 public school teachers. The teachers utilising the survey came from an array of academic areas. The survey was designed by the author, which consisted of two components: a mixture of Brouwers and Tomic's (2001) Teacher 40 Interpersonal Self-Efficacy and Bullock, Ellis, and Wilson's (1994) survey instrument. Both components used a Likert scale to investigate the classroom management techniques of teachers. Overall, the authors reported a correlation between

teachers' perceptions of classroom management and willingness to control unpleasant classroom behaviors displayed by students. Santiago (2012) found that, in high school teachers, formal examination scores varied across a wide range in both instructional classroom management and in behavioural classroom management. Brannon (2010) explored the relationship between student academic success and classroom management beliefs on fifth grade English language arts and math scores.

Brannon (2010), used the Attitudes and Beliefs on Classroom Control (ABCC) Inventory-R to identify teachers as interventionist, non-interventionist, and interactionalist, so that "the lower survey score results in a less controlling (non-interventionist) ideology, and the higher survey score results in a more controlling (interventionist) ideology" (p. 48). Mathematics achievement were assessed using the California Standards Test (CST) database. For the forty-one fifth grade teachers who participated, Brannon (2010) identified that ELA and math scores significantly differ by group for 4th grade students, but cautioned, "It is important to note that the means are higher for ELA for noninterventionist, teachers with a less controlling ideology, while for Math, there was a higher mean for Interactionalist teachers who mix both controlling and non-controlling ideologies." While the lack of significant differences between interventionist, non-interventionist, and interactionalist teachers in student achievement suggests that classroom management styles may not be important in student achievement, Brannon's (2010) study suffered from weaknesses that must be addressed before concluding that 41 classroom management and student achievement are independent of each other. First, Brannon (2010) only included four (4) non-

interventionist teachers. That is, because statistical power is a function of sample size (Creswell, 2003), Brannon's (2010) study may have lacked the statistical power to show significant differences. Further, Brannon used the ABCC-R, which has questionable psychometric properties (Martin & Sass, 2010) compared to the more modern BIMS scale.

Furthermore, Brannon combined ABCC-R people management with instructional management into one overall categorization that may not be reflective of behavioral and instructional classroom management. Additionally, while Brannon (2010) measured standardized scores on statewide tests (which can be useful), compliance with AYP guidelines were based on percentage of students passing core studies. Lastly, Brannon (2010) measured the relationship between demographic variables and teacher instructional style, but failed to include the covariates in determining the relationship between instructional style and student outcomes. This is important, because demographic variables can have effects on relationships (Baron & Kenny, 1986).

Additional empirical evidence from other scholarly works conflict with the conclusions of Brannon (2010). Bennett (2001) revealed that classroom climate correlated with mathematics achievement. Khatib and Ghannadi (2011) studied English Language Learners and report of significantly higher scores for the interventionist groups over the noninterventionist in the recognition and production of phrasal verbs. Moore (2008) assessed 270 students and 19 grammar school classroom teachers and concluded that "the findings of this research study suggest that relationships exist between some classroom management strategies and higher student achievement scores in

diverse elementary settings; (P 95) The published literature includes reflections on the impact of experience and demographic variables on classroom management. Some studies evaluated here indicate a relationship between a teacher's classroom management style (non-interventionist, interventionist, and interactionalist) and the teacher's demographic variables (Baker 2005; Cerit, 2011; Little & Akin-Little, 2008). Santiago's (2012) study indicates that gender, number of years of teaching, and highest education degree can affect BIMS instructional management scores in high school teachers. Experience may matter, as Hicks (2012) suggests that classroom management skills may be learned 'on the job' (p. 87). Green (2006) cautioned that "years of experience in the classroom do not guarantee exemplary results with regards to classroom management" (p. 88) while Lanoue (2009) agreed that classroom management skills can be acquired by teachers through training.

Further supporting the differential efficacy of classroom strategies, Green (2006) measured four elementary school "master classroom managers" and found that all the four were in the interactionalist range of the ABCC. Green concluded, "While the number of participants was small, it can be theorised that other teachers identified as "master" classroom managers, using the same criteria for identification, would have beliefs and practices similar to those identified in this study" (pp. 99-100). Clearly, no study to date has definitively determined the relationship between instructional and behavioural classroom management strategies applied in the classroom. To determine the effect of teacher classroom management approach on students, 43 outcomes above any possible effects of teacher demographics, what is needed is a study

that incorporates teacher ideology derived from the (interventionist, non-interventionist, and interactionalist) in both instruction management and behavior management dimensions, along with teacher demographics towards identifying differences in the percentage of students passing statewide exams in reading and mathematics.

Teachers' Self-Efficacy

Building on her earlier research, Romano (2008) advances the discussion about first-year teachers' successes and struggles. She explains that understanding the concerns of first-year teachers can provide insights into how teacher efficacy can be enhanced through teacher education programmes as well as through induction programmes that provide support to new teachers. Beginning teachers must possess the ability to structure environments that lead to successful student learning within the unique context of a classroom. The increasing demands of student diversity, inclusive education, and new standards for student development and learning place greater responsibilities on these teachers.

Two of Romano's earlier investigations provided the groundwork for her expanded research. In her qualitative study, a wider sample of beginning teachers was sought to incorporate various grade levels taught, school districts, and teacher education programmes. Romano examines the successes and struggles of six beginning teachers who were employed during their first year of teaching in the same school district and three teachers who had graduated from the same teacher education programme and accepted positions teaching third grade. The categories of first year teacher struggles from the earlier investigations were represented in this study as defined in the following list:

110

Classroom management, content and pedagogy, external policy, personal issues, parents, report card grading, student learning, special needs students, and teacher evaluation. Classroom management was the second largest category with seven of the nine participants identifying 15 classroom management struggles, followed by 14 struggles with personal issues described by six participants. All other categories had significantly fewer struggles and were discussed by only one, two, or three teachers.   The categories of successes and struggles described by these beginning teachers could be introduced into teacher education programs to raise awareness of the complexities of practice that prospective teachers will face during their first year.

Darling-Hammond's (2000) study of 2,302 novice teachers explored the relationships between teachers' views of their preparedness and their efficacy in the classroom. In addition, she looked at their views on their academic preparation and strategies to remain in teaching. Teachers who felt more prepared were considerably more likely to have confidence that they could impact all of their students, manage disruptions in the classroom, teach all students to great levels, and make a difference in the lives of their students. Those who felt under-prepared were significantly more likely to feel unclear about how to teach certain students and more prone to accept as truth that students' peers and home environment influence learning more than teachers do.

The average ratings of graduates of traditional teacher education programmes were significantly higher than teachers from alternative education programmes (Darling-Hammond, 2000). Novice teachers who had taken other

paths into teaching felt less prepared than teacher education program graduates overall. Teachers who acquired state certification through transcript evaluation, who had taken all of the required certification courses but not necessarily from a single institution had lower average scores. The area in which novice teachers felt the least prepared based on transcript evaluation was instructional planning. Teachers who entered through alternative pathways such as Peace Corps, Teach for America, or Teacher Opportunity.

Corps also rated their initial preparedness significantly lower than did graduates of teacher education programs. Teachers who started teaching on emergency credentials without previous experience in classrooms rated their preparedness significantly lower than graduates of teacher education programmes. The overall ratings of both alternative program completers and those with no previous experience received a rating of 3 ("adequately prepared"), implying that novice teachers who had no teacher preparation often felt inadequately prepared when they entered teaching. These feelings of preparedness are also significantly related to teachers' sense of efficacy and their confidence about their ability to achieve teaching goals (Darling-Hammond, 2000). This research is consistent with the findings of other research revealing that those who enter teaching with minimum professional education have significant problems in the classroom and that they have a tendency to leave teaching at higher rates than those with professional preparation (Darling-Hammond, 2000).

Merrett and Wheldall (1993) conducted controlled interviews with 176 secondary school teachers to obtain their interpretations of their early specialised training and their consequent real-world experience, with specific

attention to classroom behaviour management. The results showed that most teachers believed classroom management skills were of great importance and that nearly three-quarters were disappointed with the training in this area. Many of their participants believed that their colleagues spent too much time dealing with order and control, and 38% thought they themselves did as well. Most teachers showed an interest in attending training courses in classroom or behaviour management. Many thought that such preparation could lower stress in teachers and help to decrease disruptive behaviour among their students. Teachers who have documented positive and supportive induction programmes tend to also show better skill in the classroom and are more likely to be retained (Darling-Hammond, Berry, & Thoreson, 2006).

Summary of Literature Review

Based on the definitions and the discussions seen so far in the literature reviewed, it is apparent that the concept of inclusive education simply refers to the type of education in which children with special educational needs and disabilities are placed in the regular classroom with children without disabilities to learn together, where the schools is supposed to make the necessary adaptations and modification within the school to enable every child fit into the regular classroom. This trend has resulted to a paradigm shift with regard to education for children with special educational needs and disabilities in many countries including Ghana. However, the literature reviewed reveal that for inclusion to be a reality, many factors must come into play. One of these factors is teacher preparation for inclusive education.

It was evident from the literature reviewed that teachers' knowledge, skills and competencies are essential elements for effective implementation of

113

inclusive education. Hence, if teachers are not equipped with the necessary skills to enable them adapt and accommodate children with special educational needs and disabilities in the regular education classroom, inclusion would not be a reality. Teachers are key implementers of educational policy and need to be prepared adequately to enable them function effectively in the educational environment. It is on this premise that this study sought to gather data from teachers in Ghana to find out how adequately they are prepared for effective inclusive education in Ashanti region, Ghana. It is expected that the findings from this study would serve as contribution to knowledge and encourage government, policy makers and tutors to improve teacher preparation programmes for successful inclusive education in Ghana.
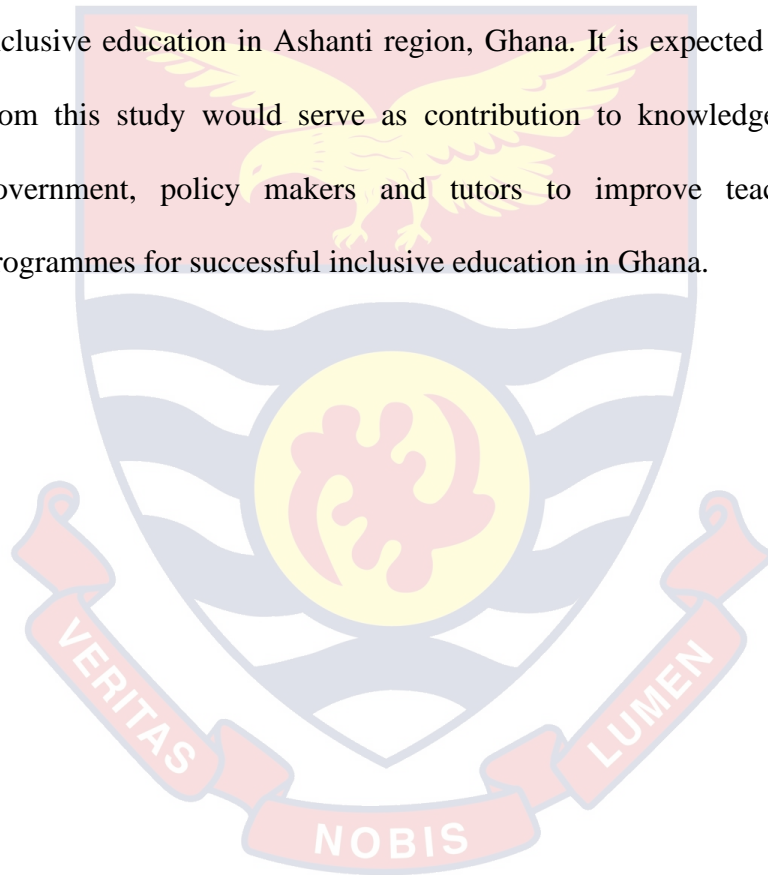
CHAPTER THREE

RESEARCH METHODS

This chapter focuses on the research method that guided the study. It describes the research design, population, sample size and sampling procedures. The chapter also discusses the procedures for data collection and analysis of data.

Research Design

Research design is seen as the blue print, which specifies how data relating to a given problem should be collected and analysed. It provides the procedural outcome for the conduct of any investigation. Gay (2002) stated that research design entails the structure of a study, the nature of the hypotheses and the variables involved in the study.

The choice of research design for a particular study is based on the purpose of the study according to the views of Cohen, Manion and Morrison (2007) and Creswell (2013). Since this study aimed at finding out the current practices of teachers in basic schools in Ghana with respect to their effectiveness in inclusive education practices, descriptive survey was considered the most appropriate design for the study. Survey techniques was used to collect data, answer research questions and test hypotheses to enable the researcher ascertain respondents' perceptions on the current practices for easy description of the situation and to make intelligent recommendations to improve the situation.

115

Cohen, Manion and Morrison (2007) assert that, surveys are appropriate for this type of research because they allow the collection of data which may be used to assess current practices and conditions and to make intelligent plans to improve them. Fraenkel and Wallen (2003) also state that obtaining answers from a large group of people to a set of carefully designed and administered questions, lies in the heart of survey research. Since inclusive education is a current educational practice in Ghana and the researcher was interested in finding how well teachers are prepared effectively for inclusive practices in general education classroom, survey was considered the most appropriate design for the study. This is because it allowed the researcher to broadly explore participants' preparation for and perceptions of their roles in inclusive classroom.

The subsequent collection and analysis of qualitative data will target research questions five and six and this will inform the interpretation of the initial quantitative results. The findings will then enable the researcher to explain why participants feel as they do.

Population

Population refers to the aggregate of cases about which a researcher would like to make generalisations. Nitko (2004) defined a population as the entire aggregation of cases that meet a designated set of criteria. The population for the study was Basic School teachers in Asante Region who have five years teaching experience in an inclusive schools. The figure stands at 10,978 teachers as at September 2018. Out of this, an accessible population of 7052 teachers in inclusive schools in the region were considered for the study.

Sampling Procedure

A sample, according to Cohen, Manion and Morrison (2007) can be determined in two ways, either by the researcher exercising prudence and ensuring that the sample represents the wider features of the population or by using a table which forms a mathematical formula. On the basis of this, the Krejcie and Morgan's (1970) table for determining sample size was used to get appropriate sample from the population of teachers in Ashanti Region. According to them, a population of 7052 corresponds to a sample of 365. A multi stage sampling technique was used to select the sample size.

Stage One

Purposive sampling technique was used to select one district and two municipalities from the Asante Region. The District and Municipalities were Ejisu Municipality, Obuasi Municipality and Sekyere South District. The reason for the selection of these municipalities is that they are the municipalities within Asante Region which the pilot programme of the Inclusive Education in Ghana started and therefore the researcher believes that he would get teachers with practical experience from inclusive classroom to answer the research questions. Purposive sampling was used to select inclusive schools for this study because they had the desired information. The aim of purposeful sampling is to choose respondents who have some breadth of experience, with common traits, who would likely provide relevant information that would address the purposes of the study (Gall, Gall, & Borg, 2003; Patton, 2002).

Stage Two

Purposive sampling technique was used to select schools from the various Districts. This is because not all the schools in the District and Municipalities practice inclusive education programme, so only the schools within the municipalities that are practicing inclusive education were selected to be part of the study. This enabled the researcher to sample teachers who are working directly in an inclusive schools and therefore could be in the position to report that they have the necessary skills to manage their inclusive classroom effectively as well as having proper time management and self-efficacy that will make them very effective teachers in an inclusive classroom.

Stage Three

Simple random technique was used to select the actual participants who took part in the study. This technique was used to enable the researcher give equal chances to all the teachers who are teaching in the inclusive schools that have been selected within Asante Region. The researcher identified all the teachers in the pilot inclusive schools and listed all their names on sheet. The individual teachers' names were written on small sheet of paper and put in a small bowl mixed them up and teacher picked them on random basis. Any name that was picked, took part in the study. The process continued until the entire elements who were to take part of the study were selected.

Interview with Teachers

Out of the 365 teachers that were sampled for the study, 20 teachers were purposely selected and interviewed to help provide more information and explanation for research questions five and six. Each interview lasted between

10 and 15 minutes. Purposively selecting the teachers for the interviews, one teacher was selected from each of the 20 schools. Selecting the interviewees for the study, the researcher ensured that every school was represented. The rationale for the distribution of the sample was that the researcher wanted each school to be well represented for the interview.

Data Collection Instruments

A questionnaire and interview guide were used for the study.

Questionnaire

A questionnaire was used for the study because it offered the researcher the opportunity to sample the views of a larger population. A questionnaire was considered particularly suitable since inclusive education is a policy issue; teachers will be free to give their views without fear of victimization. It also provides large amounts of data, at relatively low cost, in a short period. Participants can also be assured of anonymity and so they may be more truthful in responding to the questions. The researcher identified the key issues relating to inclusive education practices such as teachers' knowledge on inclusive practices, classroom management skills, time management and self-efficacy and developed questionnaire to gather data from the teachers for the study to know how well their initial preparation programme had prepared them to function effectively in an inclusive classroom. In respect of the structure of the questionnaire, it consists of 5 main sections, and the sections are discussed as   follow:

Section A: This section elicited demographic information such as gender, programme specialisation and the number of years of teaching after college. This section comprised of 4 close-ended questions

119

Section B: This section gathered information on teachers' knowledge on inclusive practices and it consisted of 15 items.

Section C: This section elicited information on teachers' classroom management skills and it consists of 11 items.

Section D: This section gathers information on teachers' time management skills which consists of 9 items.

Section E: This is the last section of the questionnaire and it focuses on the self-efficacy of teachers. It consists of 14 items.

Apart from Section A, all the other sections were on a four point scale. The options on the scale were SA (strongly agree), A (agree), D (disagree), SD (strongly disagree).

Interview Guide

An interview guide was also prepared to further gather information on specific areas such as, how the initial teacher preparation programme from college helped the teachers to become effective in an inclusive classroom. The teachers were also interviewed on what they think should be done to improve the training programmes for effective inclusive education in Ghana. Semi-structured interview guide, consisting of 10 items, was developed to guide the interview process. It was developed in three main sections, A, B and C (see Appendix B). Section A elicited background information about the respondents, that is, their gender, age-range and educational qualification(s). Section B elicited information on effectiveness of teacher preparation programme at the Colleges of Education. Section C elicited information on teachers' suggestions to improve teacher preparation programme in Ghana.

120

Validity and Reliability of the Instrument

According to Fielding and Gilbert (2000), validity is the extent to which an indicator accurately measures a concept. The focus of validity is not on the instrument itself but on the interpretation and meaning of the scores derived from the instrument (Ary, Jacobs & Razavieh, 2002). That is, an indicator of some abstract concept is valid to the extent that it measures what it is purported to measure.

O'leary (2004) describes reliability as related to internal consistency. Internal consistency meant that data collected, measured or generated remained the same under expect trials. It is therefore necessary to ensure that research instruments are reliable in case the research method is repeated elsewhere with different samples. Therefore, reliability was ensured through expect judgment and pre-testing.

According to Wallen and Fraenkel (1991), the content validity and face validity of research instrument must be determined by expert judgment. Therefore, to ascertain the content validity and reliability, the items constructed in the questionnaires was shown to senior members in the Department of Education and Psychology, University of Cape Coast including the supervisors. This was to examine: (a) whether they were related to the research questions; (b) whether they elicit the appropriate responses from the respondents; (c) whether the vocabulary structure were appropriate; (d) whether the items were properly arranged; (e) if items fitted into sections had been placed in; and (g) whether any of the items were ambiguous and misleading. The suggestions they gave were used to improve the instruments

121

and thereby helped to establish the face and content validity. Factor analysis was conducted to establish the construct validity of the instrument.

With respect to reliability, a pre-testing was conducted to determine the reliability of the instrument. Cohen, Manion and Morrison (2007) opine that pre-testing involves checking for clarity of items, instructions and layout as well as to gain feedback on the questionnaire. Additionally, pre-testing fosters the elimination of ambiguities or difficulties in wording. The research instrument was pre-tested at Cape Coast in the Central Region of Ghana after series of discussions with my supervisors and other lecturers, who are experts in developing research instruments. The pilot study was conducted to determine whether questionnaires would be understood by the sample to be surveyed.

Table 1 (Summary of Cronbach Alpha results) presents the results of the reliability analysis for the entire teachers' preparatory programme questionnaire and the various subscales using the version 25 of the SPSS software.

Table 1- *Summary of Cronbach Alpha Results*

Sections	Number of items	Cronbach Alpha value
B. Teachers knowledge	15	.672
C. Classroom management	15	.841
D. Time management	15	.816
E. Self-efficacy	15	.810

Source: Field survey, Amoako (2019)

Table 1 clearly shows that the entire study questionnaire is of high content validity since the Cronbach Alpha value obtained was (α =.901). Considering the subscales of the novice teachers' preparatory programme questionnaire, almost all (three) subscales (Scales C, D and E) had high content validity since they obtained Cronbach Alpha values of .841, .816 and .810 respectively which are all more than the expected Cronbach Alpha value (α =.7). This is supported by Kline (as cited in Field, 2005) who noted that although the generally accepted value of 0.8 is appropriate for cognitive tests such as intelligence tests, for ability tests, a cut-off point of 0.7 is more suitable. He goes on to say that when dealing with psychological constructs like in my case, values below 0.7 can, realistically, be expected because of the diversity of the constructs being measured.

Results from the Factor Analysis

The 60 items of the novice teachers' preparatory programme questionnaire were subject to principal component analysis (PCA) using SPSS version 25. Prior to performing PCA, the suitability of data for factor analysis was assessed. Inspection of the correlation matrix revealed the presence of many coefficients of 0.3 and above. The Kaiser-Meyer-Oklin (KMO) value

123

was .712, exceeding the recommended value of 0.6 (Kaiser, 1970, 1974). In addition, Kline (2011), Cerit (2010), and Pohlmann, 2004 indicated that KMO values between 0.5-1.0 are considered to be high and therefore, KMO value for this study is assumed to be high. The Bartlett's test of sphericity was $\chi2 = 4284.055$, $p < 0.05$. These results indicate that the factor analysis is suitable for the group.

Two fit statistics were computed: The chi-square to degrees of freedom ratio ($\chi2/df$) and the goodness-of-fit index (GFI). A $\chi2/df$ ratio of less than 3 is considered to be indicative of a good fit between the observed and reproduced correlation matrices (Kline, 2011). Constraining the 60 items to fall onto four latent factors, generated a $\chi2/df$ ratio of 2.42. A GFI of $\chi2 = 4284.06$, $p = .0\ 0$ are values that indicate that the model "fits" the input data well. The four latent factors model appears to be the best fitting representation of the input data. The results from the confirmatory analysis are presented in Appendix B.

Principal components analysis revealed the presence of seventeen (17) components with eigen values exceeding 1, explaining 15.9 percent, 8.6 percent, 4.9 percent, 4.7 percent, 4.3 percent, 3.6 percent, 3.2 percent, 3.0 percent, 2.9 percent, 2.5 percent, 2.3 percent, 2.2 percent, 2.2 percent, 2.1 percent, 2.0 percent, 2.0 percent and 1.8 percent of the variance respectively. An inspection of the screen plot revealed a clear break after the forth (4th) component. Using Catell's (1966) scree test, it was decided to retain four (4) components for further investigation. This was not supported by the results of Parallel Analysis (***refer to Appendix B***), which showed seven components with eigen values exceeding the corresponding criterion values for a randomly generated data matrix of the same size (60 variables ×160 respondents).

124

To aid in the interpretation of these four components, Oblimin ratio was performed. The rotated solution revealed the presence of simple structure (Thurstone, 1947) with the four (4) components showing a number of strong loadings and all variables loading substantially on only one (1) component. The four (4) component solution explained a total of 34.1 percent, with component 1 contributing to 15.8 percent, component 2 contributing to 8.6 percent, component 3 contributing to 4.9 percent and component 4 contributing to 4.7 percent respectively.

There was a weak positive relationship between: factor one and two ($r = .111$) and factor three and four ($r = .12$). Nevertheless, there was a weak negative relationship between, factor one and three ($r = -.043$), factor one and four ($r = -.281$), two and three ($r = -.114$) and factor two and four ($r = -.275$). Again, there was a weak negative relationship between factors one and four. The results of this analysis support the use of knowledge on inclusive practices, classroom management skills, time management skills, and self-efficacy for effective inclusive education items as separate scales, as suggested by the scale authors (Watson, Clark & Tellegen, 1988).

Interview guide

The interview guide was pilot-tested in Cape Coast, at Ghana National Basic School. Five teachers in the school were interviewed. They all had pupils with special educational needs and disabilities in their classes. For ethical reasons, the interviewees, three males and two females, were informed about the purpose of the pilot testing and their written consent was elicited for the

125

exercise. They were contacted by phone prior to the interview through a friend who works with them in the same school. Information about the interview was given and the time and venue for the interview were agreed on. The teachers were also asked to give their verbal consent. Each interview lasted between 10 to 15 minutes each for each of the interviewee.

The piloting showed that teachers needed time to think and compose their responses to the questions. Hence, I decided to give them about 30 seconds before prompting a response during the main study. In some cases, the questions had to be repeated before they attempted to answer. The interviewees fully understood all the questions asked and answered to the best of their knowledge. Piloting the interview helped me to estimate the time it would take to conduct the interviews and the type of questions teachers might ask for clarification.

Data Collection Procedure

This research study used two main data collection instruments, these instruments were questionnaires and scheduled interview to collect data. Questionnaire were administered by the researcher to all the respondents in their various schools. At each school, the researcher met the respondents at their Staff Common Room during their break time where most of the teachers were free to respond to the questionnaire. The researcher explained the purpose of the study to the respondents before the questionnaires were distributed to them. The researcher stayed with them and had some interactions with them when they were responding to the questionnaire.

126

This motivated the respondents to respond to the questionnaire and asked for further clarifications on some of the items for which they needed more information on. The researcher appealed to all the respondents to take their time to read the questionnaire and respond to it appropriately before they left school. The researcher visited the schools individually and spend the full working hours with the respondents in each School. This enabled the researcher to administer the questionnaires and collect it on the same day. After the administration of the questionnaire, some of the teachers were selected for the interview section. This enabled the researcher to get detail information on of the issues.

During the interview, all the interviewees were given copies of the interview schedule to study before the interview was conducted. This was to facilitate interaction between the interviewer and the interviewees. The interviewees were assured of confidentiality and also that at no point in time would their identities be revealed. No participant was pressured or forced to participate in the study. The principles of informed consent and voluntarism were strictly adhered to. All the interviewees were interviewed in their own various schools during the researcher's visit.

To ensure that the data were accurately recorded, permission was sought from the interviewee to tape-record the session. Furthermore, after the interviews, the tape was played back to each interviewee. This was to enable participant to correct comments, add additional information or simply validate what they had said during the interview.

Data Management Issues

Data generated from the field needs to be documented and edited before one could analyse. This involves transcribing, auditing the survey instruments, coding, entering and editing using software. In order to execute good data management practices, the researcher solely handled the filled inventories to ensure that information given out by respondents did not end up in wrong hands, due to the sensitive nature of the data. After the data were collected, they were securely stored in a locked cabinet to prevent other people from having access to it. After the data were entered in the computer, they were protected with a password. Respondents were required not to write their names on the instrument so as to provide anonymity to help ensure protection of respondents. Code numbers that were assigned were used to identify respondents. To maintain the integrity of this study and the University of Cape Coast, I ensured that accurate data were used so that results were verified and data could be reused in future.

Data Processing and Analysis

Quantitative data

In every research, data collected becomes meaningful only when it is organized and summarised. The statistical software that was used for analyzing the data from this study was the Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS) now, the Statistical Product for Service Solutions version 21. This study adopted the survey design and as a result, descriptive statistics (frequencies and percentages) was used to analyse the demographic characteristics of the respondents.

128

The research questions 1, 2, 3 and 4 were analysed using means and standard deviations. Ary and Jacobs (1976) encourage that researchers use descriptive statistics to organise, summarise, interpret and communicate information obtained. The questionnaire was coded, edited and categorised. Tables were constructed to represent the four likert type scale response subgroups of "strongly agree", "agree", "disagree", and "strongly disagree" for analysis. The weightings on the likert type scale were used to obtain a midpoint. Thus, (1+2+3+4 = 10). Hence, the total divided by the number of scales gave the criterion point. Statistically, $10 \div 4 = 2.5$. To interpret the scores an individual gets on the items, it was done in relation to the criterion. Above 2.5 means that there is a positive influence or effect and below 2.5 represents a negative impact or effect.

The hypotheses one, two and three were tested using Pearson's product moment correlation (r). This enabled the researcher to describe the linear relationships that exist between the variables. The Pearson's product moment relation was adopted in analyzing the hypotheses one to three because the variables were continuous in nature.

Hypothesis four was analysed using the one-way analysis of variance (one way ANOVA), since there were more than two independent variables which were continuous in nature. Finally, the research hypothesis five was tested using independent sample t-test, since the samples were only two and the items again were continuous in nature.

Qualitative data

The response from the interview guide was analysed descriptively under the specific themes. Thematic analysis, the most common analytic

method in qualitative research, was employed to analyse the responses to the open-ended type of items on the questionaire. Thematic analysis is a flexible approach to analyzing qualitative data that involves identifying, analyzing, and reporting themes within the data. The themes are recurring coded phrases, terms, and expressions across datasets that are important to the description of a phenomenon and are associated with a specific research question. The themes then become the categories for analysis (Braun & Clarke, 2006; Given, 2008). The thematic analysis of the qualitative data was performed through the process of coding in six phases described by Braun and Clarke (2006) and Attride-Stirling (2001). First, the researcher read the data repeatedly to familiarise himself with the depth and breadth of the data. This involved marking ideas and patterns for coding. The second phase involved generating initial codes by attaching names to pieces of texts that related to specific research questions and the theoretical framework of the study. In the third phase, the codes were analysed and sorted into potential themes. The potential themes were reviewed and refined in the fourth phase. In this phase, some of the themes were collapsed into each other and others were discarded. The fifth phase involved defining and naming themes by identifying the aspect of the data that each theme captures and how each theme was related to the research question or questions.

Ethical Consideration

Ethical issues which were considered in this study included issues of informed consent, invasion of privacy, anonymity of respondents, voluntarism and plagiarism. The research submitted a research protocol that set out in detail the procedure to be followed during the field survey to the Institutional

Review Board of the University of Cape Coast. The proposal highlights the proposed research design, methodology, written consent forms for students as well as explanatory literature in the procedures for ensuring confidentiality, voluntary participation, and anonymity. In addition, information on the objectives of the study and a debriefing session for respondents and immediately following administration of questionnaires were adhered to. Introductory letters were sent to the management and the heads of all the schools I visited for their approval, and they were received before the research commenced. The research sought the permission of all participants in the research before the conduct of the study (information consent). The researcher made telephone calls and prior visits to the school heads in order to pre-arrange data gathering periods. This was to prevent unnecessary interrupting in their work schedule thereby not invading their privacy. Neither names nor any identifiable information from respondents was solicited as a way of ensuring the ethical principle of anonymity in social research was not breached. This was to prevent possible victimisation of respondents in cases where certain responses might be viewed as injurious to management. While distributing the questionnaire, the researcher verbally informed all respondents who agreed to answer questionnaires that their participation was voluntary. They could, therefore opt out at any stage of the research process.

Also, respondents were told that they could also skip questions they did not know the answers, otherwise any guess they made would be taken as a correct answer for analysis of the data. This was to ensure that the researcher did not breach the ethical principles of voluntarism to participate in social research. Pieces of information cited from earlier studies that investigated

knowledge and practices of behaviour modification techniques of pre-service teachers to support analysis of the study were duly acknowledged through both in-text citation and bibliography. This was meant to avoid academic dishonesty or plagiarism. Findings cited in the literature review of this study were also duly acknowledged in line with the academic property law.

Chapter Summary

The study made use of quantitative and qualitative line of enquiry and utilised a descriptive survey design to guide the investigation. Three hundred and sixty five (365) participant were used for the study. Questionnaire and interview guide were used for data collection. Protocols for Institutional Review Board was followed and the data collection exercise spanned a period of sixteen weeks. Descriptive statistics (Means and Standard deviations) and inferential statistics (Pearson's product moment correlation, one way ANOVA and independent sample t-test) were used to answer research questions and test hypothesis.

132
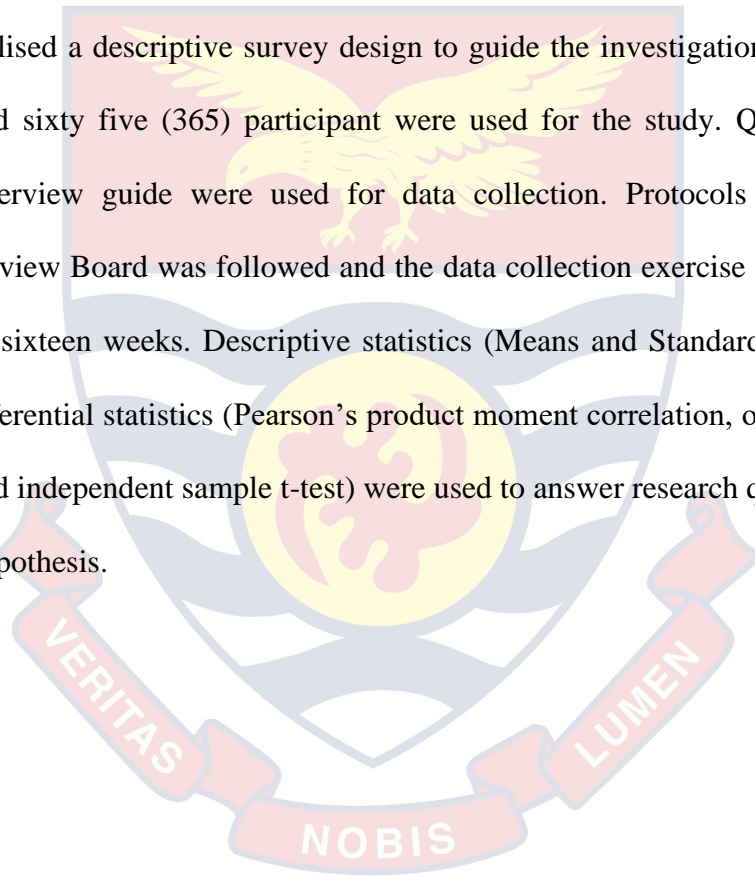
CHAPTER FOUR

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

Introduction

This chapter presents the analysis of the data and discussion of the results. The presentation is divided into four sections (A-D). The first section presents the background information of respondents. The second section focuses on the results for the research questions, and the third section discusses the results for the research hypotheses. Finally, the fourth section is concerned with the discussions of the results.

Section A: Demographic Information of Participants

This section deals with the results of the demographic data of participants. The results are presented in Tables 2 and 3.

Distribution of Respondents by Gender

Item 2 of the questionnaire requested respondents to indicate their gender. Table 2 shows the distribution of respondents by gender.

Table 2 - *Distribution of the Gender of the Respondents*

Sex	Frequency	Percentage
Male	136	37.0
Female	232	63.0
Total	**368**	**100.0**

Source: Field survey, Amoako (2019)

Table 2 shows that 232 (63.0%) of the respondents were females and 136 (37.0%) were males. The results indicates that there were more female respondents than males.

Table 3 presents the results of the areas of specialisation of the teacher respondents used in the study. Table 3 presents the results of the analysis of the respondents on areas of specialization of the respondents.

Table 3 - *Distribution of the Areas of Specializations of the Respondents*

Courses	Freq.	%
Asante Twi	3	.8
Creative Arts and English	1	.3
English & Citizenship Education	1	.3
English & R.M.E	1	.3
English & Social Studies	5	1.3
English Language	17	4.6
English Language & ICT	2	.5
French	2	.5
General programme	255	69.2
Ghanaian Language & Culture	6	1.5
Home Economics	5	1.4
ICT	7	1.9
Integrated Science	3	.8
Language and Literacy	3	.8
Literacy & Creative Arts	1	.3
Mathematics	11	3.0

Table three continued

Mathematics & B.D.T	1	.3
Mathematics & English Language	2	.5
Mathematics & ICT	1	.3
Mathematics & RME	1	.3
Mathematics & Technical	1	.3
Mathematics, Citizenship Edu. & Creative Arts	2	.5
Mathematics, Creative Arts & ICT	1	.4
Mathematics, Music & Environmental	1	.4
Natural Science & Creative Arts	1	.4
Numeracy & Physical Education	1	.4
Pre- Tech	2	.6
RME	2	.6
R.M.E, Science & Creative Arts	1	.4
RME & English Language	2	.5
Science	4	1.1
Science & Technical	2	.6
Social & English	1	.3
Social & ICT	1	.4
Social Studies	13	3.6
Social Studies & RME	1	.3
Twi & Maths	1	.3
Total	**368**	**100.0**

Source: Field survey, Amoako (2019)

135

Table 3 shows that 255(69.2%) of the respondents specialised in the general programme. Also, 17(4.6%) of them specialised in English Language. On the other hand a number of areas had only one person specialising in that area. These include Twi, Mathematics and Social studies.

The results show that those who offered General programmes formed the majority of the respondents. This implies that majority of the pre-service teachers' offer General programmes during their pre-service teacher preparation stage.

Section 2: Analysis of the Main Research Questions

Research Question 1: How does teacher preparation programme equip teachers with knowledge about inclusive practices?

This research question was to ascertain how the teachers' preparation programme has equipped them with knowledge on inclusive practices. Items 5 to 19 on the questionnaire were used in eliciting quantitative data to answer this research question. Means and standard deviations of the various items were used in answering this research question. This was done by looking at the aggregated means of the respondents on each of the research questions.

The respondents were to choose from a set of alternatives on a 4-point Likert type scale weighted as Strongly Agree = 4, Agree = 3, Disagree = 2 and strongly disagree =1. A midpoint of this was used to determine whether the respondents had good knowledge or not. Thus, (4+3+2+1 = 10; 10 ÷ 4 = 2.5) if the mean of means falls above the cut-off mean of 2.5, then it is interpreted as high knowledge, while if is below 2.5 is interpreted as low knowledge. Table 4 shows the means and standard deviations of the knowledge of the teacher respondents on inclusive practices. It shows the analysis of the results

136

of the responses of the knowledge the teachers have about inclusive practices in Ghana.

Table 4 - *Means and Standard Deviations on the Knowledge of Teachers on Inclusive Practices*

Statement	Mean	Std. Dev.
I have knowledge on how to identify various categories of children with special educational needs and disabilities in inclusive classroom.	3.33	.56
I know how to include all children during instructions in an inclusive classroom	3.30	.63
I have knowledge on various characteristics exhibited by children with special educational needs and disabilities in inclusive classroom	3.22	.57
I am able to identify the children with special educational needs and disabilities in an inclusive classroom	3.21	.63
I have knowledge on how to select and use appropriate strategies or methods of teaching that will ensure that all children in the inclusive class benefit from the instructions	3.19	.70
I have knowledge in selecting appropriate learning experiences for children with special educational needs and disabilities in inclusive schools.	3.04	.66

Table four continued

I have knowledge on how to select appropriate tool/instrument for assessment of children with special educational needs and disabilities	3.03	.68
I know how to adapt curriculum content to meet the learning needs of all children in inclusive classroom	3.02	.73
I can collaborate with other professionals from the field of medicine, education, psychology and social services etc. to form multi-disciplinary team for assessment	2.89	.83
I have knowledge and skills to design teaching aids that will cater for the needs of all children in the inclusive classroom	2.88	.80
I know the various placement options where persons with special educational needs can be placed for instructions	2.87	.80
Novice teachers can monitor and evaluate Individualized Education Plan (IEP) to make a decision	2.68	.81
I know how to develop Individualized Education Programme (IEP) for children with special educational needs and disabilities	2.61	.81
I know assistive devices such as Braille embossers, hearing aids, white cane, wheelchairs, scooters and crutches in inclusive classrooms	2.39	.99
I know how to use the various assistive devices to support children with special educational needs in inclusive classroom	2.31	.93
Mean of Means	**2.93**	**.69**

Source: Field survey, Amoako (2019)   N=368

138

Table 4 shows the results on the knowledge of teachers on inclusive practices. The respondents agreed (M=3.33, SD=.56) that they have knowledge on how to identify various categories of children with special educational needs and disabilities in inclusive classroom. Also, they agreed (M=3.30, SD=.63) that they know how to include all children during instructions in an inclusive classroom. When asked if they had knowledge on the various characteristics exhibited by the children with special educational needs and disabilities in inclusive classrooms, they indicated agreement (M=3.22, SD=.57). Furthermore, the respondents agreed (M=3.21, SD=.63) that they are able to identify the educational needs of children with special educational needs and disabilities in an inclusive classroom which clearly indicate that they have knowledge about the nature of the condition. Again, the respondents agreed (M=3.19, SD=.70) that they have knowledge on how to select and use appropriate strategies or methods of teaching that will ensure that all children in the inclusive class benefit from the instructions.

Nevertheless, the respondents disagreed (M=2.39, SD=.99) that they know assistive devices such as Braille embossers, hearing aids, white cane, wheelchairs, scooters and crutches in inclusive classrooms. The greater number of respondents also disagreed (M=2.31, SD=.93) to the fact that they know how to use the various assistive devices to support children with special educational needs in inclusive classroom.

In conclusion, the mean of means scores (M=2.93, SD=.69) is a little more than the cut-off score of 2.5. This therefore implies that the teachers in the Ashanti region have high knowledge of inclusive practices. Considering

the mean cut-off score, the teachers' (respondents) responses were high on 12 of the items on this section of the questionnaire and low on only two items.

Research Question 2: How does teacher preparation programme train teachers to have the skills to manage inclusive classroom effectively?

This research question was to ascertain how the teacher preparation programme has trained teachers to acquire the needed skills to manage their inclusive classroom effectively. Items 20 to 34 on the questionnaire were used in eliciting quantitative data to answer this research question. Again, means and standard deviations were used to analyse this research question. This was done by looking at the aggregated means of the respondents on each of the research questions.

Similarly, the respondents were to choose from a set of alternatives on a 4-point Likert type scale weighted as Strongly Agree = 4, Agree = 3, Disagree = 2 and strongly disagree =1. A midpoint of this was used to determine whether the respondents had good or poor classroom management skills. Thus, (4+3+2+1 = 10; 10 ÷ 4 = 2.5) if the mean of means falls above the cut-off mean of 2.5, then it is interpreted as good classroom management skills, while if it is below 2.5 it is interpreted as poor classroom management skills.

Table 5 shows the means and standard deviations of the teachers' classroom management skills in inclusive classrooms

140

Table 5 - *Means and Standard Deviations on the Measure of Classroom*

Management Skills of Teachers in their Inclusive Classrooms

Statement	Mean	Std. Dev.
I use appropriate rewards for pupils who demonstrate good behaviour in classroom	3.61	.55
I use appropriate teaching approaches that encourage good interactions among pupils in an inclusive classroom	3.53	.54
I use classroom management techniques such as establishing classroom routine for successful class activities.	3.48	.59
I arrange classroom seats to meet the needs of all children in the inclusive classroom during class activities.	3.47	.63
I collaborate with pupils to set appropriate classroom rules to guide pupils behaviour in an inclusive classroom	3.44	.59
I collaborate with my pupils in an inclusive classroom to achieve the set goals.	3.44	.59
I value diversities among learners and acknowledge every effort each pupil makes in the inclusive classroom.	3.33	.65
I am able to manage the physical environment in an inclusive classroom to promote effective learning among pupils	3.33	.65
I am able to enforce classroom rules to control student behaviour	3.32	.68

Table five continued

I apply behavioural intervention techniques such as reinforcement, punishment, shaping, modelling, ignoring and time out to manage behaviour in inclusive class.	3.31	.70
I am able to get students in the classroom to follow the rules at all times to promote effective inclusive classroom activities.	3.28	.64
I encourage and establish pupils' self-control through the process of promoting positive students' achievement	3.25	.65
I use techniques and strategies that are culturally aligned with pupils' cultural background in an inclusive classroom	3.14	.71
I always try to identify the intent of pupils misbehaviour in an inclusive classroom	3.13	.67
I have skills in managing multiple situations at a time in an inclusive classroom.	3.04	.68
Mean of Means	**3.34**	**.63**

Source: Field survey, Amoako (2019)   N=368

The Table 5 shows the teachers' classroom management skills in inclusive classrooms. For instance, the respondents agreed (M=3.61, SD=.55) that they use appropriate rewards for pupils who demonstrate good behaviour in classroom. The respondents agreed (M=3.53, SD=.54) also that they use appropriate teaching approaches that encourage good interactions among pupils in an inclusive classroom. Also, they agreed (M=3.48, SD=.59) that they use classroom management techniques such as establishing classroom routine for successful class activities. Considering the sitting arrangement, the respondents agreed (M=3.47, SD=.63) that they arrange classroom seats to

meet the needs of all children in the inclusive classroom during class activities.

Furthermore, the respondents agreed (m= 3.44, SD = 59) to the fact that they collaborate with pupils to set appropriate classroom rules to guide pupils' behaviour in an inclusive classroom and also, they collaborate with their pupils in an inclusive classroom to achieve the set goals respectively. In addition, the respondents (M=3.33, SD=.65) agreed that they value diversities among learners and acknowledge every effort each pupil makes in the inclusive classroom and they are able to manage the physical environment in an inclusive classroom to promote effective learning among pupils respectively. The respondents agreed (M=3.32, SD=.68) that they are able to enforce classroom rules to control student behaviour in an inclusive classroom. Again, the respondents agreed (M=3.31, SD=.70) that they apply behavioural intervention techniques such as reinforcement, punishment, shaping, modeling, ignoring and time out to manage behaviour in inclusive class.

In a nutshell, the results on the Table 5 reveal that the teachers' respondents adopt good classroom management skills in managing inclusive classrooms by an overall mean of 3.34 and a standard deviation of .63. Using the mean cut-off of 2.5, the teachers' responses were high on all the 15 items in this section of the questionnaire.

Research Question 3: How does teacher preparation programme train teachers to manage time effectively in inclusive classrooms?

This research question was to ascertain how the teacher preparation programme has trained the teachers to manage their time effectively. Items 35 to 49 on the questionnaire were used in eliciting quantitative data to answer this research question. Means and standard deviations were also used to answer this research question. Again, the aggregated means of the teacher respondents were used to determine the extent of their time management skills in their inclusive classrooms.

The respondents were asked to choose from a set of alternatives on a 4-point Likert type scale weighted as Strongly Agree = 4, Agree = 3, Disagree = 2 and strongly disagree =1. A midpoint of this was used to determine whether the respondents had good time management skills or not. Thus, 2.5 if the mean of means falls above the cut-off mean of 2.5, then it is interpreted as good time management skills in inclusive classrooms while it is below 2.5 it is interpreted as poor time management skills. Table 6 shows the means and standard deviations of the time management skills of the respondents.

Table 6 - *Means and Standard Deviations on the Measure of Time Management Skills of the Teachers in their Inclusive Classrooms*

Statement	Mean	Std. Dev.
I always plan ahead and organise all instruction in advance before instructions start.	3.47	.58
I adjust and use instructional hours well to promote substantial learning among all pupils in an inclusive classroom	3.44	.62
I monitor the time pupils use on task during instructions so that they do not waste time unnecessarily	3.44	.62
I avoid procrastination as far as work schedules are concerned.	3.43	.65
I use the calendar to plan and organize my time and all other activities to be carried out in an inclusive classroom.	3.42	.66
I am able to stay focus without diverting from the objective during classroom instructions	3.41	.64
I work diligently to meet every deadline in my field of profession	3.36	.58
I am able to set and prioritize goals based on the time available.	3.34	.61
I ensure that I always work within a stipulated time for specific lesson.	3.32	.66
I always assign tasks that align with the pupils' needs and interest to motivate them to accomplish task on time.	3.29	.68

145

Table 6 Continued

I am able to handle distractive behaviour of pupils within a short possible time so that it does not affect instructional hours in inclusive classroom	3.23	.61
I always ensure self-regulatory activities in inclusive classroom in order to use instructional hours effectively.	3.21	.63
I plan my workload based on the resulting impact of the completed task in the classroom	3.20	.59
I arrange my workload based on the importance of the task in inclusive classroom	3.19	.57
I always draw my daily schedules and follow them strictly in inclusive classroom	3.17	.68
Mean of Means	**3.33**	**.62**

Source: Field survey, Amoako (2019)   N=368

The results from Table 6 clearly indicate the time management skills of the teachers in their inclusive classrooms. To start with, the respondents agreed (M=3.47, SD=.58) that they always plan ahead and organise all instructions in advance before they start. The majority of the respondents agreed (M=3.44, SD=.62) that they adjust and use instructional hours well to promote substantial learning among all pupils in an inclusive classroom and also, they monitor the time pupils use on task during instructions so that they do not waste time unnecessarily. Considering their discipline towards work schedules, the majority agreed (M=3.43, SD=.65) that they avoid procrastination as far as work schedules are concerned. Furthermore, the respondents agreed (M=3.42, SD=.66) that they use the calendar to plan and organise their time and all other activities to be carried out in an inclusive

classroom. Also, the respondents agreed (M=3.41, SD=.64) that they are able to stay focused without diverting from the objective during classroom instructions. In addition, the respondents agreed (M=3.36, SD=.58) that they work diligently to meet every deadline in their field of profession. Similarly, the respondents agreed (M=3.34, SD=.61) that they are able to set and prioritize goals based on the time available. Last but not least, the respondents agreed that they ensure that they always work within a stipulated time for specific lesson.

In a nutshell, the results shown on the Table 6 implies that the teacher respondents adopt good time management skills in their inclusive classrooms. This is due to the fact that their mean of means score was 3.33 which is above the cut-off mean score of 2.5. In addition, the responses to all the 15 items on this section of the questionnaire were all above the mean cut-off score.

Research Question 4: What is the level of teachers' self-efficacy in inclusive classroom?

This research question was to ascertain the level of teachers' self-efficacy in inclusive classrooms. Items 50 to 64 on the questionnaire were used in eliciting quantitative data to answer this research question. Means and standard deviations were the main descriptive statistics used in answering this research question. This was done by looking at the aggregated means of the respondents on each of the research questions.

The respondents were to choose from a set of alternatives on a 4-point Likert type scale weighted as Strongly Agree = 4, Agree = 3, Disagree = 2 and strongly disagree =1. A midpoint of this was used to determine whether the respondents had high self-efficacy or not. Thus, (4+3+2+1 = 10; 10 ÷ 4 = 2.5)

147

if the mean of means falls above the cut-off mean of 2.5 then it is interpreted as high self-efficacy of teachers in teaching in their inclusive classrooms while if below, it is described as low self-efficacy. Table 7 shows the means and standard deviations results of the analysis of the responses on the self-efficacy of the respondents.

Table 7 - *Means and Standard Deviations on the Measure of Self-efficacy of the Teachers in their Inclusive Classrooms*

Statement	Mean	Std. Dev
I am able to provide clear and reasonable consequences for behaviour in inclusive classroom	3.13	.65
I am confident in creating a variety of assessment tasks including authentic assessment portfolio, work sample analyses etc.	2.88	.80
I have confidence in using assistive technology in helping children with special educational needs to learn in inclusive classroom	2.85	.89
I engage students in intellectually challenging experiences in inclusive school	2.44	1.09
I can always manage to solve difficult problems of pupils with special educational needs in inclusive schools	2.41	1.06
I am confident in using inclusive oriented pedagogical strategies to promote learning among all learners in an inclusive classroom.	2.24	1.06
I believe that my initial teacher preparation programme has trained me enough to handle all disruptive behaviour of children with special educational needs.	2.19	.96

Table seven continued

I am confident to develop learning programmes that cater for students' interests	2.04	1.01
I can implement child-centred learning experiences in an inclusive school	1.90	.91
I am capable of planning appropriate learning experiences for pupils in an inclusive classroom	1.87	.87
I am confident that I possess the practical knowledge and skills to handle the diverse educational needs of children with special educational needs in inclusive classroom.	1.80	.81
I believe that I can cooperate with other professionals to help children with special educational needs learn in an inclusive classroom.	1.78	.88
I am confident in implementing effective behaviour management strategies in inclusive classroom	1.68	.95
I am confident that my initial teacher preparation programme has equipped me with the theoretical knowledge to teach in inclusive classroom	1.66	.63
I am confident that my initial teacher preparation programme has adequately equipped me with skills to use curriculum differentiation to help children with special educational needs to achieve instructional goals.	1.60	.88
Mean of Means	**2.16**	**.90**

Source: Field survey, Amoako (2019)   N=368

The results on the Table 7 show the self-efficacy of the teachers in their inclusive classrooms. From the Table, the majority of the respondents agreed (M=3.13, SD=.65) that they are able to provide clear and reasonable consequences for behaviour in inclusive classroom. Furthermore, most of the respondents agreed (M=2.88, SD=.80) that they are confident in creating a

variety of assessment tasks including authentic assessment portfolio, work sample analyses etc. Also, the respondents agreed (M=2.85, SD=.89) that they have confidence in using assistive technology in helping children with special educational needs to learn in inclusive classroom.

Nevertheless, most of the respondents disagreed to most of the items on the questionnaire. For instance, the majority of the respondents disagreed (M=1.90, SD=.91) to the fact that they can implement child-centred learning experiences in an inclusive school. When asked if they are capable of planning appropriate learning experiences for pupils in an inclusive classroom, most of the respondents disagreed (M=1.87, SD=.87). In addition, the majority of the respondents disagreed (M=1.80, SD=.81) to the emphatic statement that they are confident that they possess the practical knowledge and skills to handle the diverse educational needs of children with special educational needs in inclusive classroom. The majority of the respondents disagreed (M=1.78, SD=.88) that they are confident in implementing effective behaviour management strategies in inclusive classroom. Again, when asked if the teacher respondents were confident in implementing effective behaviour management strategies in inclusive classroom, they disagreed (M=1.68, SD=.95). In addition, most of the respondents disagreed (M=1.66, SD=.63) that they are confident that their initial teacher preparation programme has equipped them with the theoretical knowledge to teach in inclusive classroom. Lastly, the results on the Table 7 clearly indicate that most of the respondents disagreed (M=1.60, SD=.88) that they are confident that their initial teacher preparation programme has adequately equipped them with skills to use

curriculum differentiation to help children with special educational needs to achieve instructional goals.

In conclusion, the results on Table 7 imply that teacher respondents used in the study have low self-efficacies since their overall means score (M=2.16, SD=.90) was below the mean cut-off of 2.5. The results on the Table shows that the mean scores of their responses to only three of the 15 items on this section of the questionnaire were high.

Analysis of the Research Hypotheses

The research hypotheses one to five are presented in Tables 8 to 12 respectively.

1.H_0: There is no statistically significant relationship between teachers' knowledge on inclusive practices and their classroom management skills

H_1: **There is statistically significant relationship between teachers' knowledge on inclusive practices and their classroom management skills.**

In an attempt to answer the research hypothesis one stated for this study, the Pearson's Product Moment correlation coefficient was used to test if there is a statistically significant relationship between the knowledge of the respondents and their classroom management skills in their inclusive classrooms. The directions and degrees of relationship were also indicated. Both variables were continuous and therefore the assumptions of the statistical tool adopted was not violated. Results of the analysis is presented in Table 8.

151

Table 8 - *Correlation (Pearson) between Knowledge of Teachers on Inclusive Practices and their Classroom Management Skills*

		Knowledge	Classroom Management skills
Knowledge	Pearson Correlation	1	.355**
	Sig. (2-tailed)		.000
	N	368	368
Classroom Management skills	Pearson Correlation	.355**	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	
	N	368	368

** $p < 0.01$(2-tailed). R^2=.13 (13%).   Source: Field survey, Amoako (2019)

As shown in Table 8, the Pearson's Product Moment correlation (r) was run to determine the relationship between the knowledge of teachers and their classroom management skills. The results on the Table 8 shows a weak statistically significant positive relationship between teacher respondents' knowledge and their classroom management skills (r = 0.355; n = 368; *p*> 0.00). Therefore, the null hypothesis (H_o) was rejected. This implies that there is a statistically significant relationship between teachers' knowledge of inclusive practices and their classroom management skills. The positive correlation implies that the decrease in teachers' knowledge on inclusive practices will lead to a decrease in their classroom management skills. The coefficient of determination (r^2) is 0.13. This means that their knowledge on inclusive practices explains 13.0% of variation in their classroom management

skills. Therefore, the remaining 87.0% of the variations may result from other unknown factors. All in all, the result shows that knowledge of inclusive practices significantly relates to classroom management skills of teachers in inclusive classroom.

2. *H_0*: **There is no statistically significant relationship between teachers' knowledge on inclusive practices and their time management skills**

H_1: **There is statistically significant relationship between teachers' knowledge on inclusive practices and their time management skills.**

To answer the research hypothesis two formulated in this study, the Pearson's Product Moment correlation coefficient was used to test if there is a statistically significant relationship between the knowledge of the teacher respondents and their time management skills in their inclusive classrooms. In the analysis, the directions and degrees of the relationship between the variables were established. Both were continuous variables and therefore the assumptions of the statistical tool adopted was not violated. The results of the analysis is presented in Table 9.

Table 9 - *Correlation (Pearson) of the Knowledge of Teachers on Inclusive Practices and their Time Management Skills in their Inclusive Classrooms*

		Knowledge	Time Management skills
Knowledge	Pearson Correlation	1	.324**
	Sig. (2-tailed)		.000
	N	368	368
Time Management skills	Pearson Correlation	.324**	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	
	N	368	368

** $p < 0.01$(2-tailed). R^2=.10 (10%).   Source: Field survey, Amoako (2019)

The Table 9 shows the results of the Pearson's Product Moment correlation on the relationship between the teachers' knowledge on inclusive practices and their time management skills in inclusive classrooms. The results in Table 9 show a weak statistically significant positive relationship between the teachers' knowledge and their time management skills in their inclusive classrooms (r = 0.324; n = 368; p> 0.00). Again, the null hypothesis (H_0) was rejected in favour of the alternate hypothesis (H_1). This implies that knowledge of inclusive practices significantly relates with teachers' time management skills. The positive relationship implies that teachers' low level of knowledge on inclusive practices will lead to a low level of their time management skills in inclusive classrooms. The coefficient of determination (r^2) is 0.10, which implies that teachers' knowledge on inclusive practices

154

explains 10.0 % of variation in their time management skills in their inclusive classrooms. Therefore, the remaining 90.0% of the variations are due to unknown factors. In sum, the result on this hypothesis clearly indicates that there is statistically significant relationship between teachers' knowledge on inclusive practices and their time management skills.

3. H_0: **There is no statistically significant relationship between teachers' knowledge on inclusive practices and their self-efficacy.**

H_1: **There is statistically significant relationship between teachers' knowledge on inclusive practices and their self-efficacy in inclusive schools.**

The Pearson's Product Moment correlation coefficient was used to test if there is a statistically significant relationship between the knowledge of the teachers' and their self-efficacy in their inclusive classrooms. For better understanding of the relationship between the two variables, the direction and degree of their relationship were indicated. Both variables were continuous and therefore the assumptions of the statistical tool adopted was not violated. The results of the analysis is presented in table 10.

Table 10 - *Correlation (Pearson) of the Knowledge of Teachers on Inclusive Practices and their Self-efficacy in their Inclusive Classrooms*

		Knowledge	Self-efficacy
Knowledge	Pearson Correlation	1	-.227**
	Sig. (2-tailed)		.000
	N	368	368
Self-efficacy	Pearson Correlation	-.227**	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	
	N	368	368

** $p < 0.01$(2-tailed). R^2=.05 (5.0%).   Source: Field survey, Amoako (2019)

155

Table 10 shows the results of the Pearson's Product Moment correlation on the relationship between the teachers' knowledge on inclusive practices and their self-efficacy in teaching in inclusive classrooms. The results in Table 10 show a weak statistically significant inverse relationship between the teachers' knowledge and their self-efficacy in teaching in inclusive classrooms (r = -0.227; n = 368; $p>$ 0.00). The null hypothesis (H_0) was therefore rejected. This implies that knowledge of inclusive practices significantly relate with teachers' self-efficacy in teaching in inclusive classrooms. The inverse relationship implies that teachers' high knowledge on inclusive practices will lead to a low self-efficacy in teaching in their inclusive classrooms. The coefficient of determination (r^2) is 0.05. This may mean that teacher's knowledge on inclusive practices explains 5.0 % of variation in their self-efficacy in their inclusive classrooms and therefore, the remaining 95.0% percent is due to unknown factors.

4.*H_0*: **There is no statistically significant difference between programme specialisation of teachers and their classroom management skills.**

H_1: **There is statistically significant difference between programme specialization of teachers and their classroom management skills.**

Hypothesis 4 sought to investigate the difference in the teachers' classroom management skills with respect to their programme specialisation. One-Way Analysis of Variance was used to test the hypothesis at 0.05 alpha level.

Before the main test (one-way ANOVA) preliminary analysis was conducted to test if the necessary assumptions were not violated. First, the

normal Q-Q plot was inspected. The output of the graph shows that, the normality assumption is not violated since most of the plots were closer to the diagonal line on the graph (see Appendix E). Next, the data was tested for "Homogeneity of Variances" assumption. In the light of this, Levene's test was inspected and the significance value of the test was p=.207. The significance value suggests that variances within the factors are assumed equal and hence, "Homogeneity" of variances assumption not violated.

Summary of the results is shown in Table 11.

Table 11 - *One-way ANOVA Test for Programme Specialisation of Teachers*

	Sum of Squares	Df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	782.484	21	37.261	1.478	.162
Within Groups	8722.913	346	25.211		
Total	**9505.397**	**367**			

p < .05 significant level   Source: Field survey, Amoako (2019)

The result in Table 11 reveals that, there was no statistically significant difference between the programme specialisations of the teachers and their classroom management skills [F(21, 346)=1.478, p=.162]. The null hypothesis was not rejected. The result therefore implies that there is no statistically significant mean difference among programme specialisations of the teachers and their classroom management skills.

5. *H_0*: **There is no statistically significant mean difference between gender of teachers and self-efficacy.**

 H_1: **There is a statistically significant difference between gender of teacher and their self-efficacy.**

Hypothesis 5 sought to find out whether significant differences exist between male and female teachers with respect to their choice of instructional strategies for teaching pupils with special educational needs and disabilities. The hypothesis was tested using independent samples t-test at 0.05 alpha level. The data was tested for two primary assumptions; Normality and Equality of variances assumptions. First, in checking the normality assumption, the normal Q-Q plot was inspected. The output of the graph shows that, the normality assumption was not violated since the plots were either on or closer to the diagonal line (see Appendix B). Secondly, the data was also checked for "equality of variance" assumption. This was done by inspecting the Levene's test for equality of variances. This actually test whether the variation of scores for the two groups (Male and Female) were the same. After thorough inspection, the significance level of Levene's test was (p=.094). This shows that equality of variances assumption was not violated.

Details of the results are presented in Table 12.

Table 12 - *Independent t-test of Gender of Teachers and their Self-efficacy in Inclusive Classroom*

Gender	N	Mean	SD	*T*	Df	**P**
Male	136	31.92	3.51			
				-1.983	366	.048
Female	232	32.77	4.10			

p < .05 significant level   Source: Field survey, Amoako (2019)

The independent samples t-test for equality of means show statistically significant difference where, *t* (359) = -1.983 and, p= .048. The null hypothesis (H_0) was therefore rejected. This implies that there is a calculable difference between the male (M= 31.92, SD= 3.51) and female (M= 32.77, SD= 4.10) teachers with respect to their self-efficacy in their inclusive classroom.

Qualitative Results

How has teacher preparation programme helped to make teachers effective in inclusive schools?

This qualitative research question was intended to find out from practicing teachers the effectiveness of the initial teacher preparation programme on teachers that has helped promote effective Inclusive Education in Ghana. Therefore, respondents' views were sought and they were analysed descriptively by categorizing all the views from the teachers into themes. The various information were discussed under the following themes:

Identification and Assessment

The teachers interviewed confirmed that the initial teacher preparation programme they experienced during their pre-service period equipped them with the knowledge on the various characteristics of children with special

159

educational needs and disabilities in inclusive classrooms. This is in good direction because having knowledge on learner characteristics will enable the teachers to identify all children with special educational needs and disabilities in an inclusive classroom.

For instance, one of the respondents indicated,

> *I'm able to identify children with SEN because I'm better placed to know their characteristics....Now I'm able to use a number of methods in helping children with SEN..... Last time for example, I observed that one boy will squeeze the face anytime he was writing......I observed him closely for two weeks and I identified that he had a problem with eye. Now he is getting better and he is doing well in class because of my assistance.* (TIIC 1)

This account points to the fact that teachers have the knowledge to indentify and assess children with SEN in inclusive schools. For example, the following excerpt succinctly represents a participant's views:

> *….It has not been easy at all, problems children with SEN, their parents, colleague teachers and the pupils. In all these, I have stood resolute and hoping for the best for children with SEN.I am able to identify children with SEN in my class. ...If I could remember I have had 9 different cases in my school. ...I was able to observe and identify 3 of them much early so today they doing well and competing fairly in the inclusive class.* (TIIC 2)

160

Selecting appropriate methods and teaching and learning materials to teach in inclusive classroom

The teachers interviewed reported that they were trained with the skills to select appropriate methods of teaching that would meet the needs of every child in the inclusive classroom. They reported that they adopted strategies that would meet all the diverse needs of all learners in an inclusive classroom. These views were evidently in the voice of the respondents as follows

> *...I treat each child as different even though they are all together in one class. I am able to select appropriate pedagogical strategies to benefit each child in the class. At first it was difficult but now I don't struggle at all…. I get to see children with SEN also doing their part in class and contributing meaningful in the classroom.* (TIIC 5)

Another respondent had this to say to indicate that he had become familiar with selecting appropriate teaching and learning material to help all the pupils in the classroom.

> *….I didn't like the idea of coming to this school at first because they practice inclusive education. I thought it would give me much work but now I'm more or less a consultant for other teachers ….hahahaha (respondent laughing). ….I look at each child before planning my lesson and I'm to select appropriate teaching and learning materials that will match the methods I will be using in teaching the pupils. ….Many a time too, I practise IEP for SEN children who delay in catching up.* (TIIC 7)

161

Developing positive attitudes towards persons with disabilities

The respondent reported that the training they received at the College of Education exposed them to the scientific causes of disabilities thereby debunking the misconceptions they had about persons with disabilities. This according to the teachers enables them to develop positive attitudes towards inclusive education and persons with disabilities in general. As one respondent had this to say

> *.... I have no regrets at all in dealing with children with SEN. They are lovely people to deal with. I think I treat them well and show them optimum love. ....I think it's because of my knowledge in dealing with children with SEN. I must be honest... if you don't have a good idea in handling such children you will be very frustrated and you will treat them anyhow.* (TIIC 6)

Another had this to say in relation to the fact that she had been dealing with SEN children with a positive attitude.

> *....If you will stay till closing you will observe that some of them will follow me to my home...Apart from doing everything to make them happy in class and to learn effectively, I cook for them, I buy the uniforms, shoes, and many more. I treat them like I would treat my own children. ...they like me and I like them too. ...by so doing I have gotten their mates to also treat such children with all the respect and affection they deserve...and they doing well in class.* (TIIC 9)

162

Collaborating with other professionals to manage children with SEN

The teachers reported that they hardly get support from parents and other professionals in the inclusive schools to effectively handle children with special educational needs and disabilities. A respondent indicated that,

…Atimes I get angry…really angry at the way some of my colleagues speak to children with SEN. …but I don't blame them that much…if you call parents and they don't show up… why won't some teachers treat them like rags?.... Atimes I wonder if all the teachers read psychology of teaching special needs….no…exceptional children. …Even the district education officers, how many times have they been here to see to the needs of children with SEN….even when they come how do they react to them?....so for me I will say I don't get any support to help children with SEN and that makes me angry.
(TIIC 8)

Another respondent spoke plainly in bringing out her frustration with the lack of support in teaching children with SEN

…I have taught for five years….I ask myself ….are we serious as a nation? How can we bring children who have difficulties of hearing and seeing and those without in one classroom and yet fail to provisions to cover the needs of all these children…. You look at the curriculum ….what shows it is inclusive oriented type of curriculum? How many parents with SEN children are enlightened to know what they are supposed to do to help teachers cater for their kids well? My own colleagues

163

are even suspects….my brother, there is no collaboration or

support from anywhere. (TIIC 11)

What suggestions do you give to improve teacher preparation programmes at Colleges of Education for effective inclusive education?

This research question was intended to elicit views from practicing teachers on how pre-service teacher preparation for inclusive education would be improved in Ghana. Therefore, respondents' suggestions were sought and they were analysed descriptively by categorizing all the suggestions from the teachers into themes. The various suggestions were discussed under the following themes:

Continuous professional development for Teachers

Among the suggestions made by practicing teachers' in Ghana to improve on teacher preparation for effective inclusive education in Ghana included regular in-service training programme for teachers' on inclusive education to help them update their knowledge and skills in special needs education. For example, a teacher suggested that

> *…I think specialists in the field of special education should be*
>
> *made to organise refresher programmes for all teachers on*
>
> *special education. There must be an in-service training within*
>
> *the circuit or district on a regular basis….There are times you*
>
> *go for workshops on inclusive education ...you listen to the*
>
> *facilitators and you don't know the head and tail of what they*
>
> *are saying...atimes you do your checks and you get to know*
>
> *that their backgrounds are at variance with special education.*
>
> (TIIC 13)

164

Another teacher's suggestion buttresses continuous professional development for teachers and parents.

> *...I think teachers be trained regularly on special education related issues to refresh their minds so that they can prepare appropriate teaching and learning materials and select the best methods that will work for all learners in the inclusive classrooms. ...I think if they make it twice a term for each teacher that won't be a bad idea at all. ...but they should also find a way of reaching the parents of children with SEN. Most of them don't understand anything about the needs of the wards....I belief that it why they are not able to support teachers to assist their kids.* (T11C12)

Special Education as a Core/Mandatory Course

Special education is one of the core/mandatory professional courses all teacher-trainees take as part of their training. This holds promise for inclusive education in Ghana. However, the interviewees in this study were of the view that special needs education, as one of the educational courses in the Colleges of Education, is not given the attention it deserves. This is because it is taught as a two credit hour course in only one semester of the whole three-year programme. The interviewee indicated that the content of the syllabus is not inclusive oriented and elaborate enough to produce teachers who could effectively cater for children with special educational needs and disabilities in the inclusive classroom. Following is the verbal statement of the interviewee who made the statement that;

165

… I think that the 2 credit hour semester course read by pre-service teachers in special education for two hours is not enough to prepare teachers adequately for effective inclusive education in Ghana. ….I suggest that the scope of the curriculum be broadened to cover several educational needs of children so that it can span for the entire three year education programme. ...that is to say they read an aspect in first year, an aspect in second year and another aspect in final year. I belief this will prepare them well for the task ahead in teaching in inclusive classrooms. (TIIC 10)

Another interviewee shared a similar view with respect to the fact that more inclusive related courses should be introduced in teacher education programmes to help train prospective teachers to be equipped with knowledge and skills to handle children with special educational needs and disabilities effectively.

…I suggest the content of special education as a course studied at College of Education must be inclusive oriented to prepare teachers to have adequate knowledge on inclusive principles and practices…. I belief it should place them in a position that can make them teach to meet the diverse needs of all learners in the inclusive classroom….I see the current one as good but very shallow and narrow….if you come to the field that is where you see the actual cases….I think it is doable.
(TIIC 13)

166

Practical Experience with children with special educational needs and Disabilities

On how to improve teacher preparation for effective inclusive education, some of the teachers suggested that there should be an opportunity for teachers to have practical experience with children with special educational needs and disabilities during their initial preparation programme. The suggestion was to embark on field trips to special schools. They were of the view that theory is different from practice and therefore when the theories are taught in the classroom to the student teachers, they should also be given the opportunity to practice whatever had been taught in the classroom so that they would better understand the concept. The verbal statement of the interviewee who made the suggestion;

...I suggest that pre-service teachers be made to embark on field trips to some of the special schools and inclusive schools to have a practical feel of some of the children with special educational needs and disabilities and observe how teachers use specific teaching techniques and strategies in inclusive classrooms. ...I belief this will enhance their understanding of what they learnt in school and become more profound in dealing with SEN children in inclusive schools. (TIIC 17)

Another succinctly made her suggestions to reflect the fact that practice is of essence. She had this to say:

.....I think that the 'Demonstration Schools' in various Colleges of Education in Ghana should be turned into inclusive schools. ...This can help trainees to easily get access to the schools and

167

practice the inclusive principles they learn in the classroom….Quit apart from this, there can be a model school in every circuit well-endowed with facilities, equipments and personnel to run effective inclusive education. Trainee teachers can be practicing there to get hands on experience in inclusive education. (TIIC 19)

The Use of Assistive Technology

The respondents were also of the view that to improve in pre-service teacher preparation for effective inclusive education in Ghana, student teachers must be exposed to the use of certain assistive devices such as Braille embossers, hearing aids, white cane, wheelchairs, scooters and crutches that are used in special education classroom. Teachers should have basic skills in the use of these devices to support a child with special educational needs and disabilities in the inclusive classroom. Assistive devices are equipment and materials that are used in special education services. When general education teachers could be trained in the use of these equipments, they could use them in the inclusive classroom to support the child with special educational needs and disability to be able to maximize his/her potentials in the inclusive classroom.

Some respondents also suggested the following

…I think the study of sign language and Braille should be included in the curriculum for the Colleges of Education in Ghana. This will help pre-service teachers to acquire some basic skills in sign language and Braille to enable them support children who may have hearing difficulties as well as those

168

> *with visual problems in the inclusive classroom. ...There was this boy in class two (name withheld) who had problems with sight, Sir...we needed even snellen chat to do some basic assessment of his visual acuity level.* (TIIC 11)

Another teacher also indicated that

> *...I suggest that the would-be teacher should be trained to be able to use some basic sign language in the inclusive classroom.....knowledge in sign language and Braille is a pre-requisite kills for the general education teacher to succeed in the inclusive classroom.* (TIIC 11)

Courses should be handled by experts

Additionally, some teachers interviewed suggested that experts must be allowed to handle various courses at the college to ensure quality teacher preparation for inclusive education in Ghana. To do this, there is the need for the National Council for Tertiary Education (NCTE), Institute of Education and the Principals Conference (PRINCOF), to ensure that all the courses pursued in the Colleges of Education are handled by teachers who have the requisite academic and professional skills and competences to teach the various courses.

> *.... I suggest that, the Special Education course read by pre-service teachers at the College of Education in Ghana should be taught by specialists in Special Education. These experts can give practical examples when teaching it to the trainees and also teach it with all commitment and passion....I belief this should be the responsibility of NCTE and management of*

169

the various colleges of Education to ensure that qualified

personnel are hired to impact the knowledge. (TIIC 20)

Another respondent also had this to say

...Back in College some tutors complain that the course they

were teaching were not their subject areas. Even as students,

we could see they come to the classroom to read the

information in the course book to us without any practical

examples to augment our understanding of the course

content....it was a big problem for us and me in particular. ...I

will always insist that qualified people are put in charge to

teach the special education and other inclusive related courses.

(TIIC 14)

Intensive Public Education on Disability Issues

Furthermore, some respondents were of the view that there should be a regular education for the general public especially policy makers, educational leaders and administrators in our various institutions to alleviate the misconceptions about inclusive education. Public education would help to debunk the misconceptions people have about persons with special educational needs and disabilities in the country and thereby show positive attitudes towards persons with disabilities in the country. This would make administrators and educators show much commitment towards pre-service teacher preparation for effective inclusive education. An interviewee suggested that,

170

....policy makers must be educated on the benefits of inclusive education so that they can support the inclusive ideology. ...Many administrators do not show much commitment towards inclusive education as a result of the negative perceptions they hold about persons with disability thereby refusing to provide the materials and equipment needed to train teachers effectively.

Another interviewee also added

....in the advent of social media, advantage can be taken to educate the general public on inclusive education. Last two years, we were here when one parent came and said that her daughter says she had been made to sit on the same desk with a child with SEN....We needed to educate this parent that the condition of the child with SEN was not contagious and that everyone could suffer that condition. It took long period of time for this parent to accept the fact and then agreed that she will talk to her child...My brother so you see...these are some of the things. (TIIC 7)

Section 4: Discussion of the Results

This section discusses the research findings in relation to the perceived impact of the knowledge of the teacher preparation programme on teachers' classroom management, time management and self-efficacy in inclusive schools**.** The interdependent model of teacher preparation programme on teachers' competence in inclusive practice presented in Figure 7 has been developed based on Figure 6 in the literature reviewed in chapter two to account for the findings from this study.

The discussion specifically addresses the following:

171

i. Teachers' knowledge on inclusive practices.

ii. Classroom management skills of the teachers in inclusive classrooms.

iii. Time management skills of the teachers in inclusive classrooms.

iv. Self-efficacy of teachers in inclusive classrooms.

v. Effectiveness of the initial teacher preparation programme on teachers

vi. Suggestions from teachers' to help improve teacher preparation programme for inclusive education in Ghana.

vii. Relationship between teachers' knowledge on inclusive practices and their classroom management skills

viii.   Relationship between teachers' knowledge on inclusive practices and their time management skills

ix. Relationship between teachers' knowledge on inclusive practices and their self-efficacy.

x. Differences among teachers programme specialisation and their classroom management.

xi. Differences between gender and teachers' self-efficacy.

Interdependent model of Teacher Preparation Programme on Teachers' Competence in Inclusive Practice

There are two main variables which emerged from review of the literature (chapter 2), namely, teacher preparation programme and teacher competence. Figure 6 in chapter 2 gives an overview of the areas covered by the literature review and serves as the conceptual framework for the study.

The findings of the study were therefore derived from these areas and were used as a starting point for creating the model of teacher preparation programme on teachers' competence in inclusive education shown in Figure 7. From Figure 7, it could be seen that teacher preparation programme shows three components:

1) Teacher knowledge

2) Gender of teachers

3) Programme specialization of the teachers

Teacher competence also includes three components:

1) Classroom management skills

2) Time management skills

3) Self-efficacy

Consequently, the conclusion I arrived at based on the findings of the present study is that; there is positive weak (.355) relationship between teachers' knowledge and their classroom management skills. In addition, there is a positive weak (.324) relationship between teachers' knowledge and their time management skills. Also, there is a weak negative (-.227) relationship between teachers' knowledge and their self-efficacy. The results on the model indicates a insignificant (.162) difference between programme specialization of the teachers and their classroom management skills. Finally, the difference in gender of the teachers and their self-efficacy was significant (.048). Therefore, there is an interdependent relationship between the two variables (independent and dependent) though, not a strong one. This is the basis upon which the model is named.

Teacher Preparation Programme   **Teacher Competence**

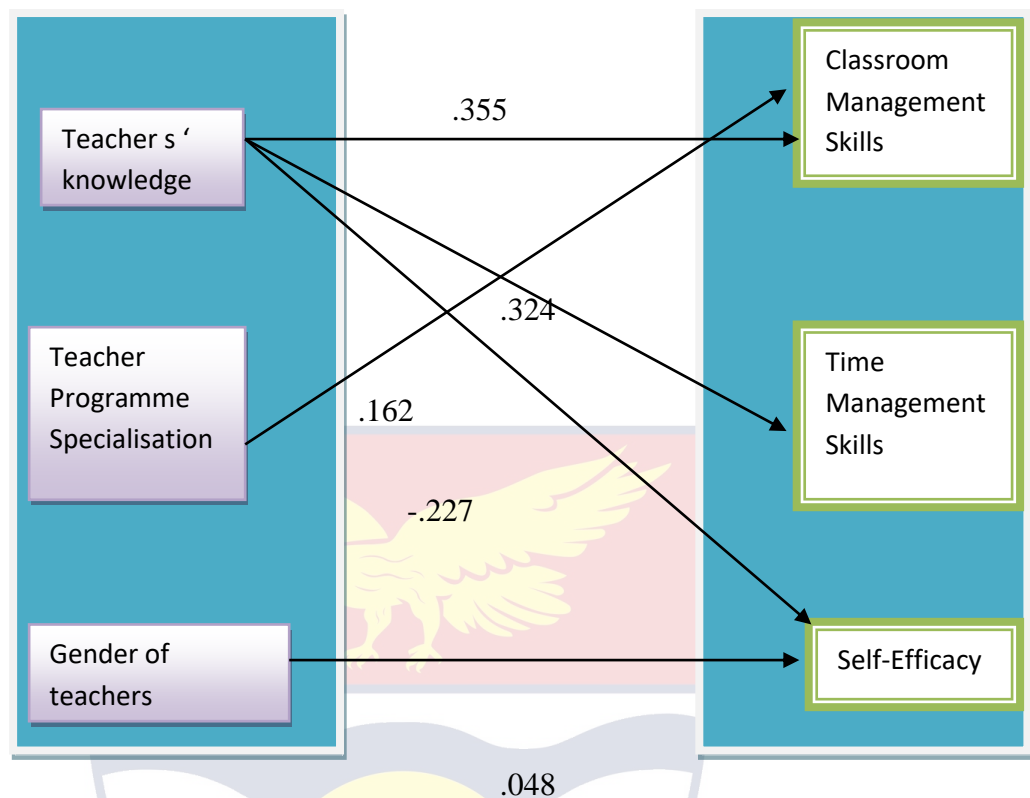*Figure 7:* Final model of Teacher Preparation Programme on Teachers'
　　　　　Competence in Inclusive Classrooms

Teachers' Knowledge on Inclusive Practices

This research question sought to investigate teachers' knowledge of inclusive practices in Ghanaian inclusive schools. From the analysis, the results revealed that teachers teaching in inclusive schools have high knowledge on inclusive practices because the overall mean was 2.93, which was more than the cut-off mean of 2.5. For instance, they agreed that they have knowledge on how to identify the various categories of children with special needs and disabilities in their inclusive classrooms. They know how to include all children during instructions in an inclusive classroom. When asked if they had knowledge on the various characteristics exhibited by children with special educational needs and disabilities in inclusive classrooms, they

174

indicated that they have high knowledge on it. Furthermore, the respondents indicated that they are able to identify the educational needs of children with special educational needs and disabilities in an inclusive classroom which clearly indicate that they have knowledge about the nature of their conditions.

From the findings of the current study, it is clear that teachers have been equipped with adequate knowledge on inclusive practices during their initial preparation stage. This is in right direction because teachers' knowledge of inclusive practices is essential for effective inclusive practices in Ghana. The researcher is of the belief that identification of children with special educational needs and disabilities is crucial. This is because before a teacher can provide any special services to a child who has special educational needs and disability in an inclusive classroom, the teacher must first identify the child's needs and know the type of support the child will require to succeed in the inclusive classroom. According to Kapp (1994), the teacher should be knowledgeable on the identification procedures that should be employed, such as screening, and criterion referenced tests. This was made known in a study he conducted in Yishun, Singapore on teacher knowledge on inclusive education. His study revealed that 384 out of the 420 respondents representing 91.4% of the total respondent reported that they have knowledge on identification procedures of persons with special educational needs and disabilities. Knowledge in this area will assist the teacher to easily identify those children with hidden disabilities in the inclusive classroom and provide them with necessary support that will enable them to succeed in the classroom. That is if teachers have no knowledge in identifying children with special educational needs in their classroom and know their educational needs, they

will not be able to offer these children any appropriate assistance to enable them overcome their problems and participate in learning activities effectively. In support of this, Gyimah, Ntim and Deku (2010) asserted that, early identification and intervention will ensure that services are provided to such children who may have special educational needs and their families for the purpose of lessening the effects of the condition.

This current finding corroborates with assertion of Ali, Mustapha and Jelas (2006) that teacher competence is noted in the knowledge and skills a teacher possesses. This is because if the teacher is knowledgeable about the principles and practices of teaching in inclusive schools, then it is likely that he or she will perform better in the classroom. That is, the knowledge and skills the teacher uses in the classroom to deliver his or her instructions effectively would determine whether that teacher would be effective or not. It is therefore a step in the right direction that the training teachers receive during their pre-service period equipped them with knowledge and skills to manage persons with special educational needs and disabilities effectively in an inclusive classroom. Levitz (1996) pointed out that the aims of teacher education programme is to provide effective instruction to pre-service teachers in order to facilitate learning effectively in the classroom. The knowledge of teachers about inclusive practices is an important tool for successful implementation of inclusive education in Ghana. This is because studies indicate that teachers who are knowledgeable about children with special educational needs and disabilities are able to eliminate all forms of negative perceptions and discriminatory attitudes in general education classroom and

strive to increase their competency level of teaching and their willingness to tolerate students with disabilities in their classrooms.

In support of this assertion, Hayford (1999), in a study on students-teachers' knowledge of inclusive education in Ghana found that teachers who have knowledge on inclusive practices tend to have positive attitudes towards children with special educational needs and disabilities. A total of 371(92.7) of his respondents affirmed this position. The results of the study further revealed that as teachers become more aware of the nature and needs of children with special educational needs they tend to look for better if not the best of services for them. It is therefore important that teacher education programmes in Ghana continue to emphasize on the need to train teachers to have at least a working knowledge of inclusive education in order to be effective in their field of profession as teachers. The knowledge will put the general education teacher in a better position to attend to the diverse needs of all learners in the inclusive classroom. Allabatuo (2009), on his part in Banjul the capital of Gambia, assessed 185 teachers who had taught for less than 5 years on the knowledge and practices of inclusive education. Out of 250 respondents, 165(67.2%) indicated that the curriculum they were taught with invariably endowed them with the skills and knowledge to identify and manage children with special educational needs.

Asamoah (2010) in a study conducted in Ashanti Mampong, Ghana, among teachers reported from his study that majority of the respondents (64% of 190) have knowledge in inclusive education but do not have the confidence in managing children with special educational needs and disabilities in an inclusive classroom. It is anticipated that once teachers who are teaching in an

inclusive classroom have adequate knowledge in inclusive practices they will put up their best to ensure the success of inclusive practices in Ghana. This is, because low level of knowledge on inclusive practices will affect the smooth implementation of inclusive practices in the country. In support of this, Lewis and Doorlag (1991) maintained that limited knowledge and experience can lead to the development of prejudice and non-accepting attitudes. That is if teachers are not well informed about issues relating to inclusive education, they will still hold on to the stereotypic mind they have about persons with disabilities and therefore, refuse them in the general education classroom and that can impinge on the beauty of inclusive education programme in the country.

Classroom Management Skills of the Teachers in Inclusive Classrooms

The findings of the current study imply that teachers in inclusive classrooms have the skills in managing children with special educational needs and disabilities effectively. The training they received during their pre-service teacher preparation has equipped them with skills to manage all children effectively in an inclusive classroom.

The results of the study shows that teachers can manage their classroom effectively because the overall mean was 3, which was more than the cut-off mean 2.5. The current finding is in agreement with a number of studies conducted by other researchers in relation to teachers' classroom management skills. One of such studies is a study by Amaziah (2014) in Migori, Kenya which found that 79.1% of the teachers he sampled affirmed that they were equipped with managerial skills to cater for children with special educational needs and disabilities. The respondents indicated that they

acquired the skills in managing individuals with special educational needs and disabilities during their pre-service preparation in the colleges of Education.

Allabatuo (2012), assessed 215 teachers who had taught for less than 5 years on classroom management skills and practices of inclusive education in Gambia. They indicated that the curriculum they experienced invariably endowed them with the skills and knowledge to identify and manage children with special needs and disabilities effectively.

Asamoah (2010) in a study conducted in Ashanti Mampong among teachers also showed results which indicate that teachers can manage inclusive classroom effectively. Majority (76%) of the respondents indicated that they have the knowledge and can manage inclusive classrooms effectively. In line with the current study, the respondents agreed that they use appropriate rewards for pupils who demonstrate good behaviours in inclusive classrooms as a way of managing their classrooms. They also agreed that they use appropriate teaching approaches that encourage good interactions among pupils in an inclusive classroom. It is important that teachers are trained with these skills because learners with special educational needs and disabilities come to the classroom with varied learning styles. If teachers are prepared with the skills to select appropriate strategies or methods of teaching that will meet the needs of every child in the inclusive classroom, then it will help all learners to be able to maximize learning in the inclusive classroom. They will be able to help children with special educational needs in an inclusive classroom to learn effectively. Most teachers use one set of instruction for all learners in the general education classroom. To support this statement, Wade (2000) posits that many teachers still tend to think that it is correct to use

"one-size tend to all" approach to teaching based on the training they received at college.

Most teachers in basic schools in Ghana appear not to be particular about the best method of teaching that will cater for the needs of all children but rather tend to use traditional methods in their various classrooms which will intend derail the smooth implementation of inclusive education in Ghana. Darling-Hammond (2006) advised that teachers need to know how and when to use a range of practices to accomplish their goals with different students in different contexts, rather than being subject to the pendulum swings of polarized teaching policies. Therefore, it behooves on the classroom teachers to modify the general education curriculum and teaching strategies to address diversities among learners in the regular classroom.

Molina (2006) similarly believes that teachers are more than technicians in education sciences – they are professionals in human relationships. While still needing knowledge of education sciences they also need true experience, to realize that knowing is never dogmatic nor finished. This implies that even though majority of the tutors agreed that the curriculum prepares teachers to use appropriate methods of teaching in the classroom, they should still continue to search for knowledge and skills which will enable them to adapt and modify their instructions to meet the needs of all learners in the inclusive classroom.

Considering the statement that seeks to find out whether teachers' are equipped with classroom management techniques such as establishing classroom rules and routine for successful activities, the respondents strongly agreed with the statement. The findings clearly showed that teachers are

180

trained on how to manage inclusive classrooms to facilitate successful activities in the inclusive classrooms. It was also evident from the findings that teachers know how to apply behavioural intervention techniques such as reinforcement, punishment, shaping, modeling, ignoring and time out to control behaviour in inclusive classroom. Children with special educational needs and disabilities may exhibit different types of behaviours in the classroom and teachers must be aware of the various behavioural intervention techniques, so that they can manage such behaviours in the inclusive classroom effectively. Even though the finding shows that teachers are trained in the various interventional techniques to be able to manage children with disruptive behaviours in the inclusive classroom, the researcher is of the view that the teachers' are not applying the techniques effectively in the classroom. According to Foreman (1996), teachers are a symbol of authority and must be taught to display certain qualities in their inter-personal relationships or contacts with the children in order to get them to accept and respect their authority. Educational authority cannot be imposed on learners but can be acquired or developed through interactions between the teacher and the learner in a spirit of mutual respect and understanding. This means that good interpersonal relationship between students and teachers in the classroom will help shape the behaviour of the child. Therefore, if teachers claim that they possess the skills to collaborate with their learners to establish classroom rules in order to maintain discipline, then it must be evident in their dealings with the learners in the classroom.

Time Management Skills of the Teachers in Inclusive Classrooms

The results from the study imply that teachers adopt good time management skills in their inclusive classrooms. This is due to the fact that the mean of means score was 3.33 which is above the cut-off mean score of 2.5. In addition, the responses to all the 15 items on this section of the questionnaire were all above the mean cut-off score. This is in the right direction towards successful inclusive education in Ghana, because if teachers are trained in a way that they can manage their time effectively in the inclusive classroom, then instructional hours are going to be used effectively. Time management skills such as setting and prioritizing goals, planning, and organisation are necessary for a successful inclusive education in Ghana. Studies have shown that time management is positively related to academic performance of students. For example, a study of middle school students by Liu (2009) found that the time management skills of planning and organization were positively related to students academic performance (r = 0.814; n = 265; *p*> 0.03). Also, Eilam and Aharon (2003), found that high achievers (M=3.91, SD= 2.65) are more able than average or low achievers (M=3.24, SD= 1.86) to invest their efforts and abilities in time management related to self-regulatory processes, such as planning. Another important study which the current study supports is a study conducted by Adamson (2004) who assessed the time management of first-year college students who were exposed to a time management demonstration, a lecture on stress and coping, and given a time management manual and exercises (for example, calendar, to-do list) after completing a survey. Students who read the manual (M=2.51, SD= 2.76) scored

significantly higher in meeting deadlines and effective organization than students who did not (M=1.34, SD= 1.93).

Although many of these students felt that their time management skills did not improve, they still reported that time management was important to their success. This implies that time management skills should be an important component of teacher education programme so that teachers would continuingly be trained in a way that they can manage their instructional hours well to promote academic success amongst their students. Learners with special educational needs and disabilities present a number of behaviour problems and if teachers are not effective with respect to how they manage their time in the classroom then they cannot make good use of their instructional hours. It is therefore imperative that continuous professional development programmes continue to lay more emphasis on training on how to manage instructional hours effectively in the inclusive classrooms so that every learner benefit from the learning activities in the classroom.

Self-efficacy of Teachers in Inclusive Classrooms

The results show that teachers teaching in inclusive schools have low self-efficacies. This is because their overall means score (M=2.16, SD=.90) was below the mean cut-off of 2.5. It is gratifying to note that if professionals self-efficacy to teach in inclusive schools is low, it can affect their performance in the inclusive classroom. It is therefore imperative that teacher education programmes in Ghana focuses on building teachers self-efficacy during their initial teacher preparation programme in order to improve their professional practices in inclusive schools in Ghana. Bandura (1993) suggests that in order for feelings of self-efficacy to persist, those feelings must be

183

developed early in a goal quest or the adoption of a skill set. Pearson and Moomaw (2005) also agree that teacher empowerment and self-efficacy can be developed through professional development programmes.

In a study involving 300 Florida teachers, Pearson and Moomaw (2005) found that teacher empowerment (self-efficacy) was closely related to job satisfaction and professionalism (r = 0.713; n = 300; $p> 0.05$). Accordingly, candidates who develop strong feelings of teacher efficacy early in their pre-service professional education are better prepared to retain those feelings and the advantages they bring through the inevitable setbacks and failures that beset most all beginning teachers. The alternative is often early departure from the profession or weak teachers who easily give up on students and themselves. Therefore, one goal of teacher preparation programmes in Ghana should be to build those feelings of efficacy, while tempering those feelings with the realities of inclusive classroom teaching. I believe the findings of the current study suggest that teachers in Ghana are not confident enough to teach in an inclusive classroom successfully. Early successes and failures with learners with special educational needs and disabilities in their school placements are constantly shaping and defining their teachers feelings of self-efficacy, and if teachers do not have believe in themselves that they possess the requisite skills to teach these learners, then they are not likely to succeed in inclusive classrooms. Teacher educators must note that in addition to providing candidates with the knowledge, skills, and dispositions necessary for success as a teacher, each stage in the teacher preparation programme must expose the pre-service teacher to real inclusive classroom with real learners

184

with diverse needs. This will equip the teachers with the practical experiences they will require to execute their work successfully in inclusive schools.

I am of the view that in the process of developing teachers' self-efficacy, they are also challenged by the categories of learners they find in the classroom, by the type of mentors they work with and other educational leaders in our various institutions, and by their own self-doubt. Without systematic social support, adequate resources, and structured success, many new teachers will enter the profession with the believe that some learners are beyond their ability to teach and that any efforts they may make to change would be fruitless (Tschannen-Moran & Woolfolk Hoy, 2002). Care needs to be taken to ensure early student successes when placed in authentic teaching contexts, as these will significantly influence candidates' future teacher self-efficacy (Bandura, 1999).

The implications of the results of the current study suggest that teacher preparation programmes must be geared towards training teachers to possess the needed self-efficacy, which they require to succeed in inclusive schools in Ghana. To that end, it seems prudent that steps must be taken to focus more of the energy devoted to developing coursework and field experiences within teacher education programmes to develop the social support and structured success that leads research has shown to encourage self-efficacy (Bandura, 1977). Though field experience is becoming an increasingly important component of teacher education programs in Ghana, many still limit this to the old experiences teachers had years ago (Pilard, 1992). Teacher candidates need real teaching successes in order to build strong feelings of teacher efficacy, and the earlier students can begin enjoying some successes, the more

185

resilient their self-efficacy will become. Successes build feelings of self-efficacy; failures lower them. Building a false sense of self-efficacy by simply encouraging student teachers or telling them that they will be good teachers without providing them opportunities for authentic success in real teaching situations is a recipe for failure (Bandura, 1977).

Further, though teacher preparation programs traditionally offer coursework that provides pre-service teachers with the knowledge and skills needed to succeed as classroom teachers, many do not address critical dispositions that define a teacher's performance in an inclusive classroom. Teachers' self-efficacy is more than a frame of mind; from it emerges many of the most critical dispositions that guide teaching behaviours and separate exemplary teachers from the rest.

How has teacher preparation programme helped to make teachers effective in inclusive schools?

This research question sought out from practicing teachers the effectiveness of the initial teacher preparation programme on teachers that will help promote effective Inclusive Education in Ghana. Therefore, respondents' views were elicited and analysed descriptively using the thematic approach. The various pieces of information are discussed under the following themes:

Identification and assessment of children with special educational needs and disabilities in inclusive classroom

Majority of the teachers interviewed confirmed that the initial teacher preparation programme they experienced during their pre-service period equipped them with the knowledge on the various characteristics of children with special educational needs and disabilities in inclusive classrooms.

The finding supports Nilsen (2017) a study carried out in Trondheim, Norway, on 135 teachers, with respect to their perceptions in managing children with special needs. One hundred and seventeen (86.6%) respondents indicated that they are better placed in handling children with special education needs owing to the knowledge they gained during pre-service teacher preparation stage.

In a related study, Johnson (2016) in Adelaide, Australia, also found that teachers who completed teacher-training institutions between 2011 and 2016 answered in the affirmative that, they have adequate knowledge to handle children with learning difficulties in the mix of their mates in regular schools. Out of the 250 participants, 223 representing 89.2% held this view.

This finding further collaborates the finding of Gyimah and Amoako (2016) on knowledge of teachers on identification processes. They found that the curriculum offered by Colleges of Education equip pre-service teachers to be able to identify learners with special educational need and disabilities in inclusive classrooms. Another study that confirms the finding of the current study is a study by Alanso (2015). She reported that in Daranka, Gambia, a greater percentage of a cross section (M=3.614, SD= 0.9162) of special educators indicated that the curriculum they offered was a major indicator that had helped them bring to light children with special educational needs and disabilities. She explained further that the curriculum, on which the training of teachers hangs had provided spectacles for teachers in managing children with special educational needs and disabilities in inclusive schools.

A study by Mereruko and Saeed (2012) was found to be incongruous to the current study. In a cross cultural study in Egypt and Iran, the two

authors found that the curriculum available for pre-service teachers was not enough in equipping them in identifying children with special educational needs. They stated further that inclusive education in Egypt and Iran was failing and hence more advocacy and training needs have to go on.

The study by Tanaka (2017) is also at variance with the finding of the current study. His study revealed that of a decision mean of 2.5, the mean of means of 210 teachers in Sapporo and Japan stood at M=1.83, SD= 0.75. The mean of 1.83 was smaller than 2.5(which indicated teachers gained appropriate knowledge). Tanaka revealed that the teachers indicated they were of their best based on the additional knowledge they had gained from conferences, workshops and seminars.

I am of the opinion that identification of children with special educational needs and disabilities is very crucial because, before a teacher can provide any special services to a child who has special educational needs and disability in an inclusive classroom, the teacher must first identify the child and know the type of support the child requires to succeed in the inclusive classroom. According to Kapp (1994), the pre-service teacher should be aware of the identification procedures that may be employed, such as screening, and criterion referenced tests. Knowledge in this area will assist the pre-service teacher to easily identify those children with hidden disabilities in the classroom. That is, if teachers are not capable of identifying children with special educational needs in their classroom, they will not be in the position to offer such children any appropriate assistance to enable them overcome their problems and participate in learning activities effectively. In support of this, Gyimah, Ntim and Deku (2010) assert that, early identification and

intervention would ensure that services are provided to such children who may have special educational needs and their families for the purpose of lessening the effects of the condition.

Selecting appropriate methods and teaching and learning materials to teach in inclusive classroom

Majority of the teachers interviewed reported that they are trained with the skills to select appropriate methods of teaching that will meet the needs of every child in the inclusive classroom. They reported that they adopt strategies that will meet the diverse needs of all learners in an inclusive classroom. However, some of the respondents were of the view that even though they are trained to select appropriate methods and strategies in teaching, yet they still use one set of instruction for all learners in the general education classroom. To support this statement, Wade (2000) found in study that many teachers still tend to think that it is correct to use a "one-size fits all" approach to teaching, based on the training they received at colleges.

Many teachers in basic schools in Ghana appear not to be particular about the best method of teaching that will cater for the needs of all children but rather tend to use traditional methods in their various classrooms, which will intend disrupt the smooth implementation of inclusive education in Ghana. Darling-Hammond (2006) advised that teachers need to know how and when to use a range of practices to accomplish their goals with different students in different contexts, rather than being subject to the pendulum swings of polarised teaching policies. Therefore, it behooves the classroom teachers to modify the general education curriculum and teaching strategies to address diversities in the regular classroom.

189

Molina (2006) similarly believed that teachers are more than technicians in education sciences – they are professionals in human relationships. While still needing knowledge of education sciences, they also need true experience, to realize that knowing is never dogmatic nor finished. This implies that even though majority of the teachers agreed that the teacher preparation programme prepares teachers to use appropriate methods of teaching in the classroom, they should continue to search for knowledge and skills which will enable them to adapt and modify their instructions to meet the needs of all learners in the inclusive classroom. The respondents also indicated that they are capable of designing or modifying teaching aids to suit every learner in the inclusive classroom which is very paramount in an inclusive classroom. Mowes (2002) asserted that the modification of teaching and learning materials would allow for individualised instruction and would take into account the different rates of learning. This revelation therefore supports the Colleges of Education and encourages teachers to learn how to design and modify teaching aids to serve the diverse needs of all children in the inclusive classroom.

Developing positive attitudes towards persons with disabilities

The respondent reported that the training they received at the College of Education exposed them to the scientific causes of disabilities thereby debunking the misconceptions they had about persons with disabilities. This, according to the teachers, enables them to develop positive attitudes towards inclusive education and persons with disabilities in general. Teachers' attitudes play a pivotal role in inclusive education (Dapudong, 2014). It is therefore important to continually educate teachers to have positive attitudes

towards persons with disabilities to ensure the sustainability of inclusive education and its ultimate goal. In the current study, teachers' attitude is found to be positive. This is consistent with the study carried out by Vanderpuye et al. (2018), who found out that teachers in Ghana have positive attitudes towards inclusive education. They further explain that the improvement in teachers' attitudes may be attributable to increased knowledge of inclusive practices and special education in Ghana.

However, the finding contradicts with previous finding by Kuyini (2004), who recorded negative attitudes of teachers towards Inclusive Education. It is important to note that this research was done at the early stage of the pilot programme for inclusive education in Ghana; thus, teachers' knowledge on, and information about inclusive education were minimal at the time.

Collaborating with other professionals to manage children with SEN

The teachers reported that they hardly get support from parents and other professionals in the inclusive schools to effectively handle children with special educational needs and disabilities. The findings of the current study collaborate with Sen-nefer (2013) in a study conducted in Suez in Egypt concluded that teachers rated themselves as very poor with regards to how they collaborate with other professionals. They maintain that many parents had poor self-concept emanating from the frustrations of having children with SEN hence translating to how they deal with teachers. The teachers in turn, in their bid avoid the displacement of frustrations from parents ignore or rather collaborating with them.

Another study that supports the finding of the current study is a study by Fujo (2012) in Kericho in Kenya. Fujo points out that 71.62% out of 109 teachers disagreed to all the 42 items put to them to ascertain whether the curriculum they went through in school had had any impact on how well they collaborate with other members of the multi-disciplinary team.

Curtis (2013) in a study conducted in New Zealand came out with a finding that is inconsistent with the finding of the current study. She found that multi-disciplinary team, which many professionals consider as the effective way of managing children with special educational needs in inclusive education, was a common practice. He stressed that 91.34% out 375 respondents give credit to the framers of curriculum indicating that the curriculum was sufficient in addressing the challenges of children with special educational needs and disabilities.

The findings of the current study imply that teachers are not trained on how to collaborate with parents and other professionals in managing children with special educational needs and disabilities in Ghana. The work of educating children with special educational needs and disabilities in an inclusive classroom is not an easy task that one person can perform effectively alone. Therefore, for effective implementation of inclusive education in Ghana, the general education teachers must be trained on how to bring other professionals and parents on board to form a team. They can therefore share their expertise together to help children with special educational needs and disabilities develop their potentials in an inclusive classroom. This is why Foreman (2001) opined that parents and school-based support teams have become an integral part of the educational system. The purpose of this team is

to support teachers who are facing difficulties and are not adequately prepared to cope with children who have special educational needs and disabilities in the inclusive classroom

What suggestions do you give to improve teacher preparation programmes at Colleges of Education for effective inclusive education?

This section discusses the research question six (6) which was intended to elicit views of practicing teachers on how pre-service teacher preparation programmes could be improved for effective inclusive education in Ghana. Suggestions given by the respondents were analysed descriptively by classifying all the suggestions from the teachers into themes. The various suggestions were discussed under the following themes:

Continuous professional development for Teachers

Among the suggestions made by practicing teachers to improve on teacher preparation for effective Inclusive Education in Ghana include regular in-service training programme for teachers on Inclusive Education to help them update their knowledge and skills in special needs education.

Touray (2015) in Kuntaur, Gambia, found among 270 teachers that, continuous professional development was essential for the sustenance of effective inclusive classroom programme. Two hundred and fifty two out of 270 teachers asserted this position. I agree with Touray because training institutions cannot offer all the set of knowledge one requires to become effective in inclusive classrooms. The efforts of training institutions must be complimented by short courses, workshops, conferences and in-service trainings.

In Enugu, Nigeria, Ori (2016) buttresses the point of other experts who hold the view that continuous professional development for teachers must be adhered to in managing children with special educational needs in inclusive classrooms. His study revealed that 298 (96.13%) out of 310 respondents suggested that going forward, managers of education should incorporate regular workshops on special education for teachers teaching in inclusive schools.

Special Education as a Core/Mandatory Course

Planners and implementers of Colleges of Education curriculum in Ghana, came out with a one semester course on special education for all pre-service teachers. This is a three hour course for second year students. There is an on-going debate as to whether that mandatory course is enough to prepare pre-service teachers for effective inclusive classrooms. The respondents were of the view that the special education as a mandatory course must be given all the attention it deserves. They suggested that the content should be expanded so that it could cover more areas.

Kruger (2017) found in Rustenburg, South Africa that 209(95.87%) out of 2018 teachers indicated that there should be compulsory courses tailored towards teachers handling inclusive classrooms effectively. He maintains that the current structure of the curriculum is narrow as it covers only a few aspects of the issues teachers are expected to know to be able to handle inclusive classrooms effectively.

Marten (2016) held that a course of study that will expose teachers to the various categories of children with special educational needs and disabilities would be eminent to the success of inclusive education. He

indicated that majority of his respondent (93.6% out of 330) respondents maintained that every pre-service teacher must be taken through all the category of exceptionalities in an inclusive classroom. This they believe was a pre-requisite for every teacher in inclusive classrooms to perform effectively.

Practical or Real Experience with children with special educational needs and Disabilities

Nyarko-Sampson and Dabone (2016) indicated that theory informs practice as practice also induces theories. They recommended that practice should be a major part for teacher education and hence sandwich students should be made to go through what their counterparts in regular system are made to go through. In much the same way, if pre-service teachers are made to have real experiences with children with special educational needs and disabilities during their initial teacher preparation by the time they are out, they would have gained enough experience to manage inclusive classrooms effectively.

Cameron and Cook (2007) also asserted that specific coursework devoted to inclusion education and linked to high quality field experiences is necessary to generate high levels of inclusive teaching skills such as appropriate planning and instructional adaptations. In an age where there is a great demand for and emphasis on highly qualified general education teachers, programmes in the Colleges of Education need to take greater strides in ensuring that the production of educators are done such that they are fully prepared and have the confidence to successfully meet all the challenges that they will ultimately face in teaching and learning.

Use of Assistive Technology

In expanding the curriculum to cover broader areas in terms of content, some of the areas that could be looked at is how pre-service teachers can use assistive technology to cater for the needs of children with special educational needs and disabilities. Hamisi (2016) discovered in Zanziba, Tanzania that out of the 260 pre-service teachers he studied, 87.4% recommended that they would prefer sign language to be part of the programme of study. Their intuition was that, that would place them advantageously to cater for children with speech difficulties as well the deaf they may encounter in their classrooms.

Koskimen (2015) found in Louisa, Finland that education students totaling 550 had majority of them (84.5%) suggesting that they wished they were proficient in the use of Braille embossers, hearing aids, white cane, wheelchairs, scooters and crutches. They therefore recommended to teacher educators to consider including them as part of their programme of study. They believe teachers have basic skills in the use of these devices to support a child with special educational needs and disabilities in the inclusive classroom, children with special educational needs and disabilities will perform creditably well.

Courses should be handled by experts

Education is a specialised area just like medicine, law and like any other highly skilled profession. It gets even more skewed when it relates to children with special education needs and disabilities. It is therefore better to have people with the needed skills to handle children with exceptionalities. Abate (2018) report that 517 (99.4%) out of 520 pre-service teachers he study

indicated that the course "psychology for children with exceptionalities" be taught by tutors specially trained to teach the course. In a study he conducted in Debark, Ethiopia, the respondents indicated that it takes tactfulness and passion to handle children with special educational needs and disabilities in inclusive schools. If the right knowledge is not imparted, teachers will be disadvantaged in managing children with SEN.

Bergman and Asamoah (2016) in a cultural study carried out in Lulea, Sweden and Kumasi, Ghana found that one of the challenges bedeviling inclusive education in Ghana was the high number of unqualified teachers teaching in the Colleges of Education. They therefore recommend that people with the needed expertise be made to handle the various courses at the Colleges of Education.

Intensive Public Education on Disability Issues

This finding collaborates with what Friend and Bursuck (2002) highlighted. They indicated that some administrators appear to take a wait-and-see approach to inclusive schooling, not actively leading their staff towards such inclusive practices. They further stated that, if principals and administrators do not support the inclusive idea and be ready to provide their learners with the necessary training in inclusive education, general education teachers will not only fail their children with special educational needs, but their general view on inclusion as a whole may be negatively impacted as well. From the foregoing discussion, it is apparent that much needs to be done to improve pre-service teacher preparation for effective inclusive education in Ghana.

Ali (2017) maintains that inclusive education is still young in Africa. He therefore suggested that stakeholders in education must engage in extensive campaign to sensitise people about the need for inclusive education. He made this known in a study he conducted in Tanta, Egypt on perceptions of teachers on inclusive education.

Relationship between Teachers' Knowledge on Inclusive Practices and their Classroom Management Skills

The findings of the present study reveal that there is a weak positive significant relationship between the knowledge of teachers on inclusive practices and their classroom management practices. The positive correction coefficient of .355 between the teachers' knowledge on inclusive practices and their classroom management skills in handling children with special educational needs and disabilities in inclusive classroom and the significant value of p greater than 0.00 ($p > 0.00$) indicates that the relationship between the two variables is statistically significant. This results is not consistent with the hypothesis (Ho), leading to the rejection of the hypothesis that there is no statistically significant relationship between the teachers knowledge on inclusive practices and their classroom management skills. This implies that the teachers' knowledge on inclusive practices has a relationship with their classroom management skills. Moreover, the positive correlation of r =.355 shows that any increase in the knowledge of inclusive practices of teachers will lead to the increase in their inclusive classroom management practices and vice versa.

198

Relationship between Teachers' Knowledge on Inclusive Practices and their Time Management Skills

The findings of the present study reveal that there is a weak positive significant relationship between the knowledge of teachers on inclusive practices and their time management skills in an inclusive classroom. The positive correction coefficient of .324 between the teachers' knowledge on inclusive practices and their time management skills in handling children with special educational needs and disabilities in inclusive classroom and the significant value of p greater than 0.00 (p > 0.00) indicates that the relationship between the two variables is statistically significant. This result is not consistent with the hypothesis (Ho) leading to the rejection of the hypothesis that there is no statistically significant relationship between the teachers knowledge on inclusive practices and their time management skills. This implies that the teachers' knowledge on inclusive practices has a relationship with their classroom management skills. The positive correlation of r = .324 shows that any increase in the knowledge of inclusive practices of teachers will lead to the increase in their time management practices and vice versa.

Relationship between Teacher's Knowledge on Inclusive Practices and their Self-efficacy

The finding of the study is congruent with the finding of Smith (2016) who found in Port Macquarie in Australia that there is a negative relationship between teacher's knowledge on inclusive practices and their self-efficacy. In a study conducted on 325 pre-service teachers, his results revealed that there was a strong negative relationship between the teachers' knowledge and their

199

self-efficacy in teaching in inclusive classrooms (r = -0.713; n = 325; $p > 0.04$). The inverse relationship as adduced by study of Smith implies that as teachers' knowledge on inclusive education increases, then their self-efficacy decreases. This is a worrying situation as it has the penchant to derail the gains made in inclusive education. This is because no teacher would want his or her self-efficacy to be affected negatively. Negative self-efficacy affects the quality of teaching and it also affects intra and inter personal relationships.

The finding of the current study is also supported by the study of Botros (2017) which studied the perceptions of 212 teachers towards inclusive education. Botros revealed that 186 teachers in Hosh Essa in Egypt representing 87.7% indicated that their knowledge in inclusive education did not boost their self-efficacy in dealing with children with special education needs in inclusive classrooms. It is expected that knowledge should inspire a positive self-efficacy. If the results revealed otherwise then, questions can be raised on the kind of knowledge derived and how it was acquired. It may also call for amendment in policy and how teachers are trained in Ghana for effective practices.

The finding is however in congruous with the finding of Chaurembo (2017) in Mwanza, Tanzania who identify 265 teachers with regards to their knowledge in inclusive education practices and self-efficacy. Chaurembo's study revealed that there was a positive strong correlation between teachers' knowledge on inclusive education practices and their self-efficacy (r = 0.821; n = 265; $p > 0.01$).

In a similar study by Daniels (2017), in the Kaduna in Nigeria, he observed knowledge of trainee teachers correlates positively with the self-

esteem in terms of inclusive education practices. He investigated the inclusive education knowledge and practices among trainee teachers in the Kaduna State in Nigeria. Among his findings was the fact that out of the 330 trainee teachers, there was a moderately positive relationship between inclusive education knowledge and practices among trainee teachers and their self-esteem(r = 0.551; n = 330; *p*> 0.00).

Differences among Teachers' Programme Specialisation and their Classroom Management

Chedha (2018) in Ahmedabad in India found that there was no statistically significant difference among the programme specialisations of the teachers and their classroom management skills [F(43, 516)=2.691, p=.247], even though he found differences among teachers in the Arts, Sciences and technology in terms of their classroom management skills. The findings indicated that despite the fact that the teachers were taken through the same curriculum and taught by teachers of similar standing in psychology, they differ in terms of their classroom management skills. Then marginal differences in their classroom management skills may come as a results of their individual differences.

The finding of the study is supported by the finding of Mpofu (2017) who found in Kwekwe in Zimbabwe that management skills of Arts teachers (M= 2.8, SD= 1.028) did not differ significantly from those of the sciences (M=2.1, SD= 0.846) with (df = 293, t = 1.429, p = 1.03). In an earlier study by Kwakye (2009), he made a very contestable call, that people in the Arts are better placed to deal positively with their fellow humans than their counterpart in the sciences. He argued that those in the Arts normally work on or with

human beings whereas those in the Sciences mostly with or on objects and animals. By this assertion he concluded that those in the Arts have learnt to manage human being better than those in the Sciences.

The finding of Gaye (2015) however, opposes the finding of the current study. He found in Brikama, Gambia that there were significant differences between teachers in the Arts and those in the Sciences (df = 278, t = 1.392, p = 0.963). He explained the finding that as part of the training of teachers, those in the Arts are taken through a particular course of study which their counterparts in the Sciences do not benefit. He stated the course of study to be "Ethical issues in human conduct". This came to light when he investigated the impact of ethical issues in human conduct as a course study for teacher trainees.

In another development, Bjornstad (2016) found in Drammen, Norway that there was statistically significant difference among programme specialties of teachers in terms of how they manage their classrooms. This revelation was made in a study he conducted to find out the role of newly trained teachers in inclusive education practices. Out of the 415 respondents, there were significant differences among those with specialty in preschool, those in basic education and those in the secondary schools [F(23, 415)=1.725, p=.016]. A post hoc test revealed that the difference was found between those in the preschool and secondary school. There was however, no difference in those at the basic school with preschool or basic school with secondary school.

Difference between Gender and Teachers' Self-efficacy

According to Dabone, et al (2015), generally women have higher self-efficacy than their male counterparts. They added that in most cases this

difference is significant. This was made known in a study he conducted on the perception and reasons of examination malpractice among students. Their study revealed that there was statistically significant difference between self-efficacy of males (M= 2.96, SD= 1.63) and females (M= 3.52, SD= 1.91) with respect to how they conduct themselves in examination conditions (df = 348, t = 1.472, p = 0.015). This finding supports the finding of the current study which indicates that there is a calculable difference between male and female teachers with respect to their self-efficacy in their inclusive classroom.

The finding of the study is also supported by that of Knight (2017) who found very significant difference between male and female teachers with respect to their self-esteem in managing learning environments. In a study conducted in Manchester on the usefulness of teacher self-efficacy in achieving effective inclusive education, he concluded that there was a positive relationship between teacher self-efficacy and effective inclusive education. It was however instructive that a significant difference existed between male and female teacher self-efficacy with respect to how inclusive education is practiced (df = 298, t = -1.173, p = 0.021). He explained that females are people who easily seek help as compared to their male counterparts. This particular act of females put them in a better position to resolve their challenges, which eventually give them confidence and self-believe.

Finally, Luhya (2016) in Nakuru, Kenya has also provided evidence that there was no significant difference between male and female self-efficacy with respect to teacher practices on inclusive education (df = 223, t = 2.361, p = 0.712). Her study was on teacher preparation for inclusive education. She

realised that there was no difference in factors that put teachers in a state of
preparedness of inclusive education.

CHAPTER FIVE

SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

In this chapter, a summary of the findings of the study is presented. Conclusions drawn from the findings and recommendations made are all presented under this section.

Summary to the Study

Teacher preparation is a crucial aspect of every educational system and for inclusive education to succeed. Teacher preparation cannot be overemphasized.   The purpose of this study was to examine the influence of teacher preparation programme on teachers' competence in inclusive practices in Ashante Region, Ghana. A descriptive survey was conducted using a sample size of 365 teachers, which was drawn from Basic Schools in Ashanti Region of Ghana, through a multi stage sampling techniques. The main instruments used for data collection were questionnaire and interview, which were designed with the assistance of my supervisors.

The research questions and hypotheses that guided the study were six and five respectively.

1. How does teacher preparation programme equip teachers with knowledge on inclusive practices?

2. How does teacher preparation programme train teachers to have the skills to manage inclusive classroom effectively?

205

3. How does teacher preparation programme train teachers to manage time effectively in inclusive classrooms?

4. What is the level of teachers' self-efficacy in their inclusive classrooms?

5. How does teacher preparation programme help teachers to be effective in inclusive schools?

6. What suggestions can be made to improve teacher preparation programmes at Colleges of Education for effective inclusive education?

Research Hypotheses

1. H_0: There is no statistically significant relationship between teachers' knowledge on inclusive practices and their classroom management skills.

   H_1: There is statistically significant relationship between teachers' knowledge on inclusive practices and their classroom management skills.

2. .H_0: There is no statistically significant relationship between teachers' knowledge about inclusive practices and their time management skills

   H_1: There is statistically significant relationship between teachers' knowledge on inclusive practices and their time management skills.

3. H_0: There is no statistically significant relationship between teachers' knowledge about inclusive practices and their self-efficacy.

   H_1: There is statistically significant relationship between teachers' knowledge about inclusive practices and their self-efficacy in inclusive schools.

206

4. *H₀*: There is no statistically significant difference between the programme specialisation of teachers and their classroom management skills.

   H₁: There is statistically significant difference between programme specialization of teachers and their classroom management skills.

5. *H₀*: There is no statistically significant difference between in self-efficacy of teachers with respect to their gender.

   H₁: There is statistically significant difference in self-efficacy of teachers with respect to their gender.

   Statistical procedures used in the data analysis were frequencies and percentages, means and standard deviations, Pearson's Product Moment correlation and Independent t-test and Anova.

Key Findings

Based on the research questions and the hypotheses formulated for the study, the findings were as follows:

   The results of the study revealed that teacher preparation programme has equipped teachers' with adequate knowledge on inclusive practices.

   The results of the study also revealed that, the teachers preparation programme has trained teachers with classroom manage skills to help children with special educational needs and disabilities in inclusive classroom.

   It was also evident from the study that majority of the teachers' believed that the teacher preparation programme they went through has trained them to manage their time effectively in an inclusive classroom.

On the issue of teachers' self-efficacy to teach in inclusive classrooms, the respondents reported that teachers have low self-efficacy to teach children with special educational needs and disabilities in inclusive classrooms. With respect to the views of teachers' on effectiveness of initial teacher preparation programme for effective inclusive education, the following were the responses from the respondents:

i.   Teacher preparation programme prepared teachers to be able to identify and assess children with special educational needs and disabilities in inclusive classrooms

ii. Teacher preparation programme trained teachers to know how to Select appropriate methods and teaching, and learning materials to teach in inclusive classrooms

iii. The programme exposes teachers to the scientific causes of disabilities, thereby debunking the negative perception of teachers on disabilities: Hence developing positive attitudes towards persons with disabilities

iv.   The teacher preparation programme does not train teachers on how to collaborate with other professionals to manage children with SEN

The respondents made the following suggestions that could help improve pre-service teacher preparation for effective inclusive education in Ghana.

i.   There should be Continuous professional development programmes for teachers teaching in inclusive schools in Ghana.

ii. The number of hours allocated for Special Education course in the Colleges of Education must be increased and more inclusive related courses should be introduced.

iii.   In the course of their studies, pre-service teachers must have practical or field experience with children with special educational needs and disabilities. This will give them the practical experience they need to function effectively in the inclusive classroom

iv.   The use of assistive technology should be included in the curriculum of the Colleges of Education in Ghana.

v.   Teachers with the requisite skills and knowledge should be made to teach Special Education at the Colleges of Education in Ghana.

vi.   There should be regular public education on disability issues to promote collaboration among practitioners in special education.

Finally, there is significant positive relationship between teacher respondents' knowledge on inclusive practices and classroom management skills

There is significant positive relationship between the teachers' knowledge on inclusive practices and time management skills in inclusive classrooms

There is significant inverse relationship between the teachers' knowledge and their self-efficacy in teaching in inclusive classrooms

There is no statistically significant difference between the programme specializations of the teachers and their classroom management skills

There is statistically significant difference between gender of teacher and their self-efficacy in inclusive classrooms

Conclusion

Based on the findings of this study, it can be concluded that the teacher preparation programme for the Colleges of Education in Ghana prepares

teachers to handle children with special educational needs and disabilities in the inclusive classroom effectively. It was apparent from the findings that teachers are equipped with the adequate knowledge on inclusive practices, classroom management skills and time management skills required to manage children with special educational needs and disabilities in the inclusive classroom.

However, it is evident from the findings that teachers are not trained to have the confidence and the capabilities to teach children with special educational needs and disabilities. The training given to them at the pre-service preparation is not enough to enable them teach all children in the inclusive classroom. If this situation is not curbed early enough, it can mar the effectiveness of inclusive education in Ghana. The study has made greater gains in terms of providing facts as to how well teachers have been trained to function effectively in inclusive classrooms in Ghana.

Recommendations

Recommendation for practice

Based on the findings from the study and the conclusion, the following recommendations were made for practice:

1. Tutors in the Colleges of Education in Ghana should adopt the inclusion practices, including adaptation and accommodation, when exposing pre-service teachers to the various courses pursued by the students.

2. The affiliate Universities mentoring the various Colleges of Education should ensure that areas such as the use of assistive devices, basic knowledge in sign language and Braille reading and writing are included in the teacher preparation programme. This will equip pre-service

teachers with some basic skills in the use of assistive technology to enable them support all children in the inclusive classroom including those with visual impairment and hearing impairment in the classrooms.

3. Educational leaders and teacher educators must ensure that the initial training programmes of Colleges of Education in Ghana do not only emphasize on content knowledge on educating children with special educational needs, but the would-be teachers should be equipped with practical or field experience in handling children with special educational needs and disabilities in the inclusive classroom. For example, there should be regular field trips to special schools and inclusive practice schools in Ghana to enable the pre-service teachers have a practical experience of children with special educational needs and disabilities.

4. Tutors of Colleges of Education in Ghana should ensure that pre-service teachers are trained on how to do effective collaboration among parents and other professionals whose services are needed to promote and facilitate effective inclusive education. They should be helped to understand that parental involvement is essential in the education of children with special educational needs and disabilities and must involve parents in their quest to help these children to develop their potentials.

5. The findings of the study revealed that teachers' self-efficacy to teach in an inclusive schools were weak. To address this, it is important to make teachers aware that there are no special teachers trained to teach children with special educational needs and disabilities but the training they have received is enough for them to help all learners in the inclusive classroom.

6. Teachers should be exposed to practical inclusive classrooms during their pre-service preparation programme to equip them with practical experience with children with special educational needs and disabilities, so that they can build their confidence level when they eventually move out of school.

7. Teachers must be encouraged to use proactive teaching methods, appropriate intervention strategies and proper assessment strategies that would benefits all children in the inclusive classroom.

Recommendations for policy making

Based on the findings from the study and the conclusion, the following recommendations were made for policymaking:

1. The Ministry of Education through Special Education Division of Ghana Education Service should organise regular in-service training programmes for tutors at Colleges of Education in Ghana to update their professional knowledge and skills on current practices in inclusive education to enable them prepare pre-service teachers effectively for the successful implementation of inclusive education in Ghana.

2. The government of Ghana through the Ministry of Education, the National Commission for Tertiary Education (NCTE), Teacher Education Unit and Affiliate Universities should provide adequate financial support, equipment and materials and other services to the Colleges of Education in Ghana to enable the tutors and administrative workers execute their mandate effectively in the Colleges.

212

3. The National Commission for Tertiary Education (NCTE), the various Affiliate Universities and Principals of Colleges of Education in Ghana must ensure that tutors who are teaching in the Colleges of Education in Ghana have the requisite academic and professional qualifications and skills to teach the various course contents in the colleges.

213

Suggestions for Further Research

In chapter one, I hypothesised that there may be a relationship between teacher preparation programme and teacher competence. The findings of the study have confirmed the existence of a relationship between teacher preparation programme and their competence (see chapter four).

Again, programme specialization and gender of teachers were only tested on classroom management skill and self-efficacy respectively. I therefore recommend that future research should test programme specialisation and gender on all components of teacher competence (classroom management skills, time management skills and self-efficacy). This will help establish my claim based on the literature and the findings of the current study that there is a possibility that a relationship exists between two variables and the compontents of teacher competence.
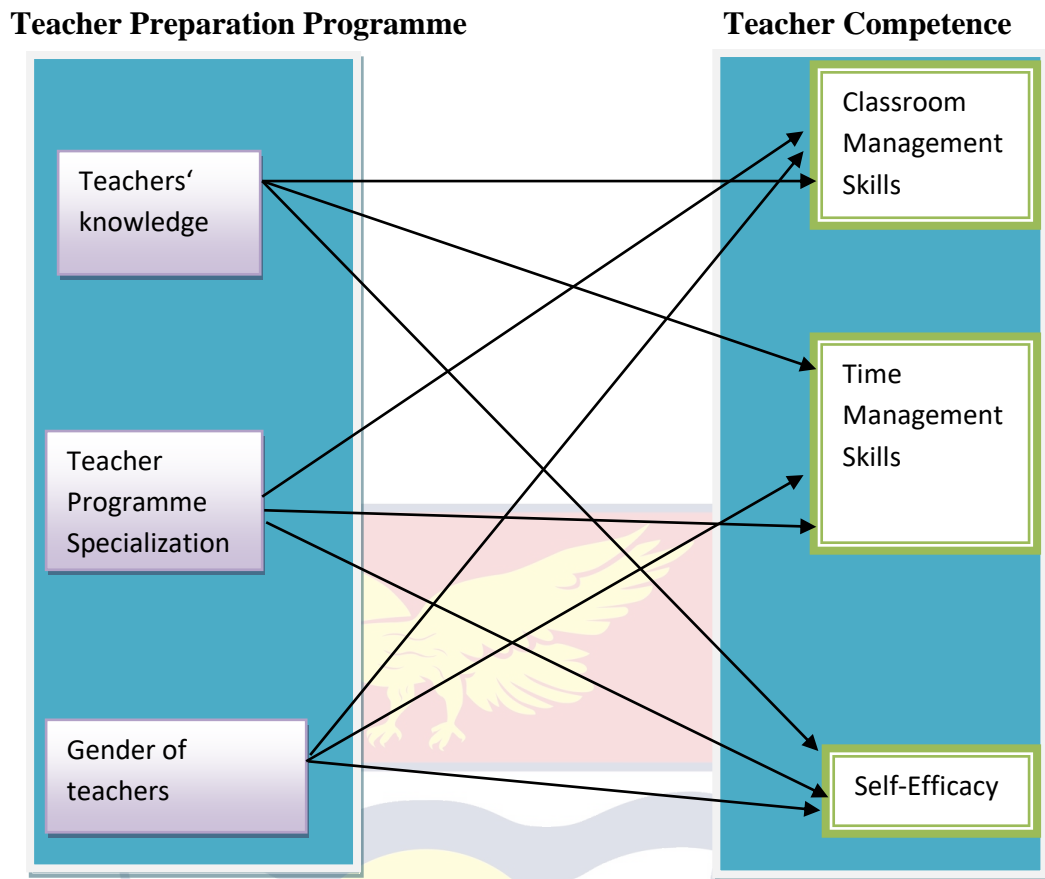
214

Teacher Preparation Programme　　　　　　　**Teacher Competence**
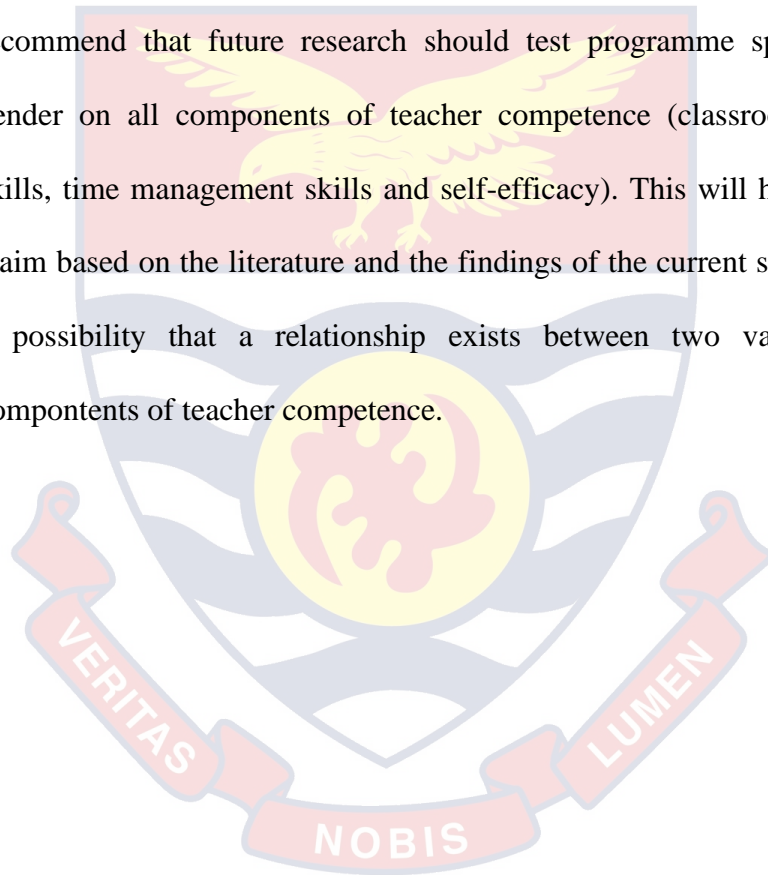
Figure 8:　Model of Effective Teacher Preparation Programme on Teacher

Competence in Inclusive Education (future outcome)

Other areas to be considered for further research include: the following:

1. This study was only done in Ashanti Region. A similar study could be
   done in the other parts of the country for comparison.

2. Assessment of the efficacy of inclusive schools in Ghana: implications
   for policy decisions on educating children with special educational
   needs and disabilities.

3. The factors affecting effective pre-service teacher preparation for
   inclusive education in Ghana.

4. Preparation and self-efficacy of teachers of students with emotional
   and behavioral disabilities.

215

REFERENCES

Abate, Q. (2018). On enhancing the quality and credibility of qualitative analyses. *Health Services Research, 34*(5,), 1189-1208.

Abosi, O. (2000). Special education in Botswana. *International Special Education and Service, 11* (4), 3-4.

Ackerman, B. (2007). *PRAISE: Effectively guiding student behavior.* Colorado: ACSI.

Adamson, B. J., Covic, T., & Lincoln, M. (2004). Teaching time and organizational management skills to first-year health science students: Does training make a difference? *Journal of Further and Higher Education, 28,* 261–276.

Adeosun, O., Oni A., Oladipo A., Onuoha S., & Yakasasai, M. (2009). Teacher training, quality and effectiveness in the context of basic education: An examination of primary education studies (PES) in two colleges of education in Nigeria. *Journal of International Cooperation in Education, 12*(1), 107-125.

Agbenyega, J. S. (2003). *The Power of Labeling Discourses in the Construction of Disabilities in Ghana.* Clayton: Faculty of Education, Monash University.

Agbenyega, J., & Deku, P. (2011). Building New Identities in Teacher Preparation for Inclusive Education in Ghana. *Current Issues in Education 14* (1), 1-36.

Ainscow, M., Booth, T., & Dyson, D. (2004). Understanding and developing inclusive practices in schools: A collaborative action research network. *International Journal of Inclusive Education, 8*(2), 125-139.

Akyeampong, K., Pryor, J., Westbrook, J., & Lussier, K. (2011). *Teacher preparation and continuing professional development in Africa: Learning to teach early reading and mathematics.* London: Centre for International Education, University of Sussex.

Albion, P. R. (1999). Self-Efficacy beliefs as an indicator for teachers' preparedness for teaching with technology. In P. R. Albion, J. D. Price, J. Willis, D. A. Willis, M.

Ali, D. (2017). Ontological gerrymandering. *Social Problems, 32*, 214-227.

Ali, M., Mustapha, R., & Jelas, Z. M. (2006). An empirical study on teacher perceptions towards inclusive education in Malaysia. *International Journal of Special Education, 21*(3), 36-43.

Ali, M., Mustapha, R., & Jelas, Z. M. (2006). An empirical study on teacher perceptions towards inclusive education in Malaysia. *International Journal of Special Education, 21*(3), 36-43.

Allabatuo, D. (2012). Models of cognition for students with significant cognitive disabilities: Implications for assessment. *Review of Educational Research, 79*(1), 301-326.

Almog, O. & Shechtman, Z. (2007). Teachers' democratic and efficacy beliefs and styles of coping with behavioral problems of pupils with special needs. *European Journal of Special Needs Education, 22*(2), 115-129.

217

Amaziah, L. (2014). Toward a sociological perspective on learning disabilities, *Educational Theory 36*(4), 317–331.

Angelides, P., Stylianou, T., & Gibbs, P. (2006). Preparing teachers for inclusive education in Cyprus. *Teaching and Teacher Education*, *22(4)*, 513-522.

Arnesen, A., Allen, J., & Simonsen, E. (2009). *Policies and practices for teaching socio- cultural diversity. Concept, principles and challenges in teacher education*. Strasbourg: Council of Europe.

Ary, D., & Jacobs, L. C. (1976). *Introduction to statistics: Purpose and procedures*. London: Holt, Rinehart and Winston.

Ary, D., Jacobs, L. C., & Razavieh, A. (2002). *Introduction to research in education.* (6th ed.). Australia: Wadsworth Thompson Learning.

Asamoah, R. (2010). Mainstream teachers' acceptance of instructional adaptations in Spain. *European Journal of Special Needs Education*, *16*(4), 209-217.

Ash, A., Bellew, J., Davies, M., Newman, T., & Richardson L., (1997). Everybody in? *The experience of disabled students in further education. Disability and society, 12*(4), 605-621.

Attride-Stirling, J. (2001). Thematic networks: an analytic tool for qualitative research. *Sage Publications*, *1*(3), 385–405.

Audit Commission Report (2002).*Statutory assessment and statements of SEN: In need of review?* London: Audit Commission.

Avoke, M. (2005). Inclusive education for persons with disabilities. *Africa Journal of Special Educational Needs, 4*(1), 1-19.

Avoke, M. K., & Avoke, S. K. (2004). *Inclusion, rehabilitation and transition services in special education.* Winneba: Department of Special Education

Baker, P. (2005). Managing student behavior: How ready are teachers to meet the challenge? *American Secondary Education, 33*(3), 51-64.

Ballard, K. (2003). *Developing inclusive teacher education*. London: Routledge, Falmer.

Bandura, A. (2001). Social cognitive theory of mass communication. *Media psychology*, *3*(3), 265-299.

Bandura, A. (1977). Self- efficacy: toward a unifying theory of behavioral change. *Psychological Review, 84* (2), 191-215.

Bandura, A. (1986). *Social foundation of thought and action: Social theory.* Englewood Cliffs, N.J: Prentice Hall.

Bandura, A. (1997). *Self-efficacy: The exercise of control.* New York: W.H. Freeman.

Bandura, A. (1999). Self-Efficacy: The Exercise of Control. New York: Freeman.

Bandura, A. (1993). Perceived self-efficacy in cognitive development and functioning. *Educational Psychologist, 28(2),* 117-148.

Bandura, A. (1990). Guide for constructing self-efficacy scales. In F. Pajares & T.

Urdan (Eds.), *Self-efficacy beliefs of adolescents* (Vol. 5, pp. 307–337). Greenwich, CT: Information Age Publishing.

Bennett, R. (). *Shaping middle schooling in Australia: A report of the national middle schooling project.* Canberra, ACT: Australian Curriculum Studies Association.

Bergman, S., & Asamoah, D. (2016). How shall we move beyond constructivism? *Social Problems, 33,* 159-162.

Best, S., & Kahn, A. (1998). *Quantitative data analysis: An expanded sourcebook* (2nd ed.). London, England: Sage Publications.

Biesta, G. J. (2007). Why 'what works' still won't work: From evidence-based education to value-based education. *Studies in Philosophy and Education, 29*(5), 491-503.

Bishop, M. (1995). Inclusion: Balancing the ups and downs. *Momentum, 26*(3), 28-30.

Braun, V. & Clarke, V. (2006). Using thematic analysis in psychology. *Qualitative Research in Psychology, 3*(2), 77–101.

Briddell, W. (1987). *The effects of a time management training program upon occupational stress levels and the Type A behavioral pattern in college administrators* (Unpublished doctoral dissertation). Florida State University, Tallahassee.

Bjornstad, F. (2016). *Conversational realities: The construction of life through language*. London: Sage.

Boaduo, A. A. P., Milondzo, K. S., & Gumbi, D. (2010). Teaching education and training for African in 21st century: What form should it take? *Educational Research and Review 6*(1), 1-16.

220

Boer, A., Pijl, S.J., & Minnaert, A. (2011). Regular primary schoolteachers' attitudes towards inclusive education: a review of the literature. *International Journal of Inclusive Education, 15*(3), 331-353.

Bohn, C. M., Roehrig, A. D., & Pressley, M. (2004). The first days of school in the classrooms of two more effective and four less effective primary-grades teachers. *Elementary School Journal, 104*(4), 269-287.

Boison, C. N. (2006). Building inclusive education; Implication for professional development. *African Journal of Special Educational Needs, 4*(2), 210-219

Bolton, G. (2014). *Reflective practice: Writing and professional development,* (4th ed.). London: Sage Publications Ltd.

Booth, T., Ainscow, M., & Kingston, D. (2006). *The index for inclusion; Developing play learning and participation in early years and concept, principles and challenges in teacher educationand Childcare*, Bristol: CSIE.

Booth, T. (1999). Keeping the future alive: putting inclusive values into action. *FORUM, 47*(3), 151–158.

Botros, R. (2017). Self-efficacy and social cognitive theories. PSYCH 484: Work Attitudes and Job Motivation.

Brannon, T. S. (2010). *The Effects of Classroom Management Beliefs/ Ideologies on Student Academic Success*. Dissertation completed at California State University.

Britton, B. K., & Tesser, A. (1991). Effects of time-management practices on college grades. *Journal of Educational Psychology, 83*(3), 405–410.

Brouwers, A., & Tomic, W. (2000). A longitudinal study of teacher burnout and perceived self-efficacy in classroom management. *Teaching and Teacher Education, 16*(5), 239-253.

Cameron, D. L., & Cook, B. G. (2007). Attitudes of pre-service teachers enrolled In an infusion preparation program regarding planning and accommodations for included students with mental retardation. *Education and Training in Developmental Disabilities, 42*(6), 353-63.

Caine, R., Caine, G., McClintic, C & Klimek, K. (2008) (2nd. Ed.). *The 12 Brain/Mind learning principles in action.* Corwin Press.

Canter, L. (2006). *Classroom management for academic success.* Bloomington, IN: Solution Tree.

Canter, L., & Canter, M. (1976). *Assertive discipline: A take-charge approach for today's educator.* Seal Beach, CA: Canter and Associates.

Canter, L., & Canter, M. (1992). *Assertive discipline: Positive management for today's classroom.* Seal Beach, CA: Canter and Associates.

Canter, L. & Canter, M. (1993). *Assertive discipline: Positive management for today's classroom.* Seal Beach, CA: Canter and Associates.

Canter, L., & Canter, M. (2001). *Assertive discipline.* (3rd ed.). Los Angeles, CA: Canter & Associates Publishing.

Cardona, C. M. (2009). Teacher education students' beliefs of inclusion and perceived competence to teach students with disabilities in Spain. *Journal of the International Association of Special Education, 10*(1), 33-41.

Carroll, A., Forlin, C., & Jobling, A. (2003). The impact of teacher training in special education on the attitudes of Australian pre-service general educators towards people with disabilities. *Teacher Education Quarterly, 30*(3), 65–79.

Casely-Hayford, L. (2002). *A situational analysis of Special Needs Education in Ghana* Accra: Ministry of Education.

Catell, C. (1966). Mainstream teachers' acceptance of instructional adaptations in Spain. *European Journal of Special Needs Education*, *18*(3), 311-332.

Cerit, M. (2010). Numerical simulation of dynamic side impact test for an aluminum alloy wheel. *Scientific Research and Essays, 5*(18): 2694-2701.

Chan, D.W. (2008b) General, collective and domain- specific teacher self-efficacy among Chinese prospective and in- service teachers in Hong Kong. *Teaching and Teacher Education: An International Journal of Research and Studies, 24*(4), 1057-1069.

Chaurembo, J. (2017). *Toward transformation in social knowledge.* New York: Springer-Verlag.

Chedha, A. (2018). The emotional practice of teaching. *Teaching and Teacher Education*, *14*(8), 835-854.

Cheung, H.Y. (2008). Teacher efficacy: a comparative study of Hong Kong and Shanghai primary in- service teachers. *Australian Educational Researcher, 35* (1),103-123.

Churchward, B. (2009) Stages of Discipline. Discipline by Design: the Honor Level System. retrieved from http://www.honorlevel.com/x45.xml

Glasser, W. (1997a). "Choice Theory" and student success. *Education Digest, 63,* 16-21.

Claessens, B. J. C., van Eerde, W., & Rutte, C. G. (2007). A review of the time management literature. *Personnel Review, 36,* 255–274.

Cobbold, C. (2010). *Teacher retention in Ghana: Perceptions of policy and practice.* Saarbrucken: Lambert Academic Publishing.

Cohen, C., Manion, L., & Morrison, K. (2007). *Research methods in education* (6th ed.). London: Routledge Falmer.

Creswell, J. W. (2013). *Research design: qualitative, quantitative, and mixed approaches* (2nd ed.). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage Publications, Inc.

Creswell, J. W. (2003). Research design: qualitative, quantitative, and mixed approaches (2nd ed.). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage Publications, Inc.

Cuban, L. (2009). *Hugging the middle. How teachers teach in an era of testing and accountability*. New York: Teachers College Press.

Cuban, L., Sykes, G., Bird, T., & Kennedy, M. (2010).Teacher education: its problems and some prospects. *Journal of Teacher Education 61*(5) 464–476.

Curtis, W. J. (2013). The crusade towards inclusion: *European Journal of Special needs Education, 16*(1), 61-79.

Dabone, K. T., Graham, Y. A., & Fabea, I. N. (2015). Effects of stress on the academic performance of Nursing final year students. *International Journal of Humanities, 2*(6), 78-91.

224

Daniels, S. (2017). The place of the psyche in a constructed world. *Theory & Psychology, 7*(5), 723-746.

Dapudong, K. (2014). The social constructionist movement in modern social psychology. *American Psychologist, 40*(3), 266-75.

Darling-Hammond, L. & Youngs, P. (2002). Defining "highly qualified teachers": What does "scientifically-based research" actually tell us? *Educational Researcher, 31*(9), 13- 25.

Darling-Hammond, L. (2000). Constructing 21st Century Teacher Education. *Journal of Teacher Education*, *57*(3), 300-306.

Darling-Hammond, L. (2006). Constructing 21st Century Teacher Education. *Journal of Teacher Education*, *57*(3), 300-306.

Darling-Hammond, L. (2010). Teacher Education and the American Future. *Journal of Teacher Education 61*(1-2), 35- 47.

Darling-Hammond, L., Berry, B., & Thoreson, A. (2006). Does teacher certification matter? Evaluating the evidence. *Educational Evaluation and Policy Analysis, 23*(1), 57– 77.

Darling-Hammond, L., Bransford, J. (Eds.). (2005). *Preparing teachers for a changing world.* San Francisco, CA: JosseyBass.

Dave, C. D. B., & Rajpit, S. (2000). Construction of activity duration and time management potential. *Applied Cognitive Psychology, 8*(5), 155–168.

Deiner, P. L. (2005). *Resources for educating children with diverse abilities: Birth Through eight* (4th ed.). New York: Thomson Delmar learning.

Deku, P., &, Vanderpuye I. 2017. "Perspectives of Teachers Regarding Inclusive Education in Ghana." *International Journal of Whole Schooling 13*(3), 39-54.

Dembo, M. H., & Eaton, M. J. (1997). School learning and motivation. In G. D. Phye (Ed.), *Handbook of academic learning: Construction of knowledge* (pp. 65–103). San Diego, CA: Academic Press.

Department of National Education. (2009). *Education White Paper 6: Special Needs Education.* Pretoria: Government Printer

Diez, M. E. (2007). Looking back and moving forward three tensions in the teacher dispositions discourse. *Journal of Teacher Education, 58*(5), 388-396.

Dreikurs, P. & Cassel, P, R. (1991). Cassel. *DisciplinelpithouttearS, NY: Plume*.

DuBrin, A. J. (2010). *Principles of leadership* (6th ed.). *USA:* Cengage Learning.

Eilam, B., & Aharon, I. (2003). Students planning in the process of self-regulated learning. *Contemporary Educational Psychology*, *28*(4), 304–334.

Eramus, E. (2009). *Multicultural Diversity and Special Needs Education*. Odense, Denmark.

Eurydice. (2004). The teaching profession in Europe: Profile, trends and concerns. Report IV: Keeping teaching attractive for the 21st century. Brussels: Eurydice

Ferraro, J. M. (2000). Reflective practice and professional development. Eric Digest Number 00-3. Retrieved 7th August, 2019, from http://www.ericfacility.net/ericdigests/ed449120.html

Field, A. (2005). *Discovering statistics using IBM SPSS statistics*. Sage.

Fielding, J., & Gilbert, G. N. (2000). *Understanding social statistics.* London: SAGE Publications Ltd.

Fish, D. (2005). Quality mentoring for initial teacher education: A principled approach. London, David Fullon publishers ltd.

Florian, L., & Rouse, M. (2009). The inclusive practice project in Scotland: Teacher education for inclusive education. *Teaching and Teacher Education, 25*(4), 594-601.

Foreman, P. (1996). *Integration and inclusion in action.* London: Harcourt Brace.

Foreman, P. (2001). *Integration and inclusion in action.* London: Harcourt Brace. Francis-Smythe, J. A., & Robertson, I. T. (1999). On the relationship between time management and time estimation. *British Journal of Psychology*, *90*(3), 333–347.

Fracnkel, J. R., & Waller, N. E. (2003). *How to design and evaluate research in Education*. New York: McGraw-HIV Inc.

Friend, M., & Bursuck, W. D. (2002). *Including students with special needs: A practical guide for classroom teachers* (3rd ed.). Boston: Allyn and Bacon.

Froyen, L. A., & Iverson, A. M. (1999). *School wide and classroom management: The reflective educator-leader.* Upper Saddle River, N.J.: Prentice-Hall

Fry, S., W. (2004).Characteristics and Experiences that Contribute to Novice Elementary Teachers' Success and Efficacy. *The Qualitative Report 5*(15), 1164-1190.

Fujo, T. M. (2012). Instilling collaboration for inclusive schooling as a way of Increasing access. *Remedial & Special Education, 16*(3), 159-167.

Ganly, A. (2010). Teaching Transitions: Techniques for Promoting Success Between Lessons. *Exceptional Children, 37*(1), 32-38).

Gay, L. R. (1992). *Education Research Competencies for Analysis and Application.* London: Charles E. Milton Keynes Philadelphia Company.

Gaye, N. (2015). Social judgment and attitudes: Warmer, more social, and less conscious. *European Journal of Social Psychology, 30*(2), 149-176.

Giangreco, M. F., Dennis, R., Cloninger, C, Edelman, S., & Schattman, R. (1993). I've counted jon: Transformational experiences of teachers educating students with disabilities. *Exceptional Children, 59*(4), 359-372.

Good, T. L. & Trophy, J. E. (1984). *Looking in classrooms.* New York: Longman.

Glasser, W. (1997a). "Choice Theory" and student success. *Education Digest, 63(2),* 16-21.

Glasser, W. (1997). A new look at school failure and school success. *Phi Delta Kappan, 75*(8), 596-604.

Green, P., & Skinner, D. (2005). Does time management training work? An evaluation. *International Journal of Training and Development*, *9*, 124–139.

Gunkey, T. R., & Passaro, P. D. (1994). Teacher efficacy: a study of construct dimensions. *American Educational Research Journal, 3*(3), 627-643.

Gyimah, E. K. & Amoako, R. (2016). Pre-service teachers' perceptions on procedures to identify and assess children with special educational needs and disabilities: The case of tutors of colleges of education in Ghana. Journal of Education and practice *7*(21), 110-116, 2016.

Gyimah, E. K., Ntim, E. K., & Deku, P. (2010). *Assessment techniques in special education*. Cape Coast: Hampton Press Ltd.

Gyimah, E. K. 2006. *Teachers' attitudes to inclusion in Ghana*. Ph.D. thesis, University of Leeds.

Hall, B. L., & Hursch, D. E. (1982). An evaluation of the effects of a time management training program on work efficacy. *Journal of Organizational Behaviour Management, 3*(7)*, 73–98.

Hamisi, L. (2016). Knowledge and teaching: Foundations of the new reform. *Harvard Educational Review*, *5*(6), 1-22.

229

Harvey, L., Moon, S., Geall, V., & Bower, R. (1997). *Graduates' Work: Organisational Change and Students' Attributes*. Centre for Research into Quality, Birmingham: Paul H. Brookes publishing co.

Hattie, J. (2003, October). *Teachers Make a Difference: What is the research evidence?* A paper presented at the annual meeting of Australian Council for Educational Research, University of Auckland.

Hattie, J., Biggs, J., & Purdie, N. (1996). Effects of learning skills interventions on student learning: A meta-analysis. *Review of Educational Research, 66,* 99–136.

Hayford, S. K. (1999). Students-Teacher perceptions of inclusive education in Ghana. *Ghanaian Journal of Special Education, 1*(4) 1-7.

Hayford, S. K. (1999). Students-Teacher perceptions of inclusive education in Ghana. *Ghanaian Journal of Special Education, 1*(4) 1-7.

Hayford, S. K. (2007). *Continuous assessment and lower attaining pupils in primary and junior secondary schools in Ghana.* PhD Thesis: University of Birmingham. Retrieved 21st June, 2014 fromhttp://etheses.bham. ac.uk/128/1/Hayford08PhD.pdf

Hicks, S. (2012). Self-Efficacy and Classroom Management: A Correlation Study Regarding the Factors that Influence Classroom Management (Doctoral dissertation). Retrieved fromhttp://digitalcommons.liberty.edu/doctoral/562/

Higgins, N. C. (1986). Occupational stress and working women: The effectiveness of two stress reduction programs. *Journal of Vocational Behaviors*, *29*(5), 66–78.

Hyam, M. (2004). *Advanced certificate in inclusive education–theoretical framework.* Melville: Rand Afrikaans University.

Johnson, J. (2016). *Images and issues: Typifying contemporary social problems.* Hawthorne, NY: Aldine de Gruyter.

Jones and Jones (2004). How do teachers learn to be effective classroom managers? In C. Kaufman, D. (2001). Organizing and managing the language arts workshop: A matter of motion. *Language Arts, 79*(2), 114–123.

Jorgensen, C., Schuh., & Nisbet, J. (2005). *The inclusion facilitators' guide.* Baltimore: Paul H. Brookes publishing co.

Kapp, J. A. (1994). *Children with problems: An orthopedagogical perspective.* Pretoria: Van Schaik.

Kapp, J. A. (1994). *Children with problems: An orthopedagogical perspective.* Pretoria: Van Schaik. .

Kaiser, H.F. (1974). An index of factorial simplicity. *Psychometrika, 39*(5), 31-36.

Kaufman, D. (2004). ''A sense of place'': Donald Graves and the organization and management of the writing classroom. *New England Reading Association Journal, 40*(1), 10–15.

Kline, R. B. (2011). *Principles and practice of structural equation modeling.* Guilford press.

King, A. C., Winett, R. A., & Lovett, S. B. (1986). Enhancing coping behaviours in at-risk populations: The effects of time-management instruction and social support in women from dual-earner families. *Behaviour Therapy*, *17*, 57–66.

Kizlik, B. (2009). *Classroom Management, Management of Student Conduct, Effective Praise Guidelines, and a Few Things to Know About ESOL Thrown in for Good Measure*. Retrieved June 19, 2019, from http://www.adprima.com/managing.htm.

Knight, N. (2017). Dimensions of teacher self-efficacy and relations with strain factors, perceived collective teacher efficacy, and teacher burnout. *Journal of Educational Psychology, 99*(3), 611-625.

Koskimen, S. (2015). Teacher development: Roles of domain expertise and pedagogical knowledge. *Journal of Applied Developmental Psychology*, *21*(3), 129-135.

Kounin, J. S. (1970). *Discipline and group management in classrooms.* New York: Holt, Rinehart, and Winston.

Krejcie, R. V., & Morgan, D. W. (1970). Determining sample size for research activities. *Educational and Psychological Measurement,30*, 607 – 610.

Kruger, W. (2017). The estrangement of social constructionism and experimental social psychology: History of rift and prospects for reconciliation. *Personality and Social Psychology Review, 6*(3), 168-187.

Kuyini, A. (2004). Providing Instruction to Students with Special Needs in Inclusive Classrooms in Ghana: Issues and Challenges." *International Journal of Whole Schooling 104*(1), 22–38.

Kwakye D. (2009). Attachment styles and contingencies of self-worth. *Personality and Social Psychology Bulletin*, *30*(10), 1243-1254.

Lahmers, A. G., & Zulauf, C. R. (2000). Factors associated with academic time use and academic performance of college students: A recursive approach. *Journal of College Student Development*, *41*(8), 544–556.

Lakein, A. (1973). *How to get control of your time and life.* New York, NY: NAL Penguin.

Lampert, M. (2010). Learning Teaching in, from, and for Practice: What do we mean? *Journal of Teacher Education, 61*(1-2), 21-34.

Levitz, E. (1996). Specialised education-the way forward. *Publico, 2*(3), 7-10.

Lewin, K. M., Stuart, J. S., (2003). *Researching teacher education: New perspectives on practice, performance and policy.* London: DFID Research Series.

Lewis, R. B., & Doorlag, D. H. (1991). *Teaching special students in the mainstream.* New Jersey: Prentice Hall.

Lewis, R. B. and D. H. Doorlag. (2006). *Teaching special students in general education Classrooms (7th ed.).* New Jersey: Pearson.

Liu, O. L., Rijmen, F., MacCann, C., & Roberts, R. (2009). The assessment of time management in middle-school students. *Personality and Individual Differences, 47*(6), 174–179.

Lombard, R. C., Miller, R. J., & Hazelkorn M. N. (1998). School-to-work and Technical preparation: Teacher attitudes and practices regarding the inclusion of students with disabilities. *Career Development for Exceptional Individuals*, *21*(1), 161-172.

Long, J., Frye, V., & Long, E. (1989). Making it till Friday: A guide to successful classroom management. Princeton, NJ: Princeton Book Company.

Lortie, D. (2002). *School teacher. A sociological analysis* (2nd ed.). Chicago: University of Chicago Press.

Low, C. (1997). Is inclusion possible? *European Journal of Special needs Education, 12*(1), 71-79.

Luhya, O. (2016). Common methodological frameworks for theory construction and evaluation in the social and behavioral sciences. *Genetic, Social, and General Psychology Monographs, 117*(8), 49-76.

Macan, T. H., Shahani, C., Dipboye, R. L., & Phillips, A. P. (1990). College students' time management: Correlations with academic performance and stress. *Journal of Educational Psychology, 82*(3), 760–768.

Macan, T. H. (1994). Time management: Test of a process model. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, *79*(3), 381–391.

MacBeath, J., & Dempster, N. (2008). *Connecting leadership: Principles for practice.* London: Routledge.

Malarz, L. (1996). Using staff development to create inclusive schools. *Journal of Staff Development 17*(3), 34-39.

Malinen, O., Savolainen, H. & Xu, J. (2012). Beijing in-service teachers' self-efficacy and attitudes towards inclusive education. Teaching and Teacher Education, *28*(4), 67-93

Mansfield, C., Beltman, S., Price, A., & McConney, A. (2012). "Don't sweat the small stuff": Understanding teacher resilience at the chalkface. *Teaching and Teacher Education, 28*(3), 357–367.

Marks, D. B. (2010). Pre-service teachers' perceptions of classroom management instruction: Theory to practice. *National Teacher Education Journal, 3*(2), 179-201.

Marten, J. (2016). *Cultural politics of everyday life: Social constructionism, rhetoric and knowing of the third kind*. Buckingham: Open University Press.

Martin, N. K. & Sass, D. (2010). *Construct Validation of the Behavior and Instructional Management Scale. Teacher and Teacher Education.* University of Texas, San Antonio.

Martin, N., Yin. Z. & Baldwin, B. (1998). *Classroom management training. Class size and graduate study: Do these variables impact teachers' beliefs regarding classroom management style?* Paper presented at the annual meeting of the American Educational Research Association. San Diego, CA.

Martin, N. K., Yin, Z., & Mayall, H. (2007). The attitudes & beliefs of classroom control inventory-revised and revisited: A continuation of construct validation. *Journal of Classroom Interaction 42*(2), 11-20.

235

McArthur, J.R. (2002). The why, what, and how of teaching children social skills. *The Social Studies, 93*(7), 183-186.

Meijer, C, & Foster, S. (1988). The effect of teacher self-efficacy on referral chance. *Journal of Special Education, 22,* 378-385.

Mereruko, P., & Saeed, S. (2012) Self-imposed blindness: The scientific method in education. *Remedial and Special Education, 8*(6), 31-37.

Merrett, F. & Wheldall, K. (1993). How do teachers learn to manage Classroom behaviour? A study of teachers' opinions about their initial training with special reference to classroom-behavior management**:** *Educational Studies 19(1),* 91-110

Miller, L., & Silvernail, D. L. (1994). Wells junior high school: Evolution of a professional development school. In L. Darling-Hammond (Ed.), *Professional development schools: Schools for developing a profession.* New York: Teachers College Press.

Ministry of Education. (2011). *National teacher education policy: Revised draft policy.* Accra.

Ministry of Education. (2011). *National teacher education policy: Revised draft policy*. Accra.

Ministry of Education. (2012). *Education Strategic Plan for 2003-2015.* Accra: MOE.

Ministry of Education. (2015). *Inclusive Education Policy*. Accra: MOE.

Mittler, P. (2000). *Working towards inclusive education: Social context.* London: David Fulton Publishers.

Molina, S. (2006). Teacher education students and first year in-service teachers perception about their initial education in relation to the special educational needs of Spanish Pupils. In H. Gash (Ed.), *Beginning teachers and diversity in school: A European study* (pp. 42-49). Institute Politécnico de Bruganca Report of Research undertaken within Comenius Project.

Mongillo, M. B. (2009). "How qualified are you and how long will you stay? An exploratory study of novice teachers' perceptions of preparation, induction and attrition". NERA Conference Proceedings. Paper 13. http://digital commons.uconn.edu/nera2009/13

Moon, B. (2007). *Research analysis; Attracting, developing and retaining effective teachers: A global overview of current policies and practices.* Paris: UNESCO

Moore, D. W. (2008). Classroom Organizational Structures as Related to Student Achievement in Upper Elementary Grades in Northeast Tennessee Public Schools. Electronic Theses and Dissertations at East Tennessee State University. Retrieved from: http://www.temoa.info/node/292566

Morisano, D., Hirsh, J. B., Peterson, J. B., Pihl, R. O., & Shore, B. M. (2010). Setting, elaborating, and reflecting on personal goals improves academic performance. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, *95*(5), 255–264

Mowes, A. D. (2002). *The views* of *educators regarding inclusive education in Namibia.* Stellenbosch: University of Stellenbosch.

237

Mpofu, W.   (2017). *Job satisfaction, self-efficacy, burnout, and path of teacher certification: Predictors of attrition in special education teachers*. Minneapolis: Capella University

Musset, P. (2010). Initial Teacher Education and Continuing Training Policies in a Comparative Perspective: Current Practices in OECD Countries and a Literature Review on Potential Effects. OECD Education Working Papers, 48, OECD Publishing. http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/5km bphh7s47h-en

Nel, M., & Savolainen, H (2011). Understanding teachers' attitudes and self-efficacy in inclusive education: Implications for pre-service and in-service teacher education. *European Journal of Special Needs Education, 27*(1), 51-68.

Nell, M. (1996). The education of learners with special educational needs: Current debates and challenges to colleges of education training pre-primary and junior primary teachers. *The Pre-school Years, 15*(7), 25-40.

Nilsen, R. (2017). Student teachers' attitudes towards the inclusion of children with special educational needs in the ordinary school. *Teaching and teacher education*, *16*(3), 277-293.

Nitko, A. J. (2004). *Educational assessment of students*. Englewood Cliffs, N J: Prentice Hall.

Nyarko-Sampson, E., & Dabone, K. T. (2016). Assessing counselling of sandwich students of University of Cape Coast students on multiple settings. *Journal of Education and Psychology, 3*(4), 45-63.

O'Leary, Z. (2004). *The essential guide to doing research.* London: Sage.

Obi, F. B., & Mensah T. (2006). Inclusive Education: the challenges of the 21st century. Nigerian and Ghanaian Teachers. *African Journal of Special Education Need, 4*(1), 19-28.

OECD (2010).*Educating Teachers for Diversity. Meeting the Challenge*. Paris: OECD

OECD. (2005). *Teachers matter. Attracting, developing and retaining effective teachers*. Paris: OECD.

Okafor, C. F. (1998). *Nigerian teacher education, search for new direction.* Enugu: Fourth Dimension Publishing Co. Ltd.

Okyere, B. A., & Adams, J. S. (2003). *Introduction to special education. An African perspective.* Legon Accra: Adwinsa Publication Ltd.

Oliver, M. (1990). *The individual and social models of disability.* Paper presented at joint workshop of the living option group and research unit of the Royal College of Physicians.

Oppong, A. M. (2003). *Understanding and effectively educating the special needs students in Ghana.* Winneba: Department of Special Education.

Ori, A. (2016). Data collection strategies in mixed methods research. In A. Tashakkori & C. Teddlie (Eds.), Handbook of mixed methods in social and behavioral research (pp. 297-320). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage Publications.

Orr, B., Thompson, C. & Thompson, D.E. (1999). Pre-service teachers perceived success of classroom management strategies. *Journal of Family and Consumer Sciences Education, 17*(1), 34-58

Ouane, A. (2008). *Creating education systems which offer opportunities for lifelong learning.* Paper presented at UNESCO International Conference on Education. 'Inclusive education: The way of the future' 48th session. Geneva.

Pajares, M. F. (1992). Teachers' beliefs and educational research: Cleaning up a messy construct. Review of Educational Research, *62*(3), 307-332.

Pavet, W., Deiner, E., Colvin, C., R., & Sandvick, E. (1991). Further validation of the Satisfaction with Life scale: Evidence for the cross method convergence of wellbeing measures. *Journal of Personality Assessment, 57*(4), 141-161.

Pearson, S. & Moomans. R. (2009). Using activity theory to understand prospective teachers' attitudes to and construction of special educational needs and/ or 142 disabilities. *Teaching and Teacher Education, 25,* 559-568. Retrieved from Wiley Online Library.

Pohlmann, J. T. (2004). Use and interpretation of factor analysis in the journal of educational research: 1992-2002. *The Journal of Educational Research, 98*(1),14-23.

Pilard, D. (1992). *The socialization process of student teaching: A descriptive study*. East Lansing, MI: National Center for Research on Teacher Learning. (ERIC Document Reproduction Service No. ED 479 865)

Pinquart, M., Juang, L. & Silbereisen, R. (2003). Self-Efficacy and successful school to work transition: A longitudinal study. Journal of Vocational Behavior, 63, 329-346

Republic of Ghana. (2002). *Meeting the challenges of education in the twenty-first century: A report of the President's committee on review of education reforms in Ghana.* Accra: Adwinsa Publications.

Reynolds, M. (2001). Education for Inclusion, Teacher Education and the Teacher Training Agency Standards. *Journal of In-Service training, 27*(3), 56-72.

Rice, J. K. (2003). Investing in teacher quality: A framework of estimating the cost of teacher professional development. In W. Hoy & C. Miskel (Eds.), *Theory and research in educational administration* (2nd ed.). Greenwich, CT: Information Age Publishing, Inc.

Richardson, K. M., & Rothstein, H. R. (2008). Effects of occupational stress management intervention programs: A meta-analysis. *Journal of Occupational Health Psychology, 13*(4), 69–93.

Richardson, V. (1996). The role of attitudes and beliefs in learning to teach. Handbook of research on teacher education (2nd ed.). (pp. 102-119). New York: Macmillan

Ritter, J. T. & Hancock, R. (2007). *Classroom management beliefs and practices of middle school teachers based on years of experience and teaching certification.* Unpublished doctoral dissertation, The University of North Carolina, Charlotte. (UMI No. 3096520)

Robson, S., Leat, D., Wall, K., & Lofthouse, R. (2012). Feedback or feed forward? Supporting Master's students through effective assessment to enhance future learning. In Ryan, J, (ed.). *Cross Cultural Teaching and Learning for Home and International Students: Internationalisation of Pedagogy and Curriculum in Higher Education,* (pp.53-69). London: Routledge.

Romano, M. (2008). Successes and Struggles of the Beginning Teacher: Widening the sample. *Educational Forum, 72*(1), 63-78.

Rouse, M. & Florian, L. (1997). Inclusive education in the market place. *International Journal of Inclusive Education, 1*(4), 323-336.

Sadker, M. P., & Sadker, D. M. (2002). *Teachers school and society* (7th ed.). Boston, New York: McGraw Hill.

Sanders, W., & Horn, S. (1998). Research findings from the Tennessee Value-Added Assessment System (TVAAS) database: Implications for educational evaluation and research. *Journal of Personnel Evaluation in Education, 12*(3), 247-256.

Santiago, D. (2012). *A Study of the Relationship between Middle School and High School Teachers Instructional and Behavior Management Practices and Demographic Variables.* Liberty University. Retrieved fromhttp://eport.maricopa.edu/published/j/cw/jcwhite/tdocume/

Savolainen, H. (2009). Responding to diversity and striving for excellence: The case for Finland. In C. Acedo (Ed.) *Prospects Quarterly Review of Comparative Education, 39*(3), 99-114.

Savolainen, H., Engelbrecht, P., Nel. M., & Malinen, O. (2011). Understanding teachers' attitudes and self- efficacy in inclusive education: implications for pre- service and in- service education. *European Journal of Special Needs Education, 3*(6), 12-27.

Savolainen, H., Engelbrecht, P., Nel. M., & Malinen, O. (2011). Understanding teachers' attitudes and self- efficacy in inclusive education: implications for pre- service and in- service education. *European Journal of Special Needs Education, 4*(3), 78-91.

Schein- Feder, Sh. (1995). *The influence of the young junior high school on personality variables.* Final thesis towards reception of master's degree, Tel- Aviv University, (in Hebrew).

Schumm, J. S., & Vaughn, S. (1995). Getting ready for inclusion: Is the stage set? *Learning Disabilities Research and Practice, 10*(3), 169-175.

Sen-nefer, L. A. (20130.The use of work sample to assess students' performance. *Journal of Keunya Science Education*, *4*(2), 65 – 90.

Sharma, U., Loreman, T., & Forlin, C. (2011). Measuring teacher efficacy to implement inclusive practices. *Journal of Research in Special Education Needs, 6*(8), 56-64.

Shulman, L. (1986). Those who understand: Knowledge growth in teaching. *Educational Researcher, 15*(2), 4-14.

Shulman, L. (1987). Knowledge and teaching: Foundations of the new reform. Harvard teaching, ways of learning about teaching. *Journal of Curriculum Studies, 28*(2), 393-396.

Shulman, L. (1992, September-October). Ways of seeing, ways of knowing, ways of teaching, ways of learning about teaching. *Journal of Curriculum Studies, 28*(5), 393-396.

Skinner, M. K. (1991). Cell-cell interactions in the testis. *Endocrine Reviews*, *12*(1), 45-77.

Skinner, E. A., & Dreikurs (1991). Motivation in the classroom: Reciprocal effects of teacher behavior and student engagement across the school year. *Journal of Educational Psychology, 85*(4). 571-581.

Skrtic, T.M. (1987). An organizational analysis of special education reform, *Counterpoint, 8*(2), 15-19.

Skrtic, T. M. (1986). The special education paradox: Equity as the way to excellence. *Havard Educational Review, 61*(2), 148-206.

Slaven, G., & Totterdell, P. (1993). Time management training: Does it transfer to the workplace? *Journal of Managerial Psychology*, *8*(6), 20–28.

Smith, J. (2016). Rhetoric in claims making: Constructing the missing children problem. *Social Problems, 34*(7), 101-121.

Snodak, I. C., Podell, D. M., & Lehman, I. R. (1998). Teacher, student and school attributes as predictors of teachers' responses to inclusion. *The Journal of Special Education, 31* (4), 480-497.

Sprague, M. M., & Pennell, D. P. (2000). The power of partners: Preparing preservice teachers for inclusion. *The Clearing House, 73*(3), 168-170.

Stainback, W., & Stainback, S. (1992). *Controversial issues confronting special education*. Boston: Allyn and Bacon.

244

Stubbs, S. (2008). *Inclusive education: Where there are few resources*. London: Atlas Alliance.

Sykes, G., Bird, T., & Kennedy, M. (2010). Teacher education: its problems and some prospects. *Journal of Teacher Education 61*(5) 464–476.

Tanaka, M. (2017). The public health researcher: A methodological approach. Melbourne, Australia: Oxford University Press. P. 611-618.

Tassoni, P. (2003). *Supporting Special Needs. Understanding inclusion in the early years.* Oxford: Heineman Education Publishers.

Terry, K. P., & Doolittle, P. E. (2008). Fostering self-efficacy through time management in an online learning environment. Journal of Interactive Online Learning, *7*(1), 195–207.

Tilstone, C., Florian, L., & Rose, R. (1998). *Promoting inclusive practice.* London: Routledge.

Touray, L. (2015). Mixed emotions: teachers' perceptions of their interaction with students. *Teaching and Teacher Education*, *16*(2), 811-826.

Toh, K. A., & Ho, B. (2000). *Case study of beginning teachers: their struggles, knowledge and beliefs* – AARE Sudney, 2000 Conference on "Education research towards an optimistic future" 4th to7th December, 2000.

Trueman, M., & Hartley, J. (1996). A comparison between the time management skills and academic performance of mature and traditional-entry university students. *Higher Education*, *32*, 199–215.

Tschannen-Moran, M., Hoy, A. W. & Hoy, W. K. (1998). Teacher efficacy: Its meaning and measure. *Review of Educational Research, 68*(2), 202-248

Tschannen-Moran, M., Hoy, A. W. & Hoy, W. K. (2001). Teacher efficacy: Its meaning and measure. *Review of Educational Research, 68*(2), 202-248.

Tschannen-Moran, M., & Hoy, A. W. (2002). Teacher efficacy: Capturing an elusive construct. *Teaching and Teacher Education*, *17*(7), 783-805.

UNESCO (1994). *The Salamanca statement and framework for action on special needs education.* Paris: Ministry of Education, France.

UNESCO (2001). *Teacher education through distance: Technology-curriculum cost-evaluation; Summary of case studies.* Paris: Ministry of Education, France.

UNESCO (2008). *Policy Guidelines on Inclusion in Education*. Paris: UNESCO

UNESCO (2007). *Policy Guidelines on Inclusion in Education*. Paris: UNESCO

UNESCO. (2010). The Ninth Meeting of the High-Level Group on Education for All, Addis Abba, 23-25 February. Retrieved March 17, 2013, from http://unesdoc.unesco.org/images/0018/001871/187149e.pdf

UNESCO. (2011). *World data on education* (7th ed.). Paris: Author. Retrieved October 17, 2019 from http://www.ibe.unesco.org/IBE/2010/GP/WDE/GH.

UNESCO. (2012). *Education for All: Beyond 2015.* Mapping Current International Actions to Define the Post 2015 Education and Development Agendas. Retrieved February 10, 2013 from http://www.unesco.org/new/file admin.

U. S. Department of Education. (2008). No child left behind. Retrieved June 16, 2010, from http://www.ed.gov/policy/elsec/leg/esea02/index.html

Vanderpuye, I., Obosu, G. K. & Nishimuko, M (2018). Sustainability of inclusive education in Ghana: teachers' attitudes, perceptions of resources needed and perception of possible impact on pupils: International Journal of Inclusive Education, *18*(3), 117-123

Van Eerde, W. (2003). Procrastination at work and time management training. *Journal of Psychology*, *137*(2), 421–434.

Vaughn, S. (1999). Kindergarten teachers' perceptions of instructing students with disabilities, *Remedial and Special Education*, *20*, 184-192.

Vislie, L. (2003). From integration to inclusion: Focusing on global trends and changes in the Western Europe societies. *European Journal of Special Needs Education, 18*(3), 117-123.

Wade, S. E. (2000). *Inclusive education: A casebook and reading for prospective and practicing educators.* New Jersey: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates.

Wade, S. E. (2000). *Inclusive education: A casebook and reading for prospective and practicing educators.* New Jersey: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates.

Walker-Gleaves, C. (2009). *A study of 'caring' academics and their work within a UK university.* Unpublished doctoral thesis, The University of Leicester.

Wallen, N. E., & Fraenkel, J. R. (1991). *The basis of educational research* (2nd ed.). New York: McGraw-Hill Inc.

Weinstein C., Tomlinson-Clarke S., & Curran M. (2004). Toward a conception of culturally responsive classroom management. *Journal of Teacher Education*, *55*(1), 25-38.

Weisel, A., & Dror, O. (2006). School climate, sense of efficacy and Israeli teacher's attitudes towards inclusion of students with special needs. *Education, Citizenship and Social Justice, 1*(2), 157-174.

White, J. (2006). *Harry Wong's Principals of Classroom Management*. Retrieved June102019, from http://eport.maricopa.edu/published/j/cw/jcwhite/tdocume/

WHO. (2001). *International classification of functioning, disability and health*. Geneva: Author.

Wishart, J. G., & Manning, G. (1996). Trainee teachers' attitudes to inclusive education for children with Down's syndrome. *Journal of Intellectual Disability Research*, *40*, 56-65.

Wong, H., & Wong, R. (1998). *The first days of school: How to be an effective teacher.* Mountain View, CA: Harry K. Wong Publication.

Wolfgang, C. H. &. Glickman, C. D (1986). *Solving Discipline Problems:* Strategies for Classroom Teachers (2nd ed.). Boston: Allyn and Bacon.

248

Zimmerman, B. J., & Risenberg, R. (1997). Self-regulatory dimensions of academic learning and motivation. In G. D. Phye (Ed.), *Handbook of academic learning: Construction of knowledge* (pp. 105–125). San Diego, CA: Academic Press.

APPENDICES

APPENDIX A

ETHICAL CLEARANCE

UNIVERSITY OF CAPE COAST
COLLEGE OF EDUCATION STUDIES
ETHICAL REVIEW BOARD

UNIVERSITY POST OFFICE
CAPE COAST, GHANA

Our Ref: CES-ERB/ucc.edu/V3/19-25

Date: March 4, 2019

Your Ref: ....

Dear Sir/Madam,

ETHICAL REQUIREMENTS CLEARANCE FOR RESEARCH STUDY

Chairman, CES-ERB
Prof. J. A. Omotosho
jomotosho@ucc.edu.gh
0243784739

Vice-Chairman, CES-ERB
Prof. K. Edjah
kedjah@ucc.edu.gh
0244742357

Secretary, CES-ERB
Prof. Linda Dzama Forde
lforde@ucc.edu.gh
0244786680

The bearer, Richard Amoako, Reg. No. ED/DSE/16/0005 is an M.Phil. / Ph.D. student in the Department of Education and Psychology in the College of Education Studies, University of Cape Coast, Cape Coast, Ghana. He / She wishes to undertake a research study on the topic:

Teacher Preparation Programme on novice teachers' academic knowledge, classroom management, time management and self-efficacy in inclusive schools in Ghana.

The Ethical Review Board (ERB) of the College of Education Studies (CES) has assessed his/her proposal and confirm that the proposal satisfies the College's ethical requirements for the conduct of the study.

In view of the above, the researcher has been cleared and given approval to commence his/her study. The ERB would be grateful if you would give him/her the necessary assistance to facilitate the conduct of the said research.

Thank you.
Yours faithfully,

Prof. Linda Dzama Forde
(Secretary, CES-ERB)

251

APPENDIX B

QUESTIONNAIRE

**UNIVERSITY OF CAPE COAST, COLLEGE OF EDUCATION
DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATION AND PSYCHOLOGY**

Dear respondent, I am a student of University of Cape Coast offering PhD (Special Education) programme in the Department of Education and Psychology.

I am conducting a study on the topic: **Impact of teacher preparation programme on their competence in inclusive practice in Ghana.** I am aware of your busy schedule but your involvement in this study is very crucial. I therefore entreat you to kindly respond to the following items appropriately to enable me find answers to the study. The confidentiality and anonymity of your responses are assured. The information you provide will be used for academic purpose only.

Thank you.

Richard Amoako

If you need further information, please call me on the number:

0249494032/0202095636

Section A: Background Information

Instruction: Please, tick (√) the response which corresponds with your background information.

1. Gender: Male [ ]   Female [ ]

2. Which College did you attend?

   ………………………………………………………

3. What is your area of specialization?

....

4. Which class or subjects do you teach?…………………………

Section B: Knowledge on inclusive practices

Instruction: Below is a table to be completed. It involves statements on how your initial teacher preparation programme prepared you to acquire knowledge on inclusive education on a 4 point scale of SA, A, D and SD. The letters stand for the following;

SA (strongly agree) A (agree), D (disagree) SD (strongly disagree)

For each of the statements, indicate with a tick (√) the one that best reflects what you do.

	Statements	SA	A	D	SD
5.	I have knowledge on how to identify various categories of children with special educational needs and disabilities in inclusive classroom.				
6.	I have knowledge on various characteristics exhibited by children with special educational needs and disabilities in inclusive classroom.				
7.	I am able to identify the educational needs of children with special educational needs and disabilities in an inclusive classroom.				
8.	I have knowledge on how to select appropriate tool / instrument for assessment of children with special educational needs and disabilities.				
9.	I have knowledge in selecting appropriate learning experiences for children with special educational needs and disabilities in inclusive schools.				
10.	I have knowledge on how to select and use appropriate strategies or methods of teaching that will ensure that all children in the inclusive class benefit from the instructions.				
11.	I have knowledge and skills to design teaching aids that will cater for the needs of all children in the inclusive classroom.				
12.	I know assistive devices such as Braille embossers, hearing aids, white cane, wheelchairs, scooters and crutches in				

253

		SA	A	D	SD
	inclusive classrooms.				
13	I know how to use the various assistive devices to support children with special educational needs in inclusive classroom				
14.	I can collaborate with other professionals from the field of medicine, education, psychology and social services etc to form multi-disciplinary team for assessment.				
15.	I know how to developIndividualised Education Programme (IEP) for children with special educational needs and disabilities.				
16.	I know the various placement options where persons with special educational needs can be placed for instructions				
17.	Novice teachers can monitor and evaluate Individualized Education Plan (IEP) to make a decision.				
18.	I know how to adapt curriculum content to meet the learning needs of all children in inclusive classroom				
19	I know how to include all children during instructions in an inclusive classroom				

Section C: Classroom Management Skills.

Instruction: Below is a table to be completed. It involves statements on how teacher preparation programmes prepare teachers to manage their inclusive classroom effectively on a 4 point scale of SA, A, D and SD. The letters stand for the following;

SA (strongly agree), A (agree), D (disagree) SD (strongly disagree).

For each of the statements, indicate with a tick (√) the one that best reflects what you do.

Statements		SA	A	D	SD
20.	I collaborate withpupils to set appropriate classroom rules to guide pupils behaviours in an inclusive classroom				
21.	I am able to get students in the classroom to follow the rules at all times to promote effective inclusive classroom activities.				

254

22.	I am able to enforce classroom rules to control student behaviour in an inclusive classroom.				
23.	I have skills in managing multiple situations at a time in an inclusive classroom.				
24.	I use classroom management techniques such as establishing classroom routine for successful class activities.				
25.	I apply behavioural intervention techniques such as reinforcement, punishment, shaping, modelling, ignoring and time out to manage behaviour in inclusive class.				
26.	Iarrange classroom seats to meet the needs of all children in the inclusive classroom during class activities.				
27.	I collaborate with my pupils in an inclusive classroom to achieve the set goals.				
28.	I value diversities among learners and acknowledge every effort each pupil makes in the inclusive classroom.				
29.	I use appropriate rewards forpupils who demonstrate good behaviours in classroom.				
30.	I use appropriate teaching approaches that encourage good interactions among pupils in an inclusive classroom.				
31	I am able to manage the physical environment in an inclusive classroom to promote effective learning among pupils				
32	I encourage and establish pupils' self-control through the process of promoting positive students achievement				
33	I use techniques and strategies that are culturally aligned with pupils cultural background in an inclusive classroom				
34	I always try to identify the intent of pupils misbehaviours in an inclusive classroom				

Section D: Time Management Skills.

Instruction: Below is a table to be completed. It involves statements on how teacher preparation programmes prepares novice teachers to manage their time effectively on a 4 point scale of SA, A, D and SD. The letters stand for the following:

SA (strongly agree) A (agree)

D (disagree) SD (strongly disagree)

For each of the statements, indicate with a tick (√) the one that best reflects what you do.

	Statements	SA	A	D	SD
35	I adjust and use instructional hours well to promote substantiallearning among all pupils in an inclusive classroom				
36.	I work diligently to meet every deadline in my field of profession				
37.	I am able to stay focus without diverting from the objective during classroom instructions				
38.	I always plan ahead and organise all instruction in advance before instructions start				
39.	I use the calendar to plan and organise my time and all other activities to be carried out in an inclusive schools				
40.	I am able to set and prioritise goals based on the time available.				
41.	I monitor the time pupils use on task during instructions so that they do not waste time unnecessarily				
42	Iensure that I always work within a stipulated time for specific lesson.				
43	I avoid procrastination as far as work schedules are concerned.				
44	I always draw my daily schedules and follow				

	them strictly in inclusive classroom				
45	I am able to handle distractive behaviours of pupils within a short possible time so that it do not affect instructional hours in inclusive classroom				
46	I arrange my workload based on the importance of the task in inclusive classroom				
47	I plan my workload based on the resulting impact of the completed task in the classroom				
48	I always ensure self-regulatory activities in inclusive classroom in order to use instructional hours effectively.				
49	I always assign tasks that align with the pupils needs and interest to motivate them to accomplish task on time.				

Section E: Self-efficacy for Effective Inclusive Education

Instruction: Below is a table to be completed. It involves statements on how teacher preparation programmes prepare teachers to develop positive self-efficacy for effective inclusive education a 4 point scale of SA, A, D and SD. The letters stand for the following; SA (strongly agree), A (agree), D (disagree) SD (strongly disagree)

For each of the statements, indicate with a tick (√) the one that best reflects what you do.

257

	Statements	SA	A	D	SD
50.	I am confident that my initial teacher preparation programme has equipped me with the theoretical knowledge to teach in inclusive classroom				
51.	I am confident that I possess the practical knowledge and skills to handle the diverse educational needs of children with special educational needs in inclusive classroom.				
52.	I believe that my initial teacher preparation programme has trained me enough to handle all disruptive behaviours of children with special educational needs.				
53. .	I am confident in using inclusive oriented pedagogical strategies to promote learning among all learners in an inclusive classroom.				
54.	I am confident that my initial teacher preparation programme has adequately equipped me with skills to use curriculum differentiation to help children with special educational needs to achieve instructional goals.				
55.	I believe that I can cooperate with other professionals to help children with special educational needs learn in an inclusive classroom.				
56.	I have confidence in using assistive technology in helping children with special educational needs to learn in inclusive classroom				
57	I am confident in implementing effective behaviour management strategies in inclusive classroom				
58	I am able to provide clear and reasonable consequences for behaviour in inclusive classroom				
59	I am capable of planning appropriate learning experiences for pupils in an inclusive classroom				
60	I am confident to develop learning programs that cater for students' interests				

258

61.	I can implement child-centred learning experiences in an inclusive school				
62	I engage students in intellectually challenging experiences in inclusive school				
63	I am confident in creating a variety of assessment tasks including authentic assessment portfolio, work sample analyses etc.				
64	I can always manage to solve difficult problems of pupils with special educational needs in inclusive schools				

APPENDIX C

TEACHERS' INTERVIEW GUIDE

SECTION A: BACKGROUND INFORMATION 1. Please state your gender? 2. Within which of these age-ranges do you belong to? 20 and below   21- 30   31 - 40 41- 50   51 - 60 3. Please what is your educational qualification………......……………………………………………

Instruction: listen to the following questions and respond as you deem appropriate

SECTION B: EFFECTINESS OF TEACHER PREPARATION PROGRAMME FOR INCLUSIVE EDUCATION IN GHANA

4. What are some of the practical knowledge you acquire in school that you think can help you function effectively in an inclusive classroom?

5.   What practical experiences have you had as part of your teacher preparation programme that

build your confidence to teach in inclusive schools?

6.   How has the teacher preparation programme helped to change your perception on persons with disabilities and special educational needs?

7. What aspects of your training have helped you to be successful teacher in inclusive classroom?

SECTION C: Suggestions to improve teacher preparation programmes

8. What aspects of teacher preparation programme needs to be improved so that future teachers would be better prepared for effective inclusive education in Ghana?

9.   What do you suggest that should be added to teacher preparation programme to ensure that teachers are well prepared for effective inclusive education in Ghana?

10. What do u suggest should be taken away from teacher preparation programme to ensure that teachers are well prepared for effective inclusive education in Ghana?

11. What general suggestion do u give to improve inclusive practices in the country?
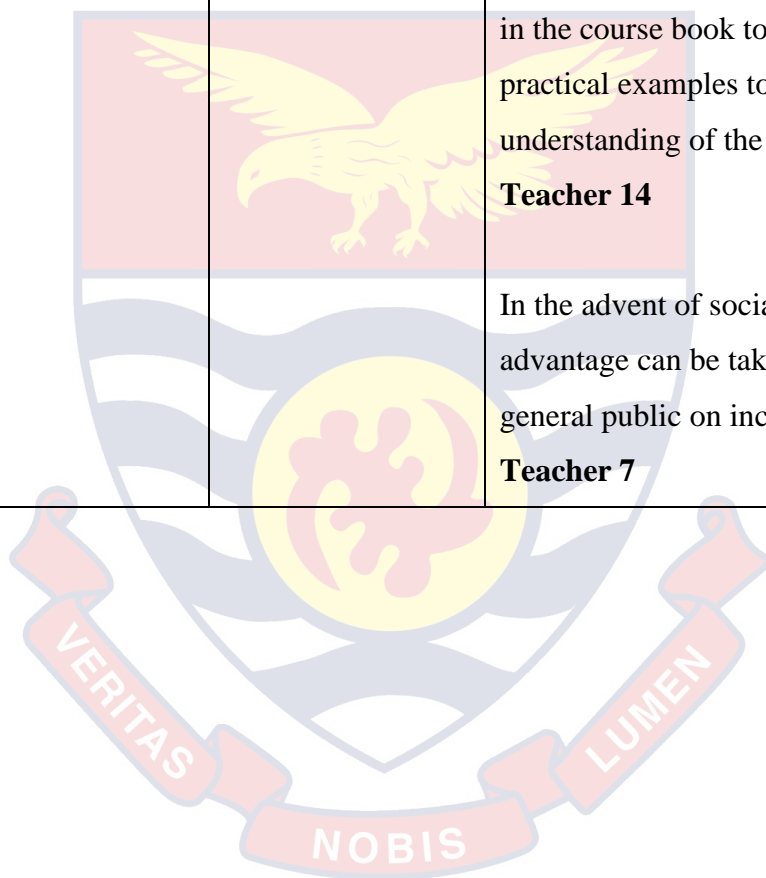
APPENDIX D

CODING SCHEME

Main themes	Categories of Codes	Example of Patterns of response
How has teacher preparation programme helped to make teachers effective in inclusive schools?	Identification and assessment	I'm able to identify children with SEN because I'm better placed to know their characteristics. **Teacher 12** Last time for example, I observed that one boy would squeeze the face anytime he was writing. **Teacher 9**
	Methods and materials	I'm able to use a number of methods in helping children with special education needs. **Teacher 10** I am able to select appropriate pedagogical strategies to benefit each child in the class. **Teacher 11** I treat each child as different even though they are all together in one class.**Teacher 4**
	Developing positive attitudes towards persons with disabilities	I have no regrets at all in dealing with children with special educational needs. They are lovely people to deal with. I think I treat them well and show them optimum love.**Teacher 13** I treat them like I would treat my own

262

		children. By so doing I have gotten their mates to also treat such children with all the respect and affection they deserve…and they doing well in class.**Teacher 7**
	Collaborating with other professionals to manage children with SEN	At times, I get angry…really angry at the way some of my colleagues speak to children with SEN. …but I don't blame them that much…if you call parents and they don't show up. **Teacher 8** How many parents with SEN children are enlightened to know what they are suppose to do to help teachers cater for their kids well? My own colleagues are even suspects….my brother, there is no collaboration or support from anywhere. **Teacher 13**

What suggestions do you give to improve teacher preparation programmes at Colleges of Education for effective inclusive education?	Continues professional development for Teachers	I think specialists in the field of special education should be made to organise refresher programmes for all teachers on special education. **Teacher 17** There must be an in-service training within the circuit or district on a regular basis. **Teacher 13** I think teachers be trained regularly on special education related issues to refresh their minds so that they can prepare appropriate teaching and learning materials and select the best methods that will work for all learners in the inclusive classrooms. **Teacher 12**
	Special Education as a Core/Mandatory Course	I think that the 2 credit hour semester course read by pre-service teachers in special education for two hours is not enough to prepare teachers adequately for effective inclusive education in Ghana. **Teacher 19** I suggest that the scope of the curriculum be broadened to cover several educational needs of children so that it can span for the entire three year education programme. **Teacher 10**
	Practical or Real Experience with children with	I suggest that pre-service teachers be made to embark on field trips to some

264

	special educational needs and Disabilities	of the special schools and inclusive schools to have a practical feel of some of the children with special educational needs and disabilities. **Teacher 17** I think that the 'Demonstration Schools' in various Colleges of Education in Ghana should be turned into inclusive schools. …This can help trainees to easily get access to the schools and practice the inclusive principles they learn in the classroom. **Teacher 19**
	The Use of Assistive Technology	I think the study of sign language and Braille should be included in the curriculum for the Colleges of Education in Ghana. **Teacher 11**
	Intensive Public Education on Disability Issues	I suggest that policy makers must be educated on the benefits of inclusive education so that they can support the inclusive ideology. **Teacher 6**
		I suggest that, the Special Education

265

	Courses should be handled by expects	course read by pre-service teachers at the College of Education in Ghana should be taught by specialists in Special Education. **Teacher 20** Back in college some tutors complain that the course they were teaching were not their subject areas. Even as students, we could see they come to the classroom to read the information in the course book to us without any practical examples to augment our understanding of the course content. **Teacher 14**
		In the advent of social media, advantage can be taken to educate the general public on inclusive education. **Teacher 7**

APPENDIX E

A SAMPLE OF CODED INTERVIEW

Interview 16

Interviewer: I am about to conduct another interview. Please state your gender?

Respondent: **Male**

Interviewer: Within which of this age-group do you belong?

20 and below

21 - 30

31 - 40

41 - 50

51 -60

Respondent: **21 - 30**

Interviewer: Please what is your educational qualification?

Respondent: **DIPLOMA**

Interviewer: Listen to the following questions and respond as you deem appropriate.

> What are some of the practical knowledge you acquire in school that you think can help you function effectively in an inclusive classroom?

Respondent: I am able to identify a child who has disability in the classroom based on the characteristics of disabilities we studied whiles we were in school. (*Identification and assessment*)

267

Interviewer : Good, Is that all?

Respondent : Yea, all the children who have problems of learning is been selected for special assistance

Interviewer: That is wonderful. What practical experiences have you had as part of your teacher preparation programme that build your confidence to teach in inclusive schools?

Respondent: It has boosted my confidence in selecting appropriate teaching and learning materials in teaching children with special educational needs and disabilities. (**Confidence in selecting appropriate teaching method)**

Interviewer: Good. Is that all?

Respondent: It also helped me to learn how to treat all learners equally in the classroom

Interviewer: How has the teacher preparation programme helped to change your perception on persons with disabilities and special educational needs?

Respondent: It has helped me to understand that all pupils can learn when they get Appropriate support from their teachers. It has also helped me to change my perception about persons with disability *(**Developing positive attitudes towards persons with disabilities**)*

Interviewer: What aspects of your training has helped you to be successful teacher in inclusive classroom?

Respondent: Both the classroom experience and the teaching practice programme of the training

Interviewer: What aspects of teacher preparation programme needs to be improved so that future teachers would be better prepared for effective inclusive education in Ghana?

Respondent: Courses studied at the college of education should be given to expect to handle it so that they can give practical examples to argument students understanding

Special Education as a Core/Mandatory Course)

Interviewer: Wonderful, is that all?

Respondent: The course content is also too much to be studied within one semester.

It must bemodified

Interviewer: What do you suggest that should be added to teacher preparation programme to ensure that teachers are well prepared for effective inclusive education in Ghana?

Respondent: The study of sign language and other assistive devices

Teacher students teachers how to collaborate with other professionals (**The**

Use of Assistive Technology*)*

Interviewer: Good suggestion, any further suggestion?

Respondent: Yes, there should be practical or real experience with children with disability

The scope of the special education as a course should be inclusive oriented.

Interviewer: What general suggestion do u give to improve inclusive practices in the country?

Respondent: There   should   be   regular   in-service   training   programme (**Continues professional development for Teachers)**

The general public must also be educated to accept persons with disabilities

Interviewer: We have come to the end of this interview. Thank you so much for your information and the time that you have given to me. I deeply appreciate it. Have a nice   day and take good care of the kids.

Respondent: Thank you too

269

APPENDIX F
Correlation Matrix

		knowledge on how to identify categories	knowledge on various characteristics	able to identify educational needs	knowledge on how to select appropriate tools	knowledge in selecting appropriate learning	knowledge on how to select and use	knowledge and skills to design	know how to use assertive devices	collaborate with other professionals	know how to develop individualised education programme	novice teachers can monitor and evaluate
Correlation	knowledge on how to identify categories	1.000	.725	.363	.206	.258	.273	.262	-.183	.211	.201	-.075
	knowledge on various characteristics	.725	1.000	.392	.285	.202	.326	.136	-.087	.043	.232	-.020
	able to identify educational needs	.363	.392	1.000	.437	.327	.050	.196	.029	-.004	.229	.065
	knowledge on how to select appropriate tools	.206	.285	.437	1.000	.743	.328	.191	.369	.359	.716	.302
	knowledge in selecting appropriate learning	.258	.202	.327	.743	1.000	.239	.028	.329	.295	.665	.266
	knowledge on how to select and use	.273	.326	.050	.328	.239	1.000	.415	.303	.256	.387	.111
	knowledge and skills to design	.262	.136	.196	.191	.028	.415	1.000	.057	.419	.255	.148
	know how to use assertive devices	-.183	-.087	.029	.369	.329	.303	.057	1.000	.238	.335	.381
	collaborate with other professionals	.211	.043	-.004	.359	.295	.256	.419	.238	1.000	.232	.171
	know how to develop individualised education programme	.201	.232	.229	.716	.665	.387	.255	.335	.232	1.000	.093
	novice teachers can monitor and evaluate	-.075	-.020	.065	.302	.266	.111	.148	.381	.171	.093	1.000

270

KMO and Bartlett's Test

Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy.		.631
Bartlett's Test of Sphericity	Approx. Chi-Square	729.091
	df	55
	Sig.	.000

Communalities

	Initial	Extraction
knowledge on how to identify categories	1.000	.784
knowledge on various characteristics	1.000	.727
able to identify educational needs	1.000	.503
knowledge on how to select appropriate tools	1.000	.830
knowledge in selecting appropriate learning	1.000	.775
knowledge on how to select and use	1.000	.539
knowledge and skills to design	1.000	.685
know how to use assertive devices	1.000	.590
collaborate with other professionals	1.000	.533
know how to develop individualised education programme	1.000	.645
novice teachers can monitor and evaluate	1.000	.333

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis.

271

Total Variance Explained

Component	Initial Eigenvalues			Extraction Sums of Squared Loadings			Rotation Sums of Squared Loadings		
	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %
1	3.693	33.572	33.572	3.693	33.572	33.572	2.836	25.778	25.778
2	1.903	17.299	50.871	1.903	17.299	50.871	2.242	20.379	46.157
3	1.348	12.259	63.130	1.348	12.259	63.130	1.867	16.973	63.130
4	.925	8.411	71.541						
5	.849	7.715	79.256						
6	.734	6.671	85.926						
7	.550	4.997	90.924						
8	.367	3.335	94.259						
9	.305	2.775	97.034						
10	.171	1.551	98.585						
11	.156	1.415	100.000						

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis.

Scree Plot
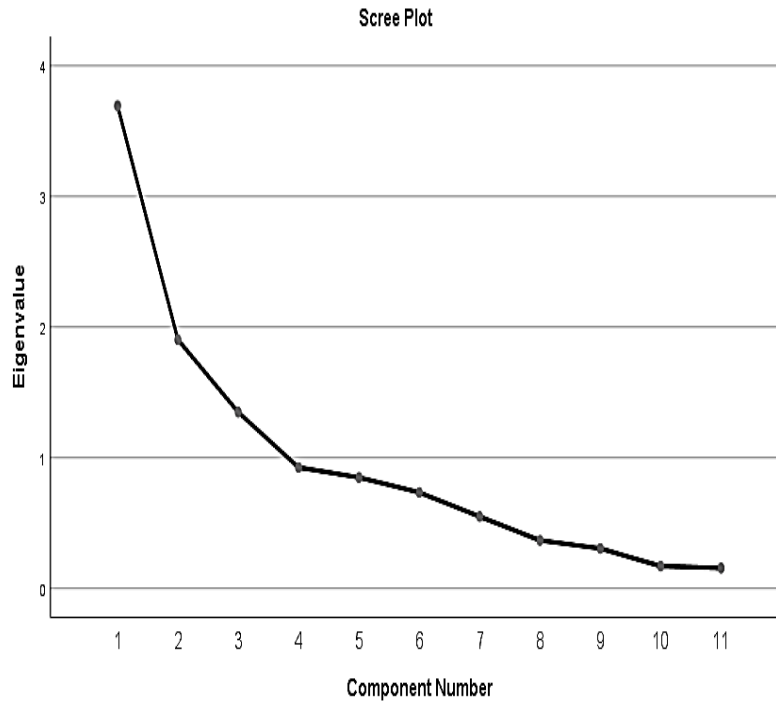
Component Matrix^a

	Component		
	1	2	3
knowledge on how to select appropriate tools	.848		
know how to develop individualised education programme	.768		
knowledge in selecting appropriate learning	.763		-.392
knowledge on how to select and use	.578		.452
able to identify educational needs	.490	.358	-.367
knowledge on how to identify categories	.498	.727	
knowledge on various characteristics	.503	.685	
know how to use assertive devices	.425	-.640	
novice teachers can monitor and evaluate	.331	-.470	
knowledge and skills to design	.443		.690
collaborate with other professionals	.492		.510

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis.

a. 3 components extracted.

273

Rotated Component Matrixª

	Component 1	Component 2	Component 3
knowledge on how to select appropriate tools	.852		
knowledge in selecting appropriate learning	.841		
know how to develop individualised education programme	.733		
know how to use assertive devices	.635	-.365	
novice teachers can monitor and evaluate	.469		
knowledge on how to identify categories		.836	
knowledge on various characteristics		.834	
able to identify educational needs	.343	.613	
knowledge and skills to design			.815
collaborate with other professionals			.684
knowledge on how to select and use			.671

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis.

 Rotation Method: Varimax with Kaiser Normalization.ª

a. Rotation converged in 5 iterations.

Component Transformation Matrix

Component	1	2	3
1	.758	.453	.470
2	-.504	.863	-.018
3	-.414	-.224	.882

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis.

 Rotation Method: Varimax with Kaiser Normalization.

274

Normal Q-Q Plot of CTOTAL
for Specialization= AGRICULTURE
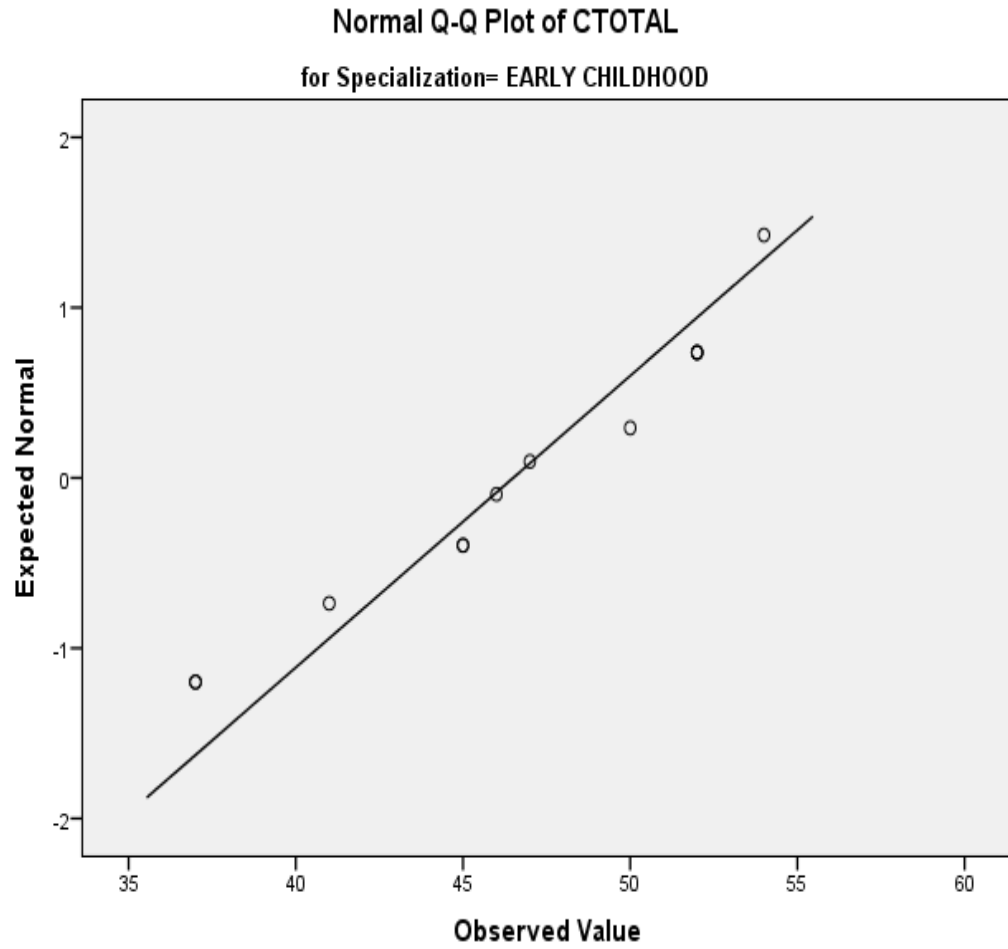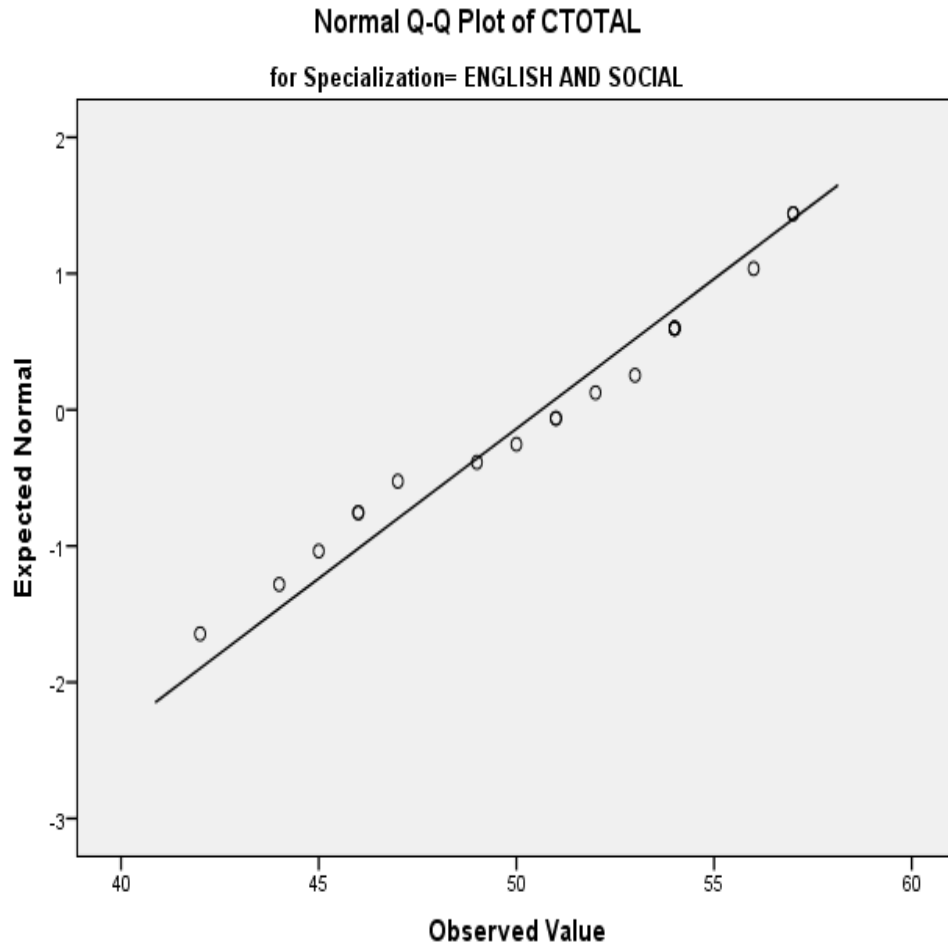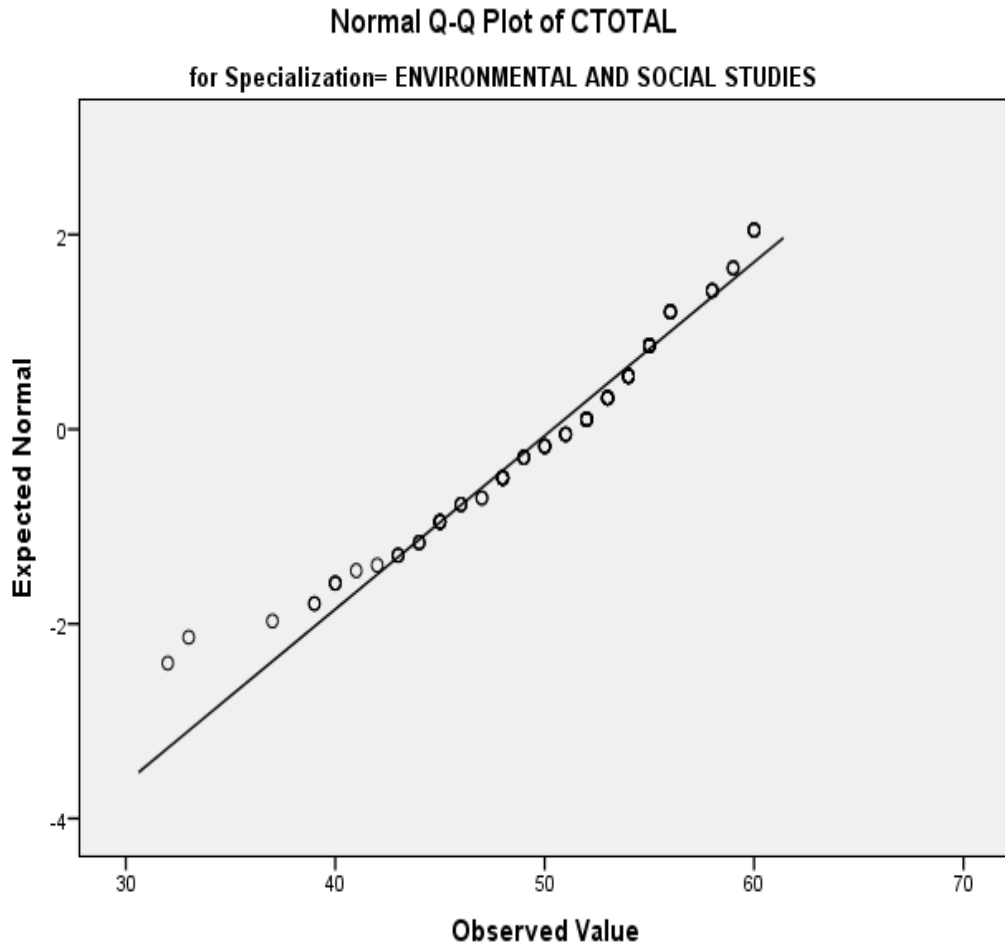
275

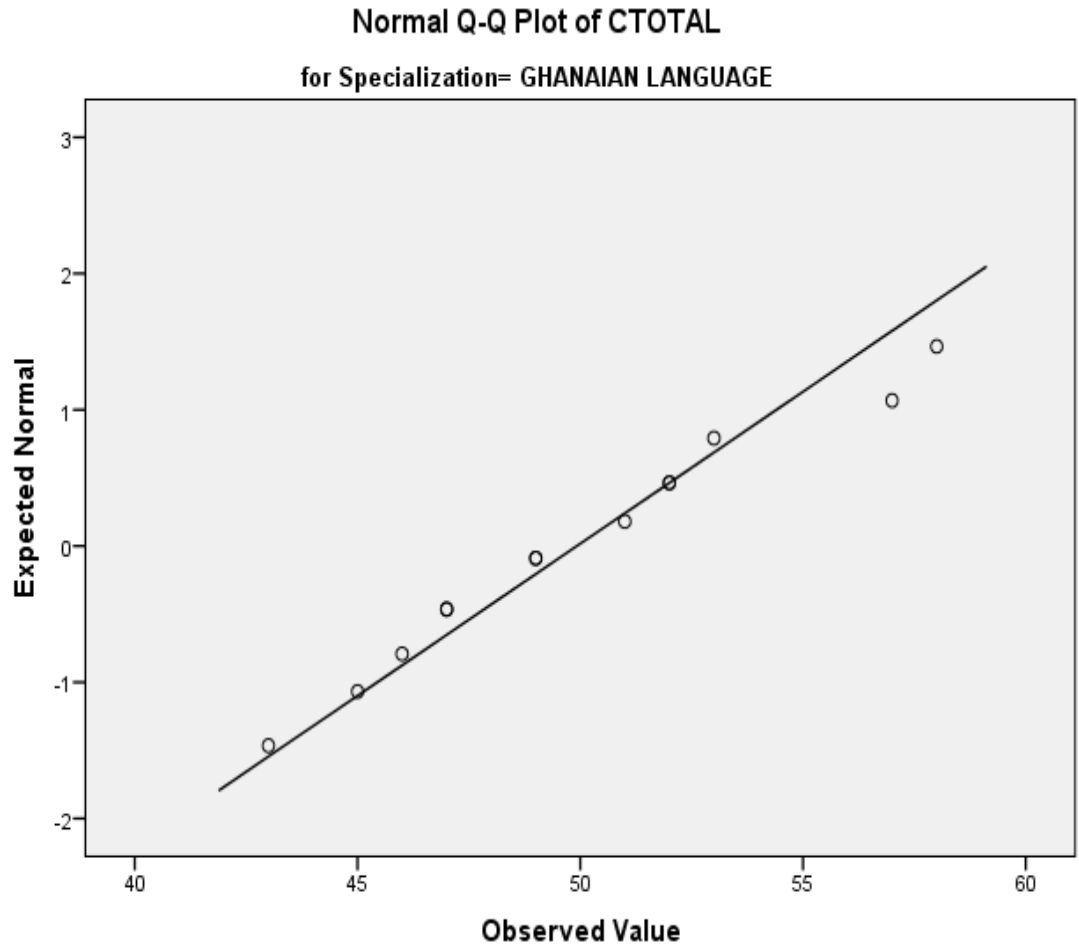## Normal Q-Q Plot of CTOTAL

for Specialization= ART
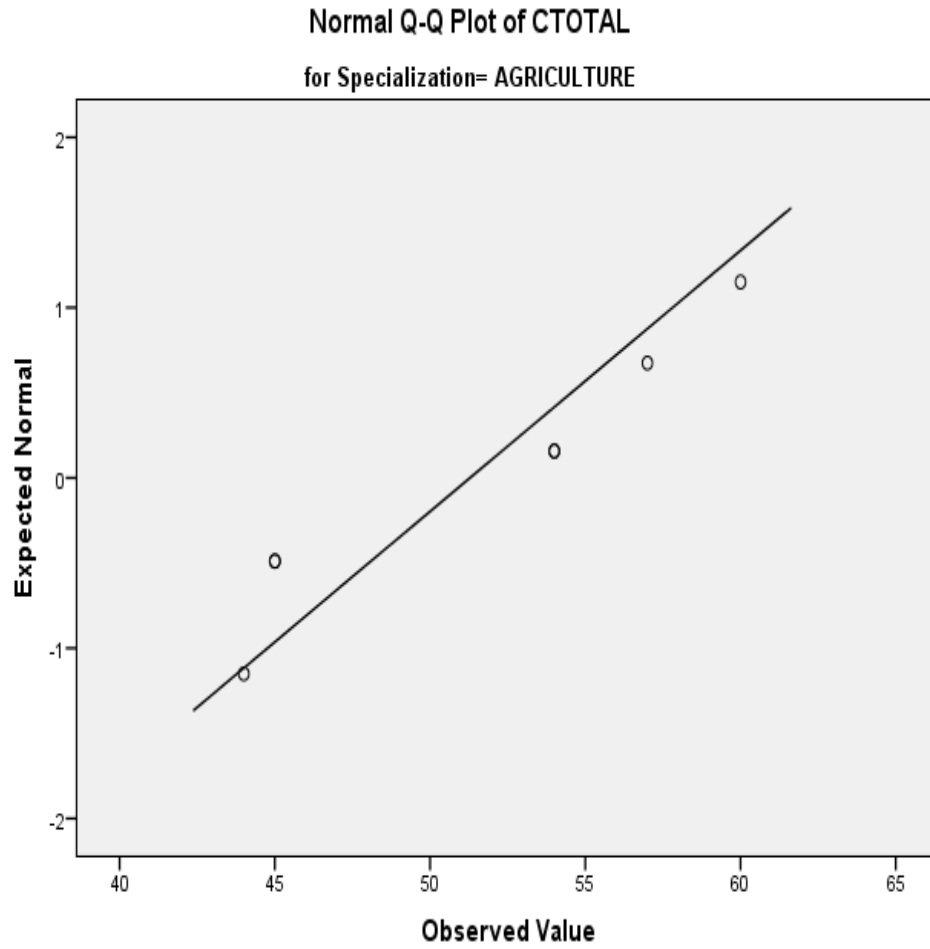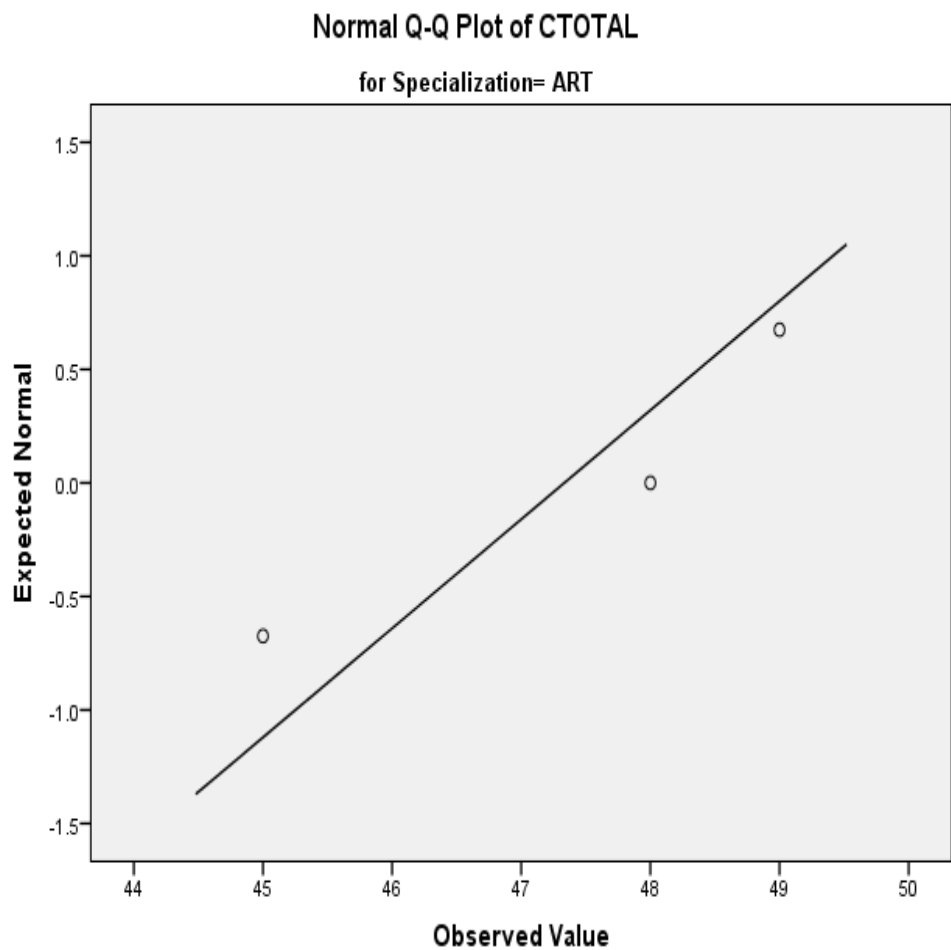
Normal Q-Q Plot of CTOTAL

for Specialization= CATERING

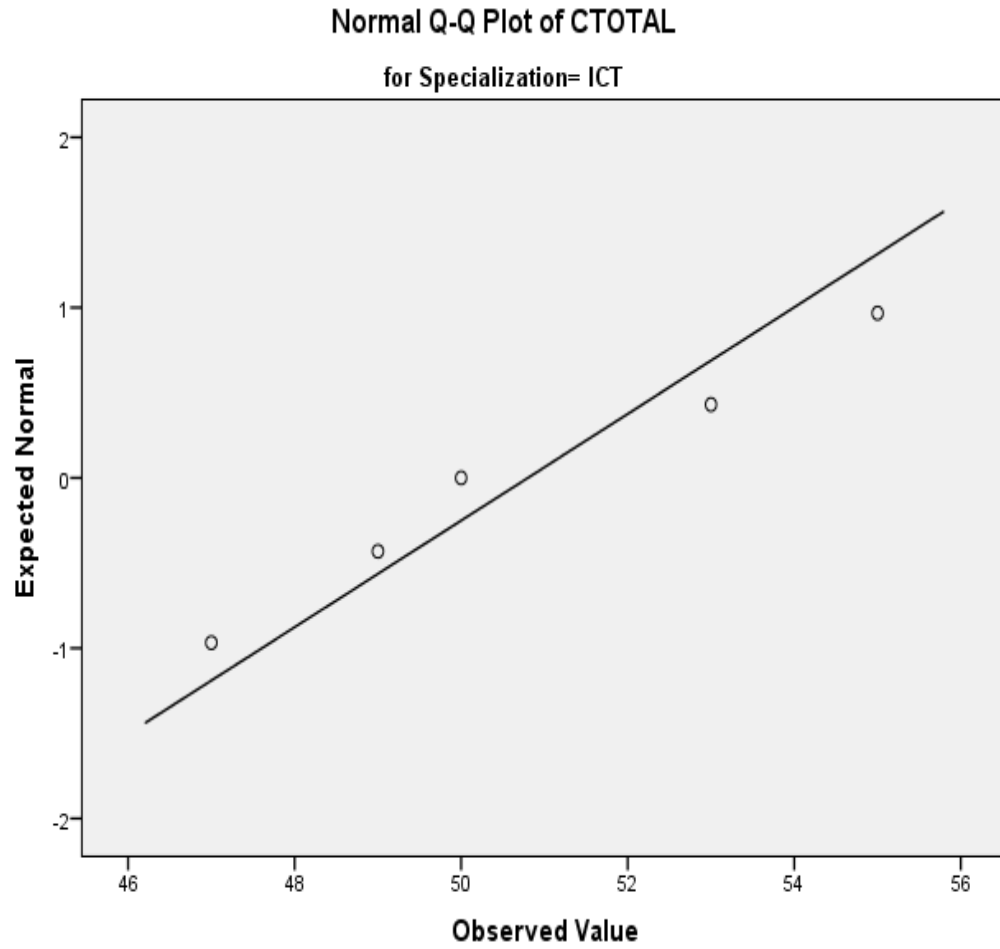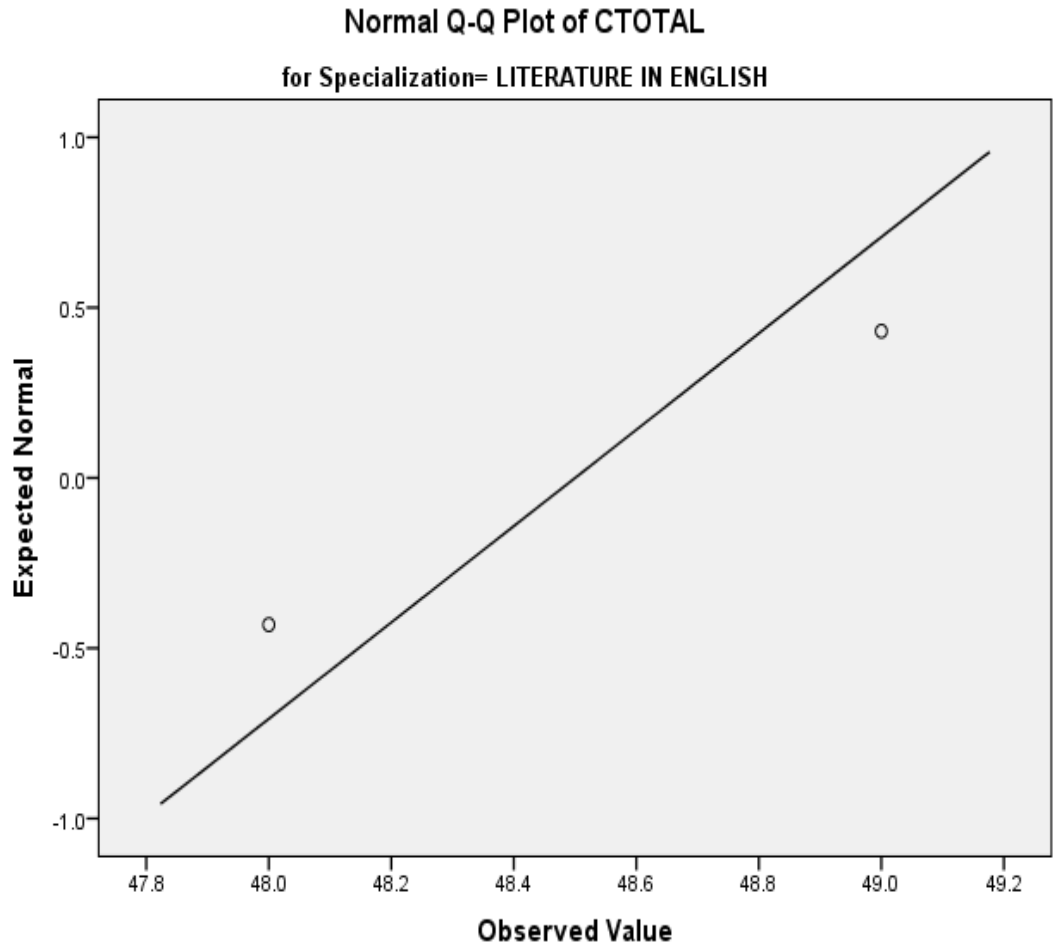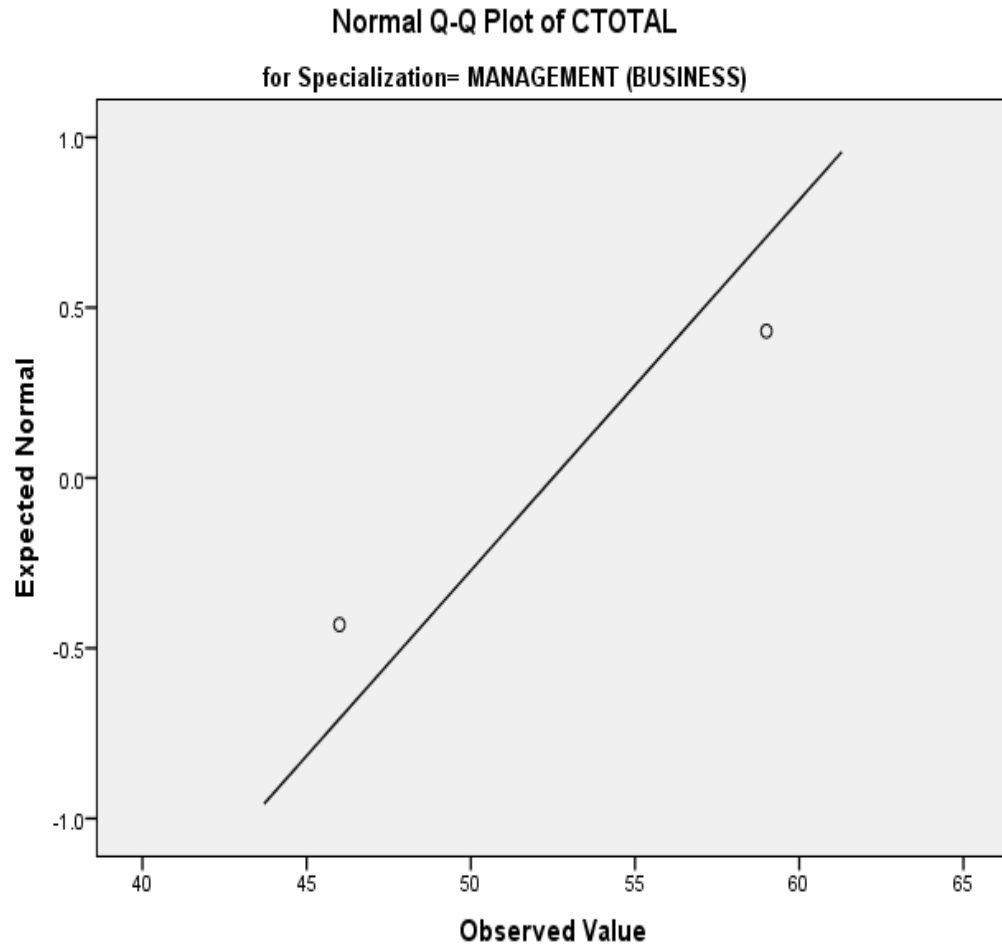Normal Q-Q Plot of CTOTAL
for Specialization= EARLY CHILDHOOD

278

Normal Q-Q Plot of CTOTAL

for Specialization= ENGLISH AND SOCIAL

279

Normal Q-Q Plot of CTOTAL

for Specialization= ENVIRONMENTAL AND SOCIAL STUDIES

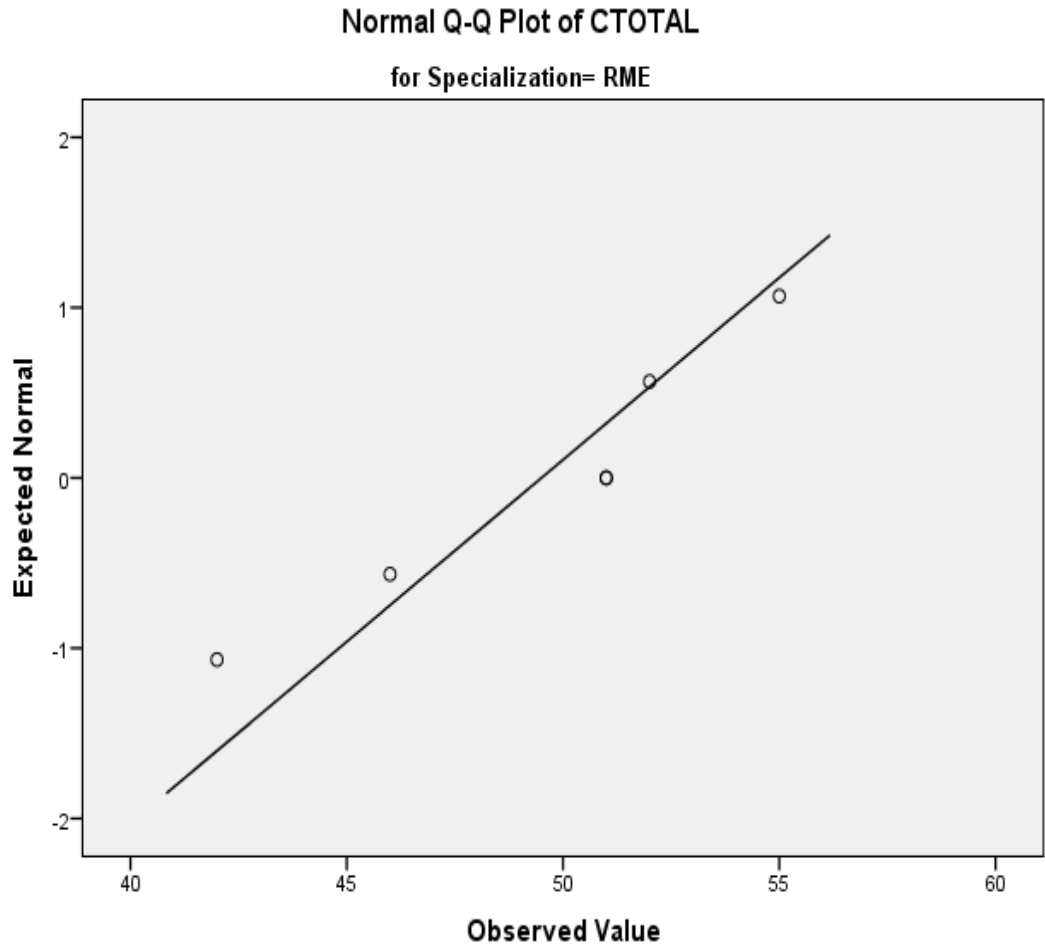Normal Q-Q Plot of CTOTAL

for Specialization= GHANAIAN LANGUAGE

Normal Q-Q Plot of CTOTAL

for Specialization= ICT

Normal Q-Q Plot of CTOTAL

for Specialization= LITERATURE IN ENGLISH

Normal Q-Q Plot of CTOTAL

for Specialization= MANAGEMENT (BUSINESS)

284

Normal Q-Q Plot of CTOTAL

for Specialization= MATHS

Normal Q-Q Plot of CTOTAL

for Specialization= RME

286

Normal Q-Q Plot of CTOTAL

for Specialization= SCIENCE

287

Normal Q-Q Plot of CTOTAL

for Specialization= SOCIAL STUDIES

288

Normal Q-Q Plot of CTOTAL

for Specialization= TECHNICAL AND MATHS
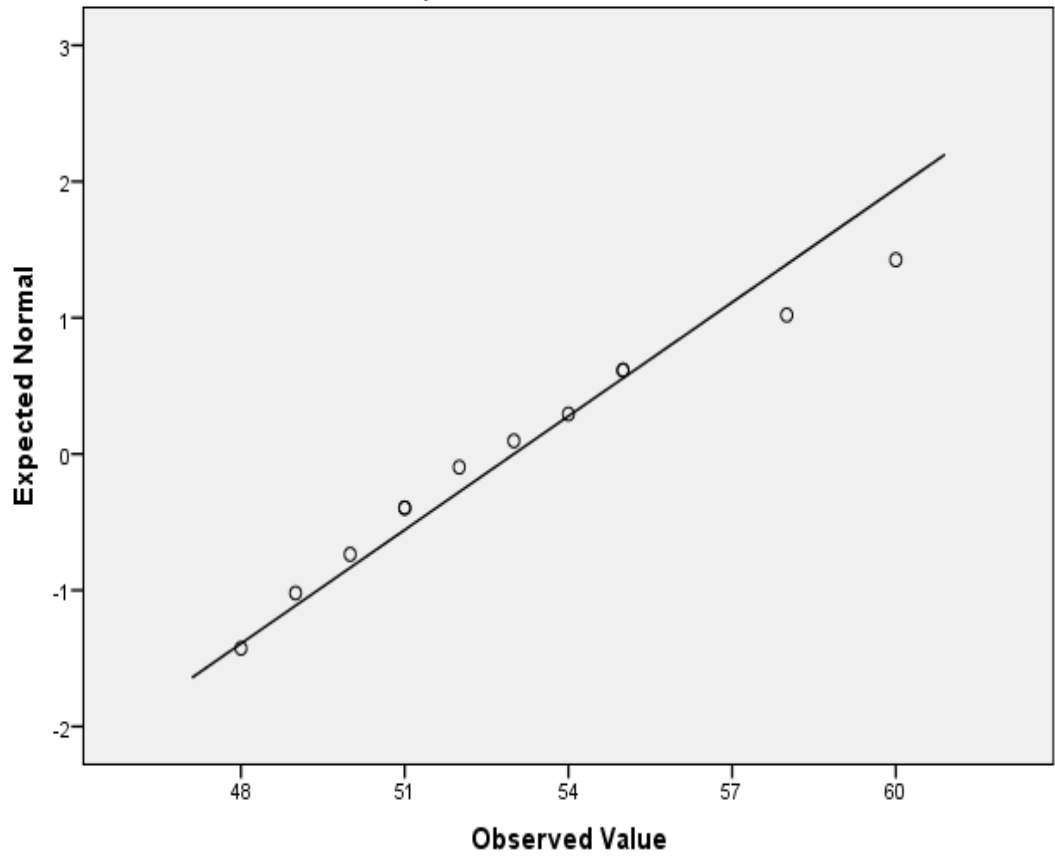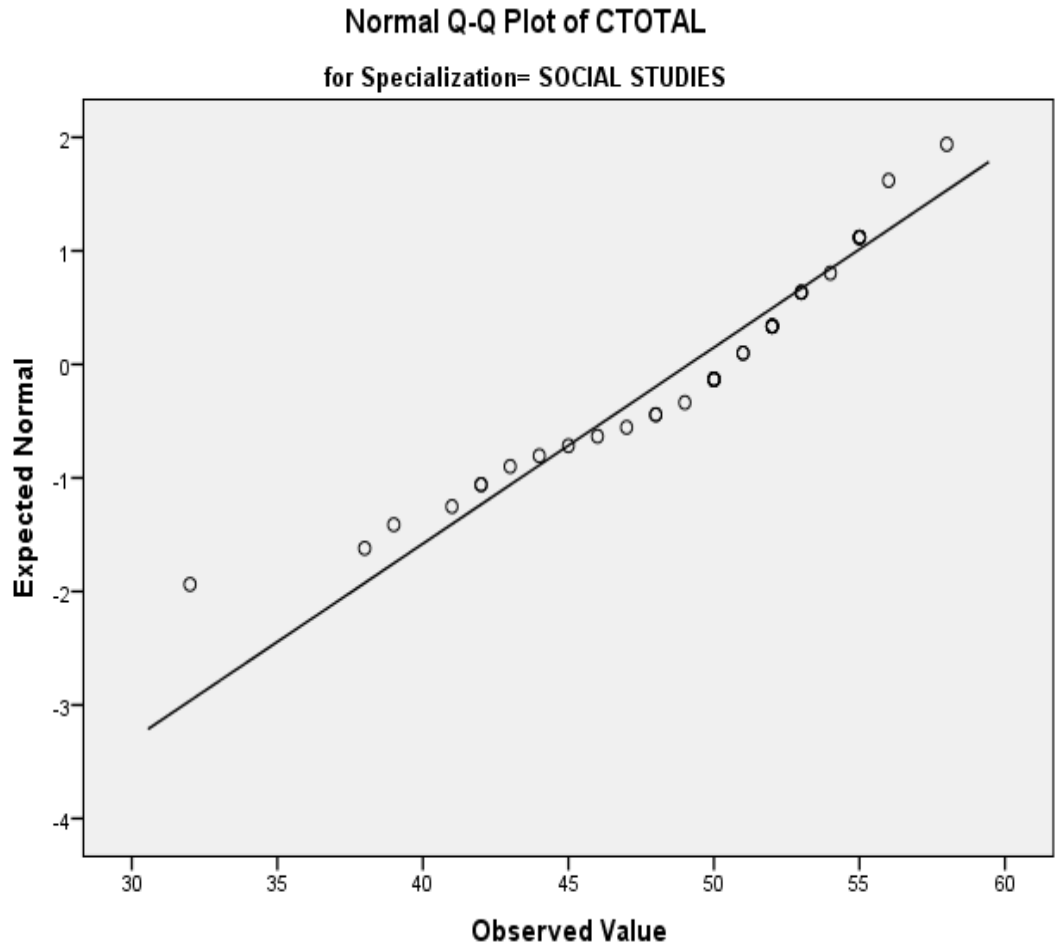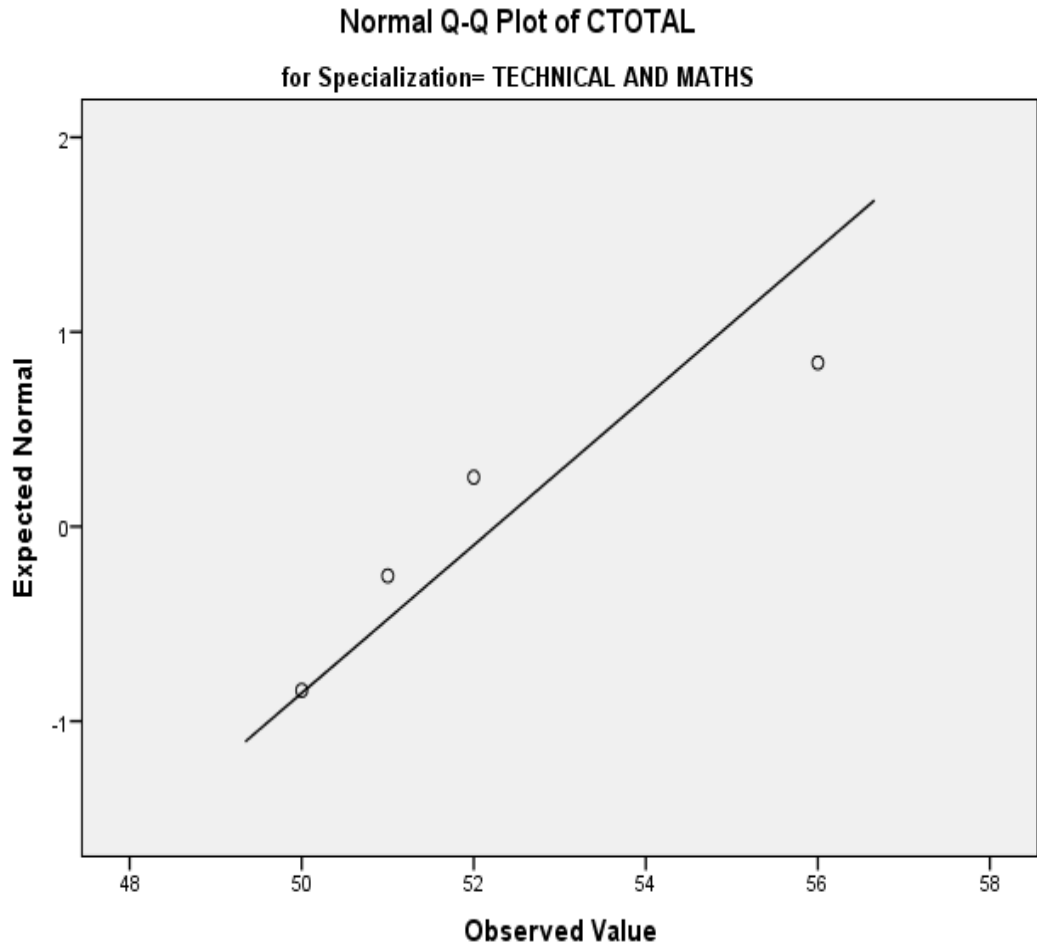
Test of Homogeneity of Variances

CTOTAL

Levene Statistic	df1	df2	Sig.
1.275a	17	308	.207

a. Groups with only one case are ignored in computing the test of homogeneity of variance for CTOTAL.

ANOVA

CTOTAL

	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	782.484	21	37.261	1.316	.162
Within Groups	8722.913	308	28.321		
Total	9505.397	329			