



**UNIVERSITY of the
WESTERN CAPE**

**COLLABORATION IN INCLUSIVE EDUCATION: TEACHERS' PERSPECTIVES
AND PRACTICES**

By

SIHLE FODO

Student no.: 2946893

A thesis submitted in fulfillment of the requirements for the degree of

MASTERS OF EDUCATION (M. Ed)

In Faculty of Education, in the Department of Educational Psychology at the University of
the Western Cape

SUPERVISOR : Dr. S. STOFILE

February 2020

DECLARATION

I, Sihle Fodo, student number 2946893, declare that the thesis entitled “Teachers’ collaboration practices in developing inclusive education” is my own work. All the sources used have been indicated and acknowledged by means of complete references.

S. FODO

SIGNATURE

DATE

DR. S. STOFIE (SUPERVISOR)

SIGNATURE

DATE

DEDICATION

This thesis is dedicated to my late brother, Phakamani Fodo, who always believed in me and encouraged me to pursue my educational dreams and aspirations.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

I take this opportunity to express my sincere appreciation to the following people who assisted me through the task of writing this thesis:

I thank my **God of possibilities** for giving me strength, ability and the wisdom to write this thesis.

Special thanks to my supervisor, promoter and mentor, Dr. S. Stofile. Words would never be enough to express my gratitude for your incomparable academic support, encouragement and caring attitude to ensure my success in this study. Your patience and kindness, as well as your academic experience, have been vital to me. Thank you for allowing me to intrude into your family time and becoming one of your own.

- Thanks to my children, Yibanathi, Ncebakazi and Siphesihle Kabelo Fodo for their immeasurable support and prayers to ensure my success in this study.
- A word of gratitude to my parents, Chris Sakhumzi and Zoliswa Nomzi Fodo for bringing me up, their words of encouragement and prayers.
- In conclusion, I would like to thank all the educators and the principal of a selected full-service primary school who participated in my study for the time they devoted to me and their valuable input.

Abstract

Inclusive education (IE) is an international movement and South Africa is in the process of developing systems to support the process. The aim of this study was to develop narratives of teachers' trajectories of collaboration in developing IE. The Department of Education acknowledged that collaboration between teachers and other professionals and between teachers and parents and the community at large is a critical strategy and skill for developing IE successfully (Department of Education, 2001).

This study was conducted at a full-service school in the Western Cape Province which was selected purposively. Snowball sampling was used to select six teachers who were interviewed and observed in their collaborative spaces. This study used a qualitative approach and a case-study approach as a research design. It used Cultural-Historical Activity Theory (CHAT) as the theoretical framework to understand how teachers respond to the diverse needs of all learners and how they collaborate with others in developing more responsive pedagogies. Multiple methods of data analysis, such as thematic analysis and CHAT, were used to analyze data collected.

The study revealed that teachers collaborated in school-initiated collaboration practices as well as in Department owned collaboration practices. Teachers reported to have voluntarily participated in school-initiated collaboration practices as their school had a culture of sharing knowledge and skills and this enabled them to work closely with each other, whereas in Department owned collaboration practices teacher reported that they participated because they had to obey instructions from their employee. Teachers felt that the Department owned collaboration practices used top-down approaches which hindered some of their collaboration practices. Teachers reported to have encountered some benefits from as well as barriers to collaboration.

This study concludes that if collaboration is a critical strategy for the successful implementation of IE in South Africa, the Department of Education (DoE) should give schools an opportunity to indicate their areas of need so that they can be trained accordingly. Secondly, the DoE should continuously provide training for teachers on collaboration. Lastly, the DoE and the school should encourage and monitor teachers to continue to create environments where they work collaboratively in decision-making and problem-solving.

Key words: Barriers to learning, District Based Support Team (DBST), Inclusive education, School Based Support Team (SBST), Learner support, Full-Service School, Collaboration.

LIST OF ACRONYMS

CTLI	Cape Teaching and Leadership Institute
CBOs	Community- Based Organisations
CHAT	Cultural-Historical Activity Theory
CAs	Curriculum Advisors
CAPS	Curriculum Assessment Policy Statement
DoBE	Department of Basic Education
DoE	Department of Education
DBST	District Based Support Team
FSS	Full-Service School
HODs	Head of Departments
IE	Inclusive Education
IPS	Individualised Support Programme
LoLT	Language of Learning and Teaching
LSEs	Learning Support Educators
NGOs	Non-Governmental Organisations
OBE	Outcome-Based-Education
RNCS	Revised National Curriculum Statement
SBST	School Based Support Teams (SBST)
SMSes	Short Message Services
SNA	Special Needs Assessment
SSRCS	Special Schools as Resource Centers
TAs	Teacher Assistants
SIAS	Screening, Identification, Assessment Strategy

TA	Thematic Analysis
UNESCO	United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization
EWP 6	Education White Paper 6

LIST OF TABLES

Table 3.4.3: A summary of participants.....	51
Table 4.1: Participants' biographical characteristics.....	67
Table 4.6: Summary of perceived benefits.....	85

LIST OF FIGURES

Figure 2.2 Conceptual framework for the study/key concepts.....	12
Figure 2.3.3(a) Vygotsky’s basic mediated action triangle.....	37
Figure 2.3.3(b) The structure of a human activity system.....	39
Figure 2.3.3(c) Two interacting activity systems as minimal model for the third generation of activity theory.....	40
Figure 3.1 Research design.....	46

Table of Contents

CHAPTER 1	1
INTRODUCTION TO THE THESIS	1
1.1 INTRODUCTION	1
1.2 BACKGROUND AND SETTING	1
1.3 IDENTIFICATION OF THE PROBLEM.....	6
1.4 RATIONALE OF THE STUDY AND RESEARCH QUESTIONS.....	7
1.5 SIGNIFICANCE OF THE STUDY	8
1.6 DEFINITIONS OF SOME TERMS	8
1.7 THESIS OUTLINE	10
CHAPTER 2	11
LITERATURE REVIEW	11
2.1 INTRODUCTION	11
2.2 CONCEPTUAL FRAMEWORK.....	11
2.2.1 Collaboration.....	12
2.2.1.1 <i>What is collaboration?</i>	12
2.2.1.2 Models of collaboration.....	15
2.2.1.3 BENEFITS OF COLLABORATION	23
2.2.1.4 BARRIERS TO SUCCESSFUL COLLABORATION	26
2.2.2 INCLUSIVE EDUCATION	30
2.2.2.1 What is inclusive education (IE)?	30
2.2.2.2 How IE should be implemented?.....	31
2.3 Theoretical framework	35
2.3.1 WHAT IS CULTURAL-HISTORICAL ACTIVITY THEORY?.....	36
2.3.2 Development of CHAT.....	36
2.3.4 Application of CHAT to this study	41
2.3 CONCLUSION.....	42
CHAPTER 3	43
RESEARCH DESIGN AND METHODOLOGY	43
3.1 INTRODUCTION	43
3.2 RESEARCH METHODOLOGY	43
3.2.1 Research paradigm	43
3.2.2 Research approach.....	45
3.2.3 Research design	45
3.2.4 Case study	46

3.2.5 Research site	47
3.3. RESEARCH POPULATION AND SAMPLE.....	48
3.3.1 Population.....	48
3.3.2 Sampling.....	48
3.3.3 Research participants.....	50
3.4 DATA COLLECTION METHODS AND PROCEDURES.....	51
3.4.1 Interviews.....	51
3.4.2 Observations	53
3.4.3 Reflective discussions	56
3.5 DATA ANALYSIS AND INTERPRETATION.....	56
3.5.1 Preparation of data	57
3.5.2 Cultural-Historical Activity Theory (CHAT).....	61
3.6 TRUSTWORTHINESS	61
3.6.1 Credibility	61
3.6.2 Transferability	62
3.6.3 Dependability.....	62
3.6.4 Confirmability.....	62
3.7 ETHICAL CONSIDERATION	63
3.7.1 Informed consent.....	63
3.7.2 Voluntary participation	64
3.7.3 Anonymity and confidentiality.....	64
3.8 CONCLUSION.....	64
CHAPTER 4	66
PRESENTATION AND ANALYSIS OF DATA.....	66
4.1 INTRODUCTION	66
4.2 Biographical characteristics of the participants.....	66
4.3 Description of the school context.....	69
4.4 Conceptualization of collaboration.....	70
4.4.1 Collaboration practices	71
4.4.1.1 School initiated collaboration	71
4.4.1.2 Department of Education initiated collaboration.....	75
4.5 Barriers to collaboration practice	84
4.5.1 Lack of parental involvement.....	84
4.5.2 Delays in referral process.....	85
4.5.3. Top-down approach (protocol).....	86
4.6 Benefits of collaboration.....	88

4.7 Facilitators of collaboration practice	88
4.8 CONCLUSION.....	91
CHAPTER 5	92
DISCUSSION.....	92
5.1 INTRODUCTION	92
5.2 PERCEPTIONS OF COLLABORATION	92
5.3 COLLABORATION PRACTICES	93
5.3.1 School-initiated collaboration practices	93
5.3.1.1 <i>Collaboration between teachers and their colleagues</i>	94
5.3.1.2 <i>Collaboration between teachers and parents</i>	95
5.3.2 Department owned collaboration practices.....	96
5.3.2.1 <i>Collaboration with DBST</i>	97
5.3.2.2 <i>Collaboration with the school-based support team (SBST)</i>	101
5.4 Barriers of collaboration	102
5.5 Benefits of collaboration.....	103
5.6 Facilitators of collaboration	103
5.7 Conclusion.....	103
CHAPTER 6	105
CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS.....	105
6.1 INTRODUCTION	105
6.2 SUMMARY OF FINDINGS AND RECOMMENDATIONS.....	105
6.2.1 Conceptualisation of collaboration.....	105
6.2.2 Collaboration practices	105
6.3 Barriers to collaboration	108
6.3.1 Lack of parental involvement.....	108
6.3.2 Delays in SBST referral process and top-down approach.....	108
6.3.3 Benefits of collaboration.....	109
6.3.4 Facilitators of collaboration	109
6.4 Limitations and implications for further research	109
6.5 Final Conclusion	110
Reference list	111
APPENDIX A.....	130
APPENDIX B	131
APPENDIX C.....	134
APPENDIX D.....	139
APPENDIX E	141

APPENDIX F	143
APPENDIX G.....	145

CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION TO THE THESIS

1.1 INTRODUCTION

This research study sought to examine teachers' collaboration practices in developing inclusive education, while, most studies have explored expertise needed by teachers for them to practice inclusion of all learners (Engelbrecht, Savolainen, Nel, Koskela & Okkolin, 2017; Luckner & Pianta, 2011; Engelbrecht, Nel, Nel & Tlale, 2015; Forlin & Chambers, 2011). Some studies have explored how teachers provide the needed support for learners with diverse educational needs (Engelbrecht et al., 2017; Dettmer, Knackendoffel & Thurston, 2013). Furthermore, some studies explored perceptions and understanding of teachers about inclusive education and barriers to learning as critical factors in the success of implementing inclusive education (Engelbrecht, Nel, Nel & Tlale, 2017; Florian & Black- Hawkins, 2011). It is, therefore, imperative that this study examine closely what actually takes place in a Full-Service School (FSS) with regard to teachers' collaboration practices in the inclusion of all learners, especially those experiencing barriers to learning. This chapter discusses the background and setting, identification of the problem, rationale for the study, significance of the study, research questions, definition of terms, and it also outlines the thesis chapters.

1.2 BACKGROUND AND SETTING

It has been observed that since the introduction of inclusive education in the world, the school population is increasing in number and diverging at the same time. It is constituted of learners coming from different cultures, different socioeconomic backgrounds, different language environments and family structures, as well as having a wide range of social, emotional, intellectual and physical abilities (Engelbrecht & Hay, 2018; Leonard, 2011; Tschannen-Moran, 2014; Bojuwoye, Moletsane, Stofile, Moolla & Sylvester, 2014; Engelbrecht et al., 2015). At this juncture, it is important to mention that "inclusive education" was introduced into the education system to provide learners who experience learning barriers a chance to learn with their peers in the same classroom and inclusive context where they can find the support they need from team members who collaborate to plan adapted and comprehensive lessons for

these learners (Walton, 2011; Zagona, Kurth & Macfarland, 2017; Engelbrecht et al., 2015; Engelbrecht et al., 2017; Srivastava, de Boer & Pijl, 2013). Different researchers prove that when learners who experience barriers to learning learn with their peers in the same classrooms, they become more committed in their learning (Kurth & Mastergeorge, 2012; Matzen, Ryndak & Nakao, 2010; Zagona et al., 2017). Inclusive education is recognized as the key strategy in creating tolerant communities and securing the very best education for all community members (Walton, 2011; Zagona et al., 2017).

Inclusive education cannot be implemented successfully without collaboration-based relationships (Avalos-Bevan & Bascope, 2017; Friend & Cook, 2010; Da Fonte & Barton-Arwood, 2017; Hall & Wurf, 2018; Green & Johnson, 2015; Hamilton-Jones & Vail, 2014; Hay & Raymond, 2013; Milteniene & Venclovaite, 2012; Noonan, Erickson, & Morningstar, 2013; Steyn, 2014; Stinchfield & Zyromski, 2010; Zagona et al., 2017). For teachers and other stake holders to successfully implement inclusive education in schools, they need to collaborate (Zagona et al., 2017, Hay & Raymond, 2013, Cook & Friend, 2010, Hamilton-Jones & Vail, 2014, Green & Johnson, 2015, Da Fonte & Barton-Arwood, 2017, Avalos-Bevan & Bascope, 2017, Noonan, Erickson, & Morningstar, 2013, Steyn, 2014, Stinchfield & Zyromski, 2010, and Hall & Wurf, 2018). Successful execution of inclusive education means stipulation of quality education and assurance that the needs of learners who experience learning barriers are met (Milteniene & Venclovaite, 2012; Nel et al., 2013). The South African education system realized that learners with special educational needs need support from a variety of professional and other support personnel in order for them to benefit from placement in inclusive settings (Nel et al., 2013). Therefore, teachers and other support personnel need to collaborate for the successful inclusion of their learners (Eccleston, 2010; Miltenienė & Venclovaitė, 2012; Sharma, Loreman, & Forlin 2012; Bouillet, 2013; Da Fonte and Barton-Arwood, 2017; Nel et al., 2013).

Before the introduction of inclusive education in South Africa, the country practiced an education system that was characterized by unequal and unjust education opportunities based not only on race difference but also on learners' disabilities (Walton, 2011; Donohue & Bornman, 2014; Engelbrecht & Hay, 2018; Makhalemele & Nel, 2015; Daniels, 2010; Stofile, Linden & Maarman, 2011). This means that at that time the South African education system was molded on apartheid practices and segregation of learners on the basis of race, ethnicity, language and disability, with more money distributed to white learners (Walton, 2011; Donohue & Bornman, 2014, Lomofsky & Lazarus, 2001, Stofile, 2008; Makhalemele & Nel,

2015; Stofile et al., 2011). This apartheid education system encompassed two separate education systems; the one for learners who did not need additional support where learners were taught in mainstream schools, and the other one for learners who were deemed to have special education needs and were taught in special schools (Walton, 2011). The special schools in South Africa were well resourced and funded but served mainly white learners (Walton, 2011; Donohue & Bornman, 2014, Naicker, 2005; Stofile, 2008; Stofile, Green & Soudien, 2018; Stofile et al., 2011). Some of the learners who were experiencing barriers to learning from other ethnic groups did not attend school; others attended mainstream school in which they did not receive any support (Walton, 2011; Donohue & Bornman, 2014; Makhalemele & Nel, 2015; Stofile et al. 2011). These learners eventually dropped out of the education system as they did not receive professional learning support (Walton, 2011; Donohue & Bornman, 2014; Makhalemele & Nel, 2015; Stofile et al., 2011). The apartheid education system was organized in the way that teachers were trained in different institutions to teach in either the mainstream schools or the special schools (Walton, 2011; Nel, Tlale, Engelbrecht, & Nel, 2016; Stofile et al., 2011).

Educational support services were accessible to white learners only and these services practiced a medical model of intervention where a conventional consultation approach of collaboration was followed and placement of learners in special education was a key function (Engelbrecht et al., 2015; Donohue & Bornman, 2014; Makhalemele & Nel, 2015; and Walton, 2011; Nel et al., 2013; Engelbrecht & Hay, 2018; Stofile et al., 2011). The medical model viewed barriers to learning within the learner and held the belief that experts needed to support learners outside the classroom (Engelbrecht et al., 2015; Makhalemele & Nel, 2015; Nel et al., 2013; Swart & Pettipher, 2011; Engelbrecht & Hay, 2018). The task of support professionals was more on individualistic interventions whereby an expert supported a learner who experienced barriers to learning (Engelbrecht et al., 2013; Nel et al., 2013; Strogilos, Lacey, Xanthacou, & Kaila, 2011). This resulted in a multidisciplinary approach to collaboration whereby specialist professionals provided their expertise to learners independently from each other, and collective decision-making was not a priority (Engelbrecht et al., 2013; Nel et al., 2013). This, according to Nel et al. (2016), instilled a belief in teachers that they are not skilled to provide the support needed by learners with disabilities and that these learners are best taught in separate classrooms. Education for white learners was mandatory, but not so for learners of other races (Donohue & Bornman, 2014; Stofile et al., 2011).

With the influence of international movements towards inclusive education and the aim to realise the South African constitutional values of the rights to education, the democratic government elected in 1994 in South Africa prioritized transforming the education system of the country so that it is accessible to all learners, regardless of their barriers to learning (Engelbrecht et al., 2017; Daniels, 2010; Dalton, Mckenzie, & Kahonde, 2012; Walton, 2011; Engelbrecht et al., 2015). The aim of introducing of inclusive education in South Africa was to transform the provision of support services to learners who experience barriers to learning (Makhalemele & Nel, 2015; Nel et al., 2016; Nel et al., 2013). The South African government began by unifying the education system into a single system and made education compulsory for all learners, from age 7 to 15, in an attempt to redress some of the educational inequalities of the previous education system between ethnic groups (Donohue & Bornman, 2014; Daniels, 2010; Lomofsky & Lazarus, 2001).

The single education system contained in Education White Paper 6 (EWP6) on Special Needs Education: Building an Inclusive Education and Training system on Education and Training, acknowledged that education support services and provision for learners experiencing barriers to learning had not yet been met effectively in the former education system (Daniels, 2010; Nel, Engelbrecht, Nel & Tlale, 2013; Donohue & Bornman, 2014; Nel, Tlale, Engelbrecht & Nel, 2016; Daniels, 2010). EWP6 aimed to address debilitation in the system, amplify access to and provision of education for all, developing skills of support providers, and monitoring and evaluating the process (Daniels, 2010; Dalton et al., 2012). In addition, it outlined a system that will transform and accommodate all learners' needs (Sunday, Anderson, Flack, Fisher, Greenhough, Kendal, & Shadwell, 2012; Nel et al., 2013; Nel et al., 2016; Donohue & Bornman, 2014) and mandated schools to practice inclusion of all learners and to provide support to learners who experience barriers to learning through inter-sectoral collaboration (Nel et al., 2013). According to EWP6 collaboration at a school should not be within the school only but it should include members of the school community as well as the school district officials (Nel et al., 2013; Silverman, Hong & Trepanier-Street, 2010; Strogilos et al., 2011; Nel et al., 2016). EWP6 came to make a shift from a traditional medical-model approach which believed that barriers to learning were within the learner and used labeling terminology "to a more socio-ecological model, where the focus is on the range of intrinsic (i.e. disabilities) as well as extrinsic (i.e. environmental and systemic factors) barriers to learning that could *impede* learners within the unique South African context" (Engelbrecht et al., 2017; Daniels, 2010; Nel et al., 2013).

One of the key strategies for achieving EWP6 aims is to strengthen education support services (DoE, 2005; Daniels, 2010; Dalton et al., 2012; Nel et al., 2013; Nel et al., 2016; Donohue & Bornman, 2014). In this respect, it planned to support learners experiencing barriers to learning in different schools (Daniels, 2010; Dalton et al., 2012; Nel et al., 2013; Nel et al., 2016; Donohue & Bornman, 2014). Learners with low-intensive support needs are supported in mainstream schools; those with moderate support needs are placed and supported in full-service schools; and those with intensive support needs are placed in special schools which are transformed into resource centers for mainstream schools (Daniels, 2010; Dalton et al., 2012; Nel et al., 2013; Nel et al., 2016; Donohue & Bornman, 2014). For successful implementation of inclusive education, collaboration between teachers and support personnel is regarded as an influential strategy for teachers to support learners who are experiencing barriers to learning in their classrooms (Nel et al., 2013; Makhalemele & Nel, 2015). Support structures for schools, teachers and learners in South Africa should include the establishment of District-Based Support Teams (DBST); School-Based Support Teams (SBST); and Full-Service Schools (FSS) as well as Special Schools as Resource Centers (Nel et al., 2013; Makhalemele & Nel, 2015; Dalton et al., 2012; Nel et al., 2013; Nel et al., 2016; Donohue & Bornman, 2014).

In an effort to put transformation of support services into practice in South Africa, Nel, et al. (2016), Walton (2011), Donohue & Bornman (2014), Engelbrecht et al. (2015), and Dalton et al. (2012) believe that the following policies and documents emanating from EWP6 were formulated to accommodate all learners regardless of their disabilities:

- The Screening, Identification, Assessment Strategy (SIAS) document (Department of Basic Education, 2014) proposed a shift from assessing the intrinsic barriers of the learner to assessing contextual factors which impact on teaching and learning, including teaching strategies to eliminate the unnecessary placement of learners in special schools. This document also proposed a shift from acknowledging only specialist professionals as main role players during assessment to acknowledging teachers, parents and learners as role players too (Daniels,2010);
- The guidelines for Inclusive Learning Programmes (Department of Basic Education, 2010) provided practical guidance to school principals and teachers on planning and teaching to meet the needs of a diverse range of learners

1.3 IDENTIFICATION OF THE PROBLEM

Research shows that collaboration is critical for inclusive education to be successfully implemented (Hay & Raymond, 2013; Tzivinikou, 2015; Solis, Vaughn, Swanson & Mcculley, 2012; Strogilos & Tragoulia, 2013; Haines, Gross, Blue-Banning, Francis, & Turnbull, 2015; Epstein, 2011; Sailor & McCart, 2014; Hall & Wurf, 2018; Ainscow, 2016; Schoeman, 2012). Inclusive education philosophy encourages collaboration between teachers, communities, and other professionals as this will holistically enable learners who experience barriers to learning to learn effectively with their peers (Nel, Engelbrecht, Nel & Tlale, 2013 and Engelbrecht & Hay, 2018). In ensuring successful implementation of inclusive education, the South African Education White Paper 6 mandated teachers to collaborate in schools in School-Based Support Teams (SBSTs), with the district officials in District-Based Support Teams (DBSTs) and communities (Nel et al., 2016, Engelbrecht & Hay, 2018; Engelbrecht et al., 2017; Donohue & Bornman, 2014; Stofile, Green & Soudien, 2018).

However, research shows that the implementation of the Education White Paper 6 policy seems to be slow in ensuring that support services are operating smoothly for teachers, learners and more specifically for learners who experience barriers to learning (Nel et al., 2013; Schoeman, 2012; Engelbrecht, Savolainen, Nel, & Malinen, 2013; Chataika, Mckenzie, Swart & Lyner-Cleophas, 2012; Makhalemele & Nel, 2015; Dalton et al., 2012; Nel, Engelbrecht, Nel & Tlale, 2014 and Govender, 2018). Equally important, Nel et al. (2013), Geldenhuys and Wever (2013), Makoelle (2014b), Du Toit, Eloff, and Moen (2014), Govender (2018), Da Fonte and Barton-Arwood (2017), Walton (2011); Schoeman (2012), Noonan, Erickson and Morningstar (2013), Newman, Wagner, Cameto, Knokey, & Shaver (2010), Taylor, Krane, & Orkis (2010), and Stofile et al. (2018) found that the SBSTs and DBSTs are not fully functional in some schools and this has resulted in some learners who experience barriers to learning dropping out of school, while some learners get promoted with age-cohort concession of the DoE. High drop out of learners leads to high unemployment rates, which impact negatively on the country's economic growth (Noonan, Erickson & Morningstar, 2013; Newman, et al., 2010 and Taylor et al., 2010). Nel et al. (2013) found that as much as professionals in schools and district level are aware of collaboration for successful implementation of inclusive education, they still lack effective collaboration strategies, such as parental involvement.

Engelbrecht and Hay (2018) highlighted some challenges the support teams within schools and district-based support teams are experiencing. These include lack of knowledge and

understanding of how to utilise and acknowledge expertise of other professionals and the confusion around the role each team member is supposed to play. Furthermore, Stofile et al. (2018); Nel, Tlale, Engelbrecht and Nel (2016) and Engelbrecht and Hay (2018) found that teachers still believe that they are not adequately trained to collaborate with other professionals and when they initiate collaboration, they reported it to be difficult and a time-consuming administrative exercise. A study conducted by Schoeman (2012) revealed that the numbers of learners who are referred to special schools have increased. The researcher of this study wants to get first-hand experiences from teachers who are collaborating so that she learns from their success stories and challenges.

1.4 RATIONALE OF THE STUDY AND RESEARCH QUESTIONS

The purpose of this study was to develop narratives of teachers' trajectories of collaboration in developing inclusive pedagogies. The main concern of this study was to investigate teachers' perception and understanding of their collaboration practices in developing inclusive education in a Full-Service School (FSS). This study investigated the roles and the activities teachers participated in to determine whether they regarded their collaboration practices as beneficial or just a waste of their time. This included but was not limited to the exploration of their experiences with regard to their successes and challenges when they collaborated for inclusion of all learners. At the current school where the researcher of this study is teaching, teachers do not collaborate. They prefer to work individually. The researcher of this study is interested to learn from other teachers who collaborate so that she can share experiences and learn good practices from her colleagues. This implies that the present study, apart from being an academic requirement, provides an opportunity for the researcher to grow professionally.

In order to realize the aim of the present study, the researcher tried to provide informed answers to the following research questions which emanated from the problem under investigation:

- What are the prevalent practices of collaboration amongst teachers at a full-service school?
- What are the perceptions and understandings of teachers on collaboration?
- What mediating phenomena enable or obstruct collaborative practices among teachers at a full-service school?

1.5 SIGNIFICANCE OF THE STUDY

This study seeks to explore the current situation pertaining to collaboration practices of teachers in the effort to develop inclusive education in a Full-Service School (FSS) in the Western Cape education district. The findings of this study might not benefit teachers directly; however, they might add knowledge to the existing body of knowledge, which will shed light on different ways of collaborating in inclusive settings. This study might help to improve the understanding of policy makers on the extent to which teachers understand and collaboratively implement inclusive education. Furthermore, the school principal, teachers, parents and DBST might use the recommendations of this study to discover new ways of playing their roles in supporting learners in this school. The findings might also assist researchers in further studies.

1.6 DEFINITIONS OF SOME TERMS

Inclusive Education (IE): the term is defined by Walton (2011); Zagona, Kurt, and MacFarland (2017); and Engelbrecht, Nel, Nel, and Tlale (2015) as a process of reducing exclusion of learners experiencing barriers to learning by increasing their access to the general education curriculum content and their acceptance by their peers as well as their participation in the same activities with them in mainstream schools, besides the needed support and the individualised and targeted teaching in order to help them participate meaningfully in that environment.

Ntombela and Raymond (2013a) used Education White Paper 6 to define inclusive education as an education system that acknowledges that:

All children are capable of learning, and many require support to do so.

Learners have differences and learning takes place in different social contexts.

There is a need to create education structures/methodologies that facilitate schools' ability to meet learner needs

There is a need to increase the participation of all learners in the culture and curricula of schools.

There is a need to develop the strengths of all learners to enable them to participate actively and critically in the learning process.

Attitudes, behaviors, teaching methodologies, teaching environments and curricula that fail to meet the needs of all learners should be confronted and modified.

This thesis uses Ntombela and Raymond's (2013a) definition of inclusive education.

Collaboration: is a practice of sharing responsibility for teaching and outcomes. It uses carefully planned and implemented instructions that consider different team members' perspectives. It involves regular communication with each other and the learner's parents regarding learner's progress and problem solving; and it is also about gathering information and sharing resources (Zagona et al., 2017; Hay & Raymond, 2013b; Friend & Cook, 2010; Hamilton-Jones & Vail, 2014; Green & Johnson, 2015; Da Fonte & Barton-Arwood, 2017; Avalos-Bevan & Bascope, 2017; Noonan, Erickson, & Morningstar, 2013; Steyn, 2017; Stinchfield & Zyromski, 2010; Hall & Wurf, 2018; Ainscow, 2016; Nel et al., 2014; Sapon-Shevin, 2010; Scorgie, 2010; Shakenova, 2017).

Barriers to learning: refers to challenges that prevent learners from learning effectively and these challenges emanate within an education system as a whole, including the curriculum, and the broader social context including the learning environment (Department of Education, 2001; DoE, 2005; Ntombela & Raymond, 2013b; Stofile, Raymond & Moletsane, 2013; Engelbrecht et al., 2013; Nel et al., 2013; Landsberg, 2011; Engelbrecht et al., 2015).

Public ordinary school: The term "public ordinary school" in this study refers to a regular school that integrates learners with special educational needs (Department of Education, 2005).

Special school: A special school is a school that caters for learners labelled as having special educational needs (Engelbrecht et al., 2015). Education in this school involves the individually planned and systematically monitored arrangement of teaching procedures and adapted materials (Department of Education, 2005).

School-based support team (SBST): is a 'school-based' team solution-finding group constituted by parents, teachers and other professionals which provides a platform for dialogue on how to meet the specific needs of learners (DoE, 2001; and (Ntombela & Raymond, 2013b).

District-Based Support Team (DBST): is a team that is convened at the district level to facilitate and support the improvement of teaching, learning and assessment in schools (DoE, 2001). This team also reviews referrals for higher-level learner support needs (Ntombela & Raymond, 2013b).

Education White Paper 6 (EWP6): *Special Needs Education: Building an Inclusive Education and Training system* is a framework that provides how an inclusive education and training system should be established in South Africa and it focuses on the changes that are necessary and ensures that a full range of learner needs are accommodated (Swart & Pettipher,

2011; Ntombela & Raymond, 2013a; Nel et al., 2013; Stofile, Green & Soudien, 2018; Engelbrecht et al., 2015; Nel et al., 2016; Engelbrecht et al., 2017; Donohue & Bornman, 2014; Ntombela, 2011; Daniels, 2010; Walton, 2011).

Full-Service School (FSS): According to the Department of Education (2001); Engelbrecht et al. (2015), full-service schools are ordinary schools that are equipped and supported by means of physical and material resources, as well as professional development of staff to ensure that all learners receive the full range of support they need. FSSs are designed to serve learners with mild-moderate support needs.

Cultural-Historical Activity Theory (CHAT): is an approach that can be used to analyze human interactions and relationships within particular social contexts (Wilson, 2014; Engeström, 2015; Foot, 2014; Yamagata-Lynch, 2010). It provides a framework for social and cultural practices on both: how individuals learn by engaging in considering these practices and how mediational tools such as language shape human activity (Wilson, 2014; Engeström, 2015; Yamagata-Lynch, 2010).

1.7 THESIS OUTLINE

The present thesis is subdivided into five chapters:

Chapter one presents the background and setting of the study. It identifies the research problem, states the research questions, presents the rationale for the study, highlights the significance of the study and finally defines some key terms used in the thesis.

Chapter two reviews literature relevant to the study by explaining the concepts, discussing policies such as EWP6 (2001) and follow up initiatives and policy development since 2001.

Chapter three provides an explanation and justification of the research methodology, defines the research approach, the research design, the sampling methods used and the characteristics of participants. It presents data collection methods and procedures and introduces data analysis methods and techniques. In the end it states the ethical considerations used to conduct this study.

Chapter four presents the results of the study and discusses its findings.

Chapter five provides a summary of the findings and also presents the recommendations based on the findings. It states the final conclusions as well.

CHAPTER 2

LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1 INTRODUCTION

The previous chapter discussed the background and setting, rationale and significance of the study, and research questions. It further identified the problem, defined key terms and outlined the thesis chapters. This chapter reviews existing literature on teachers' collaboration practices in developing inclusive education. A literature review, according to Creswell and Creswell (2017); Hart (2018); Imel (2011); Babbie (2015); Marshall and Rossman (2014) enables a researcher to discuss the research issues and position which the study has to develop within the context of inclusive education. The aim of this study, as indicated in chapter 1, is to develop narratives of teachers' trajectories of collaboration in developing inclusive pedagogies. This chapter introduces the conceptual framework by defining collaboration and inclusive education and it presents the debates pertaining to inclusive legislation and policies and the findings from previous research relevant to the study. Furthermore, this chapter examines the teachers' perceptions and understanding of collaboration as well as their constraints of collaboration practices in developing inclusive education. The theoretical framework chosen for this study was the Cultural-Historical Activity Theory (CHAT). CHAT is relevant in this study as it believes that human learning and development take place in cultural and social contexts and are mediated by language and other symbol systems and can best be+ investigated in their historical development.

2.2 CONCEPTUAL FRAMEWORK

The researcher concurs with Merriam and Tisdell (2015); Creswell and Creswell (2017); Patton (2014); Maxwell (2012); Punch (2013) argument that it is "difficult to imagine a study without a theoretical or conceptual framework" as the theoretical framework supplies the "structure" and the "scaffolding" for the study. It determines the problem to be investigated, the research questions to be asked; the methods of data collection and how the data will be analyzed and interpreted (Merriam & Tisdell, 2015; Maxwell, 2012; Creswell & Poth, 2017; Garrison, 2013; Garrison & Akyol, 2013; De Vos & Strydom, 2011). This assertion on conceptual framework helped the researcher to position this study towards developing narratives of teachers' trajectories of collaboration in developing inclusive pedagogies and defining key concepts and

demonstrating the network of relationships between them (Rocco & Plakhotnik, 2009; Plakhotnik, Rocco, & Roberts, 2011). *Figure 2.2* illustrates key concepts being investigated, namely, collaboration and inclusive education, and shows the interrelationships between them.

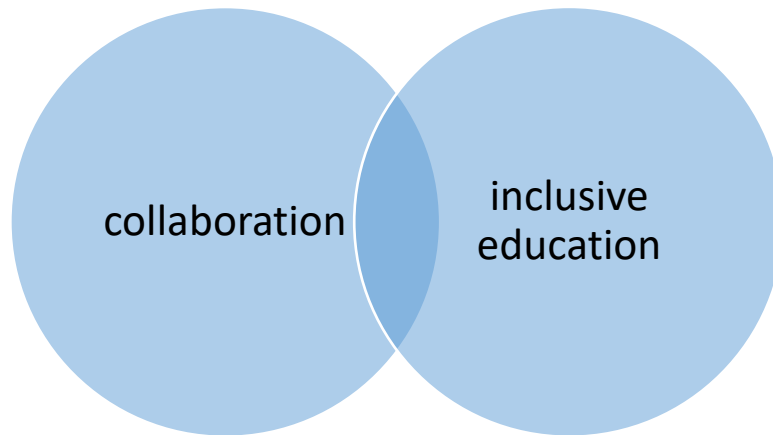


Figure 2.2. Conceptual framework for the study/key concepts

2.2.1 Collaboration

2.2.1.1 What is collaboration?

Several education researchers and practitioners, such as, Friend and Cook (2010); Dove and Honigsfeld (2010); Milteniene and Venclovaite, (2012); Taylor, Smiley, and Richards (2015); Richards, Frank, Sableski and Arnold (2016); Dettmer, Knackendoffel, and Thurston (2013); Hay and Raymond (2013b) and Engelbrecht and Hay (2018), defined collaboration as a voluntary social interaction process in which two or more professionals learn from each other by exchanging expertise, plan and identify aims together and distribute roles equally to generate creative solutions to problems, and in the process share responsibility for the outcomes of the collaborative process. In a school context, according to Taylor et al. (2015); Slater and Ravid (2010); Loreman, Deppeler, and Harvey (2010) and Engelbrecht and Hay (2018), experts can be teachers, students, leaders, parents, other professionals, community members, business owners, policy makers and educational administrators who are willing to contribute their knowledge and skills to the issues being addressed.

According to the following researchers, Hesjedal, Hetland and Iversen (2015); Nel, Engelbrecht, Nel and Tlale (2013); Ketterlin-Geller, Baumer, and Lichon (2015) and Mulholland and O' Connor (2016), collaboration between teachers and other professionals is

not impulsive and in schools teachers and other professionals collaborate for many reasons such as, to provide educational programmes, for example, in-service training of teachers; to develop individual education; plan to holistically support learners with special needs in regular classrooms; to monitor the learning support progress and plan prevention strategies accordingly; to enhance parental involvement, to plan lessons, teaching strategies, or even assessment. In addition, Nel, et al. (2013); Jones (2012); Hargreaves, Nakhoda, Mottay, and Subramoney (2012); Hesjedal, et al. (2015); Bouillet (2013); Engelbrecht and Hay (2018) suggested that in schools, teachers should collaborate formally and or informally with support personnel such as; the special education teacher, occupational therapists, social workers, psychologists, “curriculum and management specialists, administrative experts, other government departmental professionals, and community role players”.

Depending on the needs of a learner, professionals would form a multidisciplinary team that would have regular contact with the learner to ensure that every professional involved is cooperating and participating over time (Hesjedal et al., 2015 and Engelbrecht & Hay, 2018). Milteniene and Venclovaite (2012) suggested that special educators should lead multidisciplinary teams because they have experience in supporting both learners with special needs and teachers. According to Taylor, Smiley and Richards (2015) and Turk (2012) it is important to bear in mind that collaboration will differ from context to context based on the needs of a learner and the individuals involved.

For successful collaboration to occur every member of the team should voluntarily exchange their expertise and experience, this would help to create multiple knowledge, which would guide them in decision making, and in reaching the common goal (Hesjedal, et al. 2015; Suc, Bukovec & Karpljuk, 2017; Engelbrecht & Hay, 2018). This can be realised through effective communication style, joint planning and positive professional and personal relationships (Jones, 2012; Suc et al., 2017; Hay & Raymond, 2013; Engelbrecht & Hay, 2018). Through their interactions in trying to solve different problems, new practices develop and team members improved their skills as professionals and as a team (Villeneuve & Hutchinson, 2012).

Collaboration requires parity among participants (Friend, Cook, Hurley-Chamberlain & Shamberger 2010), this simple means, according to Hay and Raymond (2013); Miltenienė and Venclovaitė (2012); Engelbrecht and Hay, (2018), that group members must agree to view all participants as equal with diverse and needed expertise. Hay and Raymond (2013) and

Loreman, Deppeler, and Harvey (2010) added that this promotes freedom for all members to provide processes and evaluate ideas and information. In inclusive schools, according to Taylor et al. (2015); and Slater and Ravid (2010), parity is demonstrated when parents of students with disabilities are part of decision making about where and how their children are educated. Another demonstration, according to Hay and Raymond (2013) occurs when general education teachers, special education teachers, and related service providers work on curriculum development, with the recognition that their collective expertise benefits all students.

Collaboration should be based on mutually agreed-on goals (Friend et al., 2010) and this means that participants must work towards a clearly articulated common goal or goals and this will help escape confusion and give participants a focus (Slater & Ravid, 2010; Loreman, Deppeler & Harvey, 2010; Engelbrecht & Hay, 2018). Miltenienė and Venclovaitė (2012); and Engelbrecht and Hay (2018) suggested that participants must firstly identify the aims and jointly plan activities to solve problems, and then distribute the roles equally. This value, according to Turk (2012), is displayed when a student's educational team develops an Individualized Education Program with one set of goals and objectives to which they are all committed, rather than each professional pursuing separate out-comes. According to Taylor et al., (2015), the process of identifying and achieving common goal can be a challenge for general education teachers and special education teachers as they might have different agendas. For common goals to be achieved, Taylor et al., (2015); and Turk (2012) suggest that these teachers can begin with common agreed-upon goals of successful progress for all learners and then they can proceed to negotiate more specific goals for a collaborative effort.

Collaboration depends on shared responsibility, resources and accountability for participation and decision making (Friend et al., 2010 and Engelbrecht & Hay, 2018). This means that all participants must be part of decision making so that the decision will have the full support of every participant (Slater & Ravid, 2010; Loreman et al., 2010). In decision making, it is very important, according to Taylor et al. (2015) that each participant be willing to compromise as needed, accept any group decision, and abide by decisions arrived at through a fair and collaborative effort. Miltenienė and Venclovaitė (2012) made an example of how responsibility can be shared. They stated that team members add agenda items for team meetings that they would like to discuss, they rotate responsibility for chairing meetings, and handling minutes,

they come to meetings prepared so that they can contribute information, ideas and opinions, and take responsibility for decisions.

The resources used to achieve team goals must be shared with all participants (Slater & Ravid, 2010; Loreman et al., 2010; Engelbrecht & Hay, 2018). Taylor et al., (2015) and Turk (2012) alerted that resources can be scarce in schools, families and communities. What is important is the willingness to share what one has with others in order to reach a common goal. Responsibility must be shared equally among team member as this will verify parity, according to Taylor et al., (2015); and Turk (2012) and then each member can be held accountable for the success or failure of their collaborative effort. Slater and Ravid (2010); and Loreman et al. (2010) also added that all participants must share the success or failure of any outcome of their decisions and no individual should be singled out for credit or blame. This will help participants to work together freely.

2.2.1.2 Models of collaboration

Anderson-Butcher and Ashton (2004); Cha and Ham (2012); Diamond and Rush (2012); McLean (2012); LaRocque, Kleiman and Darling (2011); Green and Johnson (2015) and Mellin and Weist (2011) listed five models of collaboration that teachers may become involved in, namely; intra-organization collaboration, interagency collaboration, inter-professional collaboration, family-centered collaboration, and community collaboration. It is worth noting, according to Green and Johnson (2015), that schools must understand different types of collaboration but implement the type that best meets their needs and the needs of their learners.

(a) Intra-organizational collaboration

Intra-organizational collaboration involves teams that brainstorm ways of resolving learner problems before they develop into severe ones and accommodating learners in the general classroom by providing additional support and individualized teaching they need to succeed (Anderson-Butcher & Ashton, 2004; Diamond & Rush, 2012; Cha & Ham, 2012; Harris, 2010). These teams include teachers, social workers, school psychologists, administrators, nurses, speech therapists, school counsellors, teacher support teams and volunteers (Anderson-Butcher & Ashton, 2004; Diamond & Rush, 2012; Cha & Ham, 2012; Harris, 2010). This model helps in institutionalising interdependence relationships among the many services and

supports that exist in school systems (Anderson-Butcher & Ashton, 2004; Diamond & Rush, 2012; Cha & Ham, 2012; Harris, 2010).

According to Markle, Splett, Maras and Weston (2014) and Lingo, Barton-Arwood and Jolivette (2011) teachers collaborate in teacher assistance teams. Teacher assistance teams consist of teachers and other support personnel, either elected or voluntary and whose roles are to raise problems, discuss and develop solutions together with their diverse skills and experience (Markle et al., 2014; Lingo et al., 2011). The working together of these teams, according to Markle et al. (2014); and Lingo et al. (2011), means that positive interdependence exists among team members and their interactions are cooperative not competitive. The success of teacher assistance teams depends on school administrators in ensuring that teachers are not overcommitted and are willing to serve in a team (Harris, 2010). Since support of administration is very important, Harris (2010) recommended that administrators participate as team members or elect a team member to represent the administration.

When team members work together in classrooms, they often choose from several approaches, such as; pull-out services; pull-in services and collaborative teaching, depending on the needs of their students (Markle et al., 2014; Lingo et al., 2011). Teams may choose to use the pull-in approach, where they will schedule planned support and services to be provided in the classroom or during class activity (Markle et al., 2014; Lingo et al., 2011). For some students, teams may use a pull-out service with collaboration planning where students will be removed from the general education classroom for instruction only when teams agree on the purpose, the time frame, and the need (Markle et al., 2014; Lingo et al., 2011). This approach requires planning up front and on-going communication about student progress with team members who are not directly involved with the pull-out services (Markle et al., 2014; Lingo et al., 2011). There has to be reasons for using this approach because Markle et al. (2014) and Lingo et al. (2011) suggested that students can be pulled out if;

- Students have functional skill goals in their programs that require instruction on and around the school grounds or in the community;
- Students have needs in personal care skills and require privacy;

- Student's learning in the classroom can be furthered with intermittent, intensive tutoring in small groups or alone.

Teacher assistance teams may also apply a co-teaching approach, whereby specialised teachers and other support personnel teach cooperatively with classroom teachers (Tzivinikou, 2015; David, 2014; Miltenienė & Venclovaitė, 2012; Solis, Vaughn, Swanson, & Mcculley, 2012; Murawski & Lochner, 2011; Sileo, 2011; Takala, Uusitalo-Malmivaara, 2012; Taylor et al. 2015; Friend & Cook, 2010). Prior to co-teaching, professionals need to decide on the variation of co-teaching to address the support that students need to function successfully in a general education classroom (Nichols, Dowdy & Nichols, 2010). Several authors, Tzivinikou (2015), David (2014), Miltenienė & Venclovaitė (2012), Solis, et al. (2012), Murawski & Lochner (2011), Sileo (2011), Takala, Uusitalo-Malmivaara (2012), Taylor et al. (2015) and Friend and Cook (2010), defined co-teaching, also known as cooperative teaching or team teaching, as a strategy that involves direct collaboration between the general education and special education teachers or support personnel who combine their expertise and jointly deliver a lesson to meet the needs of a diverse group of students in the same classroom.

The above authors argue that for a co-teaching relationship to be successful there needs to be voluntary agreement between co-teachers on instructional planning and presentation time (Tzivinikou, 2015; David, 2014; Miltenienė & Venclovaitė, 2012; Murawski & Lochner, 2011; Sileo, 2011; Taylor et al. 2015; Friend & Cook, 2010). Co-teachers also need to respect and acknowledge each other's expertise and this can be practiced through good communication and problem-solving skills (Tzivinikou, 2015; David, 2014; Miltenienė & Venclovaitė, 2012; Murawski & Lochner, 2011; Sileo, 2011; Taylor et al. 2015; Friend & Cook, 2010). They need to agree on the physical arrangement of the classroom and on procedures for handling learners' disruptive behaviors (Tzivinikou, 2015; David, 2014; Miltenienė & Venclovaitė, 2012; Murawski & Lochner, 2011; Sileo, 2011; Taylor et al. 2015; Friend & Cook, 2010). They also need to inform parents about their co-teaching arrangement (Tzivinikou, 2015; David, 2014; Miltenienė & Venclovaitė, 2012; Murawski & Lochner, 2011; Sileo, 2011; Taylor et al. 2015; Friend & Cook, 2010). The school administration needs to support co-teaching by making suitable timetables and by allocating convenient times for all professionals to have frequent meetings; (Tzivinikou, 2015; David, 2014; Miltenienė & Venclovaitė, 2012; Murawski & Lochner, 2011; Sileo, 2011; Taylor et al. 2015; Friend & Cook, 2010). Friend and Cook (2010)

identified six models of co-teaching that can be used in the classroom and the following section will summarize the possible applications of these six models.

i. One teach, one observe

In this model, one teacher will deliver the lesson and one teacher will observe and they can swap their roles when necessary (Friend & Cook, 2010). The observing teacher may be observing a teacher or students in a classroom and when observing students, the focus is on the attention students give the task at hand and their ability to work through the task without being assisted (Solis, Vaughn, Swanson, & Mcculley, 2012; Murawski & Lochner, 2011). When the observing teacher observes the co-teacher, the focus is on how the co-teacher delivers instructions to students (Murawski & Lochner, 2011). The disadvantage of this model, according to Friend and Cook (2010), is that it involves less emphasis on co-planning, communication and collaboration than other models.

ii. One teach, one drift

This model is similar to the one teaches, one observes model in that the drifting teacher is the one who focuses on the students behaviors during the lesson and how the co-teacher delivers the curriculum (Friend & Cook, 2010; Sileo, 2011). The only difference between the one teach, one observes model and the one teach, one drift model is that in the one teaches, one drift model co-teachers share more classroom management responsibilities (Sileo, 2011). The disadvantage of this model is similar to that of the one teach, one observes model but both models provide opportunities to build trust, respect and a sense of community (Friend & Cook, 2010).

iii. Station teaching

In this model co-teachers plan and instruct a portion of the lesson content in stations that the students move through (Friend & Cook, 2010; Tzivinikou, 2015). For example, if the lesson is about sentence construction in an English first additional language class; in station A the co-teacher will teach students about the subject of the sentence and then students will move to station B where another co-teacher will teach them about the object of the sentence. Students will then proceed to station C where they will engage in class activity that reinforces prior

learning. Communication is vital, according to Tzivinikou (2015) for co-planning the lesson and the instructional content, materials and strategies each will use. Each co-teacher must be familiar with the curriculum and goals and they must share in classroom management and in determining how students are assessed (Friend & Cook, 2010; Tzivinikou, 2015). This model represents a significant increase in the collaborative process because the co-teachers must truly work together to be successful (Friend & Cook, 2010). The disadvantage to this approach includes high level of noise which may be demanding for some teachers (Tzivinikou, 2015).

iv. Parallel teaching

In this model students are divided into smaller groups for greater discussion, interaction and closer supervision and co-teachers jointly plan and instruct students on the same material (Friend & Cook, 2010; Nichols, Dowdy & Nichols, 2010). This model requires co-teachers to coordinate their expertise and be comfortable with the content so that all students receive the same instruction (Friend & Cook, 2010; Nichols et al., 2010).

v. Alternative teaching

In this model one co-teacher teaches a separate group of students for a specific purpose while the other co-teacher works with the remainder of the class (Solis, Vaughn, Swanson & Mcculley, 2012; Friend & Cook, 2010). One of the reasons for separating students is for one co-teacher to take a group of students because they have fallen behind due to absence and reteach material missed or pre-teach material the whole class will be learning in the next lesson or day (Solis et al., 2012; Friend & Cook, 2010). Solis et al. (2012) cautioned that it is very important that the co-teacher does not take out the same group of students for remedial instructions as this might create a static “special education group” in the classroom, discouraging inclusive education.

vi. Team teaching

This model is most collaborative and most rewarding because co-teachers take equal responsibility for all aspects of the classroom: management, planning, preparing materials, delivering instructions, and assessing student learning (Miltenienė & Venclovaitė, 2012; Tzivinikou, 2015). Co-teachers exchange their roles, each taking the lead or jointly sharing

teaching responsibilities (Friend & Cook, 2010). Team teaching requires that the co-teachers are able to coordinate their teaching styles and it is an approach that few co-teachers may ever be able to implement (Miltenienė & Venclovaitė, 2012; Tzivinikou, 2015). Co-teachers choose the model of co-teaching they are comfortable with and that is appropriate for their student needs (Nichols, Dowdy & Nichols, 2010). It is therefore clear that the success of any type of collaboration depends highly on quality consultation and active communication (Miltenienė & Venclovaitė, 2012).

Markle, Splett, Maras and Weston (2014) mentioned one of the benefits of using teacher assistance teams is that the regular exchange of resources and expertise develops a sense of belonging and liberation from isolation. Teachers will be excited, motivated, committed and feel empowered with the increase in shared decision-making with their administrators (Markle et al., 2014).

(b) Interagency collaboration

Interagency collaboration occurs when two or more independent organizations, usually with different missions, agree to work together towards a common goal and are sent to work in a different environment (Anderson-Butcher & Ashton, 2004; McLean, 2012). For schools to be able to provide sufficient support to all learners, Anderson-Butcher and Ashton (2004) and McLean (2012) believe that professionals trained in special areas should collaborate with teachers in school-based or school linked programs when supporting learners. According to Anderson-Butcher and Ashton (2004, p. 41-42) many partnerships exist modelling interagency collaboration between schools and local private and non-profit social services agencies, such as;

- community agencies that provide counseling,
- local non-profit social services agencies that provide eight-week therapeutic social skills groups,
- state-wide child abuse prevention programs,
- local departments of health assist with maturation programs and sexuality curriculum,
- big brothers and big sisters establish mentoring programs,
- local businesses providing internships for learners exploring career options,
- community-oriented policing services collocated in schools.

(c) Family-centered collaboration

Family-centered collaboration is a systematic way of creating partnerships with families that a) treats them with dignity and respect, b) honor their values and choices, and c) provides support that strengthen and enhance their functioning as a family (Epstein, Sanders, Sheldon, Simon, Salinas, Jansorn ... & Hutchins, 2018). In family-centered collaborations it is important that children, youths, and families are viewed as experts in deciding what kind of services and support learners need (Anderson-Butcher & Ashton, 2004; Hornby & Lafaele, 2011; Hay & Raymond, 2013; Avalos-Bevan & Bascope, 2017). According to Hornby & Lafaele, (2011); Goodall and Montgomery (2014); Epstein et al. (2018) and LaRocque, Kleiman & Darling (2011), a student should be viewed as an expert in reviewing his interests and preferred learning; the student's parents should be viewed as experts in reviewing how they assist and encourage the student with his academic work; the psychologist or special education teacher should be viewed as an expert in suggesting a contingency reinforcement plan or memory enhancing system or a teaching approach that the teacher might use to increase content retention; the counsellor should be viewed as an expert in explaining how a student's approach to tasks stems from family and cultural dynamics; and the regular education teacher should be seen as an expert in curriculum and teaching method.

In trying to implement this model all experts must together plan goals and develop strategies that promote and support the student's learning and healthy development (Anderson-Butcher & Ashton, 2004; Hornby & Lafaele, 2011). There are many ways for parents to be involved in schools. For example, parents can help with homework clubs, after-school programs, front office management, playground duty, hallway monitoring, cafeteria supervision, classroom management, and instruction (Hornby & Lafaele, 2011; Hornby, 2011; Bojuwoye, Moletsane, Stofile, Moolla & Sylvester, 2014). Parents may also be seen as partners in problem solving at the school (Hornby & Lafaele, 2011; Hornby, 2011; Bojuwoye et al., 2014). This is what Hay and Raymond (2013) called collaborative consultation and in this model, teachers have gained their power back as experts who know how to handle learners in an inclusive classroom. Wilder (2014) and Hornby and Lafaele (2011) emphasised that in a school context participant must always agree to view all participants as equal with diverse and needed expertise and they must be willing to share their expertise in understanding a problem and designing a programme for intervention.

Most of the time in this model the general education teacher is the consultee who does most of the in-classroom or on the playground implementation, and the parent is a consultee who does most of the at-home implementation (Wilder, 2014; Hornby & Lafaele, 2011). Wilder (2014); Hornby (2011) and Hornby and Lafaele, (2011) highlighted a few roles of consultees and those of consultants as follows; the consultee's role is to tell the consultant what he or she has done in trying to improve the situation and how his or her efforts have worked. The consultant roles are; to acknowledge and comment positively on what the consultee has done so far in trying to solve the problem; show interest in ideas of the consultee and convince the consultee to take a lead in developing his or her ideas; point out possibilities for effective interventions based on the consultee's ideas. When all participants are given a fair chance to play their roles they become part of decision making and each member can be held accountable for the success or failure of their collaborative effort (Hornby, 2014; Goodall & Montgomery, 2014).

(d) Inter-professional Collaboration

Inter-professional collaboration involves two or more people from different professions or agencies working together to help the child and his or her family (Anderson-Butcher & Ashton, 2004; Mellin, Bronstein, Anderson-Butcher, Amorose, Ball, & Green, 2010; Green & Johnson, 2015; Mellin, Anderson-Butcher & Bronstein, 2011; Ateah, Snow, Wener, MacDonald, Metge, Davis, Frickle, Ludwig & Anderson, 2011). Several major agencies are involved, including local school districts, health departments, child welfare systems, workforce services, local mental health providers, housing authorities, local youth development agencies, law enforcement, and other community partners (Anderson-Butcher & Ashton, 2004; Mellin et al., 2010; Mellin et al., 2011; Ateah et al., 2011). The task of these inter-professional teams is to have families, agencies (especially the schools), and communities together develop and deliver family-centered, community-based, and culturally competent services that improve the health, safety, education, and economic well-being of children and families (Anderson-Butcher & Ashton, 2004; Mellin et al., 2010; Mellin et al., 2011; Vesterinen, Kangas, Krokfors, Kopisto & Salo, 2017).

(e) Community collaboration

The final model of collaboration involves all community stakeholders that are committed to improving children's learning and healthy development (Mellin & Weist, 2011; Gregoric,

2013). In community collaboration parents, youths, older adults, community leaders, schools, youth development agencies, city government, health and mental health providers, business people, child welfare workers, religious institutions, police officers, victim advocates, and others “coordinate, harmonize, and synchronize the operations of all of their agencies”. Community collaboration focuses on the inclusivity and diversity of all community members and provides an opportunity for all stakeholders to learn from each other in the context of serving the community (Mellin & Weist, 2011; Gregoric, 2013). Caregivers and care seekers’ roles are interdependent and interchangeable (Gregoric, 2013). Community collaboration enable residents to increase communication and educate community members, enhancing group and community discussion; seek consensus, and form task forces and groups (Mellin & Weist, 2011).

2.2.1.3 BENEFITS OF COLLABORATION

Raver & Childress (2015); Cox-Petersen (2010); Steyn (2017); Haines, Blue-Banning, Francis, & Turnbull (2015); Stinchfield and Zyromski (2010); and Dettmer, Knackendoffel and Turnston (2013) agreed that society benefit when students, families, the community, schools, administrators, and teachers are working together to educate children. The following section will discuss how schools, families, students, teachers, administrators and the community at large benefit from collaboration.

(a) Schools, teachers and administrators benefits from collaboration

Collaboration between teachers and administrators in schools reduces school violence, improves student discipline, develops better acceptance and understanding of diverse students and their families with less stereotyping, and enhance attitudes, communication, and relationships among teachers, students and families (Cox-Petersen, 2010; Nel, Engelbrecht, Nel, & Tlale, 2014; Bouillet, 2013). Teachers improve morale, gain positive teaching experience, and experience less stress and frustration, and more support and appreciation from families (Cox-Petersen, 2010; Nel et al., 2014; Bouillet, 2013; Mulholland & O’Connor, 2016). Administrators receive fewer complaints from families and they use resources better (Cox-Petersen, 2010; Haines et al., 2015). According to Grant and Ray (2010) certain teachers benefit from the extra support and individualised attention that families can give their children,

whether it is volunteering in the classroom or helping at home. School safety increases with active family and community members (Grant & Ray, 2010).

Studies conducted by Milteniene and Venclovaite (2012); Ecclestone (2010); Mulholland and O'Connor (2016); Forlin (2010); Horn and Little (2010) and Steyn (2017), for instance, discovered that as teachers share knowledge; they develop missing skills and become more competent and creative in providing flexible and considered support for their learners. Similarly, a study conducted by De Vries, Jansen and Van de Grift (2013) in the Netherlands and a study conducted by Hargreaves, Nakhoda, Mottay, and Subramoney (2012); and Nel et al., (2016) in South Africa, discovered four benefits of collaborating with colleagues both inside and outside the school as follows; (1) collaboration can provide supportive and therapeutic benefits by reducing stress and help to improve confidence; (2) it provides feedback from colleagues that will help in generating new ideas and resolving challenges, (3) it creates enthusiastic commitment to changing practice as collaborators share expertise, and (4) this ultimately enhances learner performance.

Friend, Cook, Hurley-Chamberlain, and Shamberger (2010) added five benefits of teacher collaboration with other professional, namely; (1) collaboration decrease referrals to intensive special schools as students achievement increases, (2) fewer instances of disruptive behaviour in class resulting in less paper work for teachers, (3) increased number of students qualifying for school of skills, (4) improved academic and social skills for low-achieving students, improved attitudes and self-concepts, and more positive peer relationships, and (5) professional growth, personal support and enhanced sense of community within the general education classroom.

Furthermore, although the benefits of good inter-professional cooperation in school settings have been widely recognized, practical implementation is still inadequate in many cases (Vesterinen, Kangas, Krokfors, Kopisto, & Salo, 2017; Kennedy & Stewart 2012). This can often be detrimental for children with special needs who rely on support from different professionals if they want to fully participate in school life. Nel et al., (2013) pointed out that equal partnership between professionals, both internal and external to the school, is needed to support students who might experience different barriers to learning. They also asserted that for this to happen, formal support structures and systems need to be established within the existing education system (Nel et al., 2013).

(c) Families' benefits from collaboration

When families and community members partner with school staff in an inclusive school student improve their learning, behaviour and school attendance (Haines, Gross, Blue-Banning, Francis, & Turnbull, 2015; Steyn, 2017; Aykac & Msengi, 2019; Epstein et al, 2018). When families are in partnership with the school their understanding of the education curriculum increases and at the same time their knowledge about how to assist their children to learn also increases (Cox-Petersen, 2010). This leads to improved communication with the school, especially teachers, and the development of closer relationships between families and children (Cox-Petersen, 2010; Haines et al., 2015; Epstein et al. 2018 and Shute, Hansen, Underwood & Razzouk, 2011).

Similarly, a study conducted by Grant and Ray (2010) and Epstein et al (2018) found that families who were involved in their children's education tend to have more positive attitudes and be more satisfied with their child's school and teachers, with fewer mistaken assumptions between families and teachers about each other's attitudes, abilities, and motives. They also found that there was an increase in families' skills and confidence, sometimes even leading to improving their own education (Grant & Ray, 2010; Epstein et al. 2018).

(c) Students' benefits from collaboration

Schools with higher levels of collaboration that focuses on curriculum, instructional decision making and analysing and addressing students' learning needs are likely to have higher levels of student achievement and students who are motivated to learn (Cox-Petersen, 2010; Ronfeldt, Famer, McQueen & Grissom, 2015; Haines et al., 2015; Hall & Wurf, 2018; Wilder, 2014; Perkins, 2014). Students who develop a positive attitude towards school, attend school more frequently, have decreased dropout rates, suspensions, and discipline problems, improve self-confidence, produce better-quality homework and more frequent complete homework, and have better family relationships (Cox-Petersen, 2010; Haines et al., 2015; Bryan & Henry, 2012; Tschannen-Moran, 2014; Epstein, 2011; Steyn, 2017). A number of studies conducted by various researchers such as, Hargreaves et al., (2012); Hesjedal et al., (2015) and Suc et al., (2017), reveal that teachers view collaborating with their colleagues in their school as well as with other professions as beneficial in solving specific problems of learners with special needs.

2.2.1.4 BARRIERS TO SUCCESSFUL COLLABORATION

Along with the prerequisites of collaboration it is important to also understand the possibilities of barriers to collaboration (Weist, Mellin, Chambers, Lever, Haber & Blaber, 2012; Ainscow, 2016; Richards, 2016; Richards, Frank, Sableski & Arnold, 2016). Barriers to collaboration may be factors associated with the individuals involved or factors present in the environment (Richards, 2016; Ainscow, 2016) However, it is important to remember that barriers to collaboration will not be evident in each and every collaborative effort (McLean, 2012). Taylor, Smiley and Richards (2015) and Richards et al. (2016) listed several barriers to collaboration including conceptual barriers, pragmatic barriers, attitudinal barriers, and professional barriers.

(a) Conceptual barriers

Conceptual barriers are expectations professionals in schools possess about how things should be done (Taylor et al., 2015; Richards et al., 2016; Mulholland & O'Connor, 2016). General education teachers and special education teachers may have developed their own ideas of how their school should operate, including their roles, those of other professionals, families and learners (Richards, 2016; McLean, 2012; Florian & Black-Hawkins, 2011; Walton, 2016; Geldenhuys & Wevers, 2013; Green & Moodley, 2018; Dreyer, Engelbrecht & Swart, 2012; Avalos-Bevan & Bascope, 2017). General teachers may be comfortable with the practice of taking learners with special educational needs to a resource room for a considerable time (Richards, 2016; McLean, 2012). The challenge might arise with the introduction of a particular form of collaboration form such as co-teaching, where they will be expected to plan and deliver the lesson together (Richards, 2016; McLean, 2012). According to Engelbrecht and Hay (2018) a challenge might arise when professionals who were regarded as experts struggle to accept that teachers are experts who are their partners and who will participate in decision making. However, Richards (2016) cautioned us that it is worth noting that collaboration skills takes time, therefore, substantial changes in teachers' roles and how the school operates need time to develop and improve.

According to Zangona, Kurth, and MacFarland (2017), the lack of knowledge on how to support learners with significant learning disabilities may affect general as well as special education teachers' abilities to implement inclusive practices successfully. Lack of training and previous experience has been reported by Ajuwon, Lechtenberger, Griffin-Shirley, Sokolosky,

Zhou, and Mullins (2012) as the reason for the gap in knowledge. Nel et al. (2013) conducted a study in two provinces in South Africa and discovered that the majority of teachers did not understand the concept of collaboration; only the minority understood collaboration as working together as teams. Their understanding, according to Nel et al. (2013), lacked important characteristics of collaboration such as effective communication between team members, and mutual recognition of every team member's skills.

(b) Pragmatic barriers

Pragmatic barriers in collaboration, such as; scheduling time, large caseloads and competing responsibilities, are considered the most important (Taylor et al., 2015; Richards et al., 2016; Florian & Black-Hawkins, 2011; Geldenhyns & Wever, 2013; Walton, 2016; Dreyer, Engelbrecht & Swart, 2012; Suc, Bukovec & Kapljuk, 2017). Walton (2016) made an example that “some teacher might be willing and others might not be willing to work extra hours after school to collaboratively plan when no time is provided during the school day or week. Some professionals might experience a challenge when scheduling time for planning as they might be allocated to more than two different schools to support, so they will have to travel in between schools and might not make it to planning meetings (Richards, 2016; Dreyer et al., 2012). To overcome these challenges, Dreyer et al. (2012) suggests that the school principals and district administrators should make sure that time is scheduled for collaboration and this must be part of the school culture. Walton (2016) added that barriers for planning time can be diminished in several ways including; “split schedules for teachers, use roving aides to cover classes, and providing financial incentives”. a lack of time for formal communication. They added that schools can use any type of collaboration as long as planning time is scheduled by their administrators (Walton, 2016; Dreyer, Engelbrecht & Swart, 2012; Suc, Bukovec & Kapljuk, 2017). The sad reality of some schools is the fact that their administrators do not support inclusion therefore they do not see the need for planning time so they do not make time for professional to meet for planning (Walton, 2016).

A study conducted in Sweden and in Chile by von Ahlefeldt Nisser (2017); Avalos-Bevan and Bascope (2017); Mulholland and O'Connor (2016); Murawski (2010); Sharma, Loreman and Forlin (2012); Shakenova (2017) and Collinson and Cook (2013), respectively discovered that principals and administrators did not schedule enough planning time for teachers to collaborate, therefore teachers were unable to collaborate with their colleagues and other professionals.

Similarly, in some South African schools Hargreaves, Nakhooda, Mottay, and Subramoney, (2012) discovered that teacher and occupational therapists did not have time to meet, as teachers had full teaching schedules and occupational therapists had sets of therapy times for the learners.

(c) Attitudinal barriers

Attitudinal barriers to collaboration consist of professionals' feelings and attitudes about working together based on what they know or expect to be a likely result of their behaviour (Taylor et al., 2015; Richards et al., 2016; Richards, 2016). Teachers might be anxious when they collaborate as this will require them to change their attitudes about their roles and those of other professionals, families and learners (Richards, 2016; Taylor et al., 2015). Hargreaves, et al. (2012) discovered that some teachers viewed occupational therapists as private professionals using the school premises preform treatment because they are not school-based, and this attitude made some teachers feel uncomfortable to approach them on a regular basis. Hargreaves, et al. (2012) discovered that teachers were not familiar with terminology that occupational therapists used and this made it difficult for them to communicate their observations of the learner.

A study conducted by Nel, et al. (2016) also discovered that teachers with or without additional short courses in learner support were not confident in the knowledge that they have acquired because they were trained in the curriculum that used the medical deficit model to view learners with learning barriers. According to Nel et al. (2013; 2016) teachers felt that referring learners to the DBST was time consuming as they had to fill in forms on a daily basis and contact parents and some were not happy with the services they received (Nel et al., 2013; 2016). Committees introduced by DBST demand a great deal of paperwork such as drawing up policies and involvement of the School Governing Bodies, who are not always available. The school syllabus changes regularly therefore teachers find it difficult to find time to attend to this (Nel et al., 2016). Therefore, if teachers do not change their attitudes then collaboration will be inadequate. To address attitudinal barriers teachers and other professionals need to focus on the interconnectedness of various participants in their school settings and they will then realise the need to collaborate (Taylor et al., 2015).

Nel et al. (2016) discovered that lack of parental involvement hindered collaboration between parents and teachers. Most schools in South African experience lack of parental involvement because teachers do not actively encourage parents (Lai & Vadeoncouer, 2013). Du Toit and Forlin (2009) conducted a study in ten South African schools and discovered many reasons for the lack of parental involvement in their children's education, such as: Most parents in their study were unable to support their children at home with homework or extra motivation as they were illiterate themselves, there was little communication between parents and their children due to parents' absence from home (they often worked far away from home) and they did not understand the necessity for parental support (Du Toit & Forlin, 2009). Parents think that the responsibility for education is entirely up to the teacher and not themselves (Du Toit & Forlin, 2009).

(d) Professional barriers

Having teachers who have different beliefs and values and who were trained in different philosophies and skills in teaching can be challenging if teachers do not respect each other and are not willing to listen to others (Richards, 2016; Richards et al., 2016; Taylor et al., 2015; Loreman, Deppeler & Harvey, 2010; Suc, Bukovec & Karpljuk, 2017). A number of studies conducted in South Africa by varies researchers such as Stofile, Green and Soudien (2018); Swart and Pettipher (2011); Chiner and Cordona (2013) and Nel et al. (2013), discovered that some teachers prefer referring learner with special needs to experts than collaborating with other professional and this can be attributed to the way they were trained. Giangreco, Suter, and Doyle (2010) conducted a study in the United State and discovered that some paraprofessionals felt disrespected and were not valued as important members of the school community by teachers and administrators in their schools as they were under, over, or improperly utilized. In order for teacher and paraprofessionals to be able to overcome these challenges, they need to be willing to compromise, share and accept the expertise of one another and focus on the overall well-being of the school culture and the learners (Richards, 2016; Taylor et al., 2015).

Giangreco et al., (2010) discovered that there is an on-going disagreement about the appropriate roles of paraprofessionals in key areas such as; (1) the extent and nature of instructions (primary vs supplementary), (2) planning and adapting educational activities, (3) role in assessment, (4) communication and liaison with parents, and (5) clerical duties. Some paraprofessionals who

provide support on one-to-one bases to students operate with high levels of autonomy, making instructional decisions and providing bulk instructions to some learners without adequate professional direction.

Hargreaves et al. (2012) discovered that teachers felt that they were not trained to identify learners with difficulties who could benefit from occupational therapy interventions. Giangreco et al. (2010) discovered that paraprofessionals need training in content areas, such as; inclusive education, characteristics of students with disabilities and embedded teacher planning instructions, and they suggested that this could be delivered across training formats, such as three hours per week, intensive three days, and interactive television training

2.2.2 INCLUSIVE EDUCATION

2.2.2.1 What is inclusive education (IE)?

Inclusive education is a process of reducing exclusion in schools by increasing access and participation of children with disabilities or other support needs in regular classes (Walton, 2011; Stofile, Green & Soudien, 2018; Ntombela & Raymond, 2013a; Engelbrecht, Nel, Nel, & Tlale, 2015; Ntombela, 2011). Inclusive education is endorsed by the Salamanca Statement (UNESCO, 1994) as a cost-effective way for schools to combat discrimination and achieve education for all (Walton, 2011). Increasing access to education of learners with diverse education needs in the same classroom with their peers should be accompanied with acceptance and participation of these learners in the implementation of IE (Engelbrecht et al., 2015; Ntombela, 2011; Engelbrecht et al., 2017; Waitoller & Artiles, 2013; Kozleski, Artiles & Waitoller, 2014). Learner exclusion can be caused by a number of factors such as poverty, language differences, inflexible curricula, inaccessible environments, inadequate support services, and lack of parental involvement, in addition to impairments and illnesses. The aim of IE in South Africa is thus to address these barriers to learning (Walton, 2011; Engelbrecht et al., 2015).

Internationally inclusive education is regarded as the right of every learner to be part of mainstream classrooms (Engelbrecht et al., 2015). As much as inclusive education is a global movement towards improving education systems, Florian (2014) proposed that it must be defined nationally because it takes different forms in different places depending on the state, thus fitting the post-modern spirit of the country. As a result of what Florian (2014) is suggesting, the definition of inclusive education in this paper is taken from one of the South

African education policies, the White Paper 6. According to White Paper 6 inclusive education is (Department of Education, 2001, p. 16):

About acknowledging that all children and youth can learn and that all children and youth need support. Accepting and respecting the fact that all learners are different in some way and have different learning needs which are equally valued and an ordinary part of our human experience. About enabling education structures, systems and learning methodologies to meet the needs of all learners. About maximising the participation of all learners in the culture and the curricula of educational institutions and uncovering and minimising barriers to learning.

White Paper 6 (DoE, 2001) acknowledges that some learners might need more intensive and specialized forms of support to be able to develop to their full potential so the system is organized in a way that can provide different levels and kinds of support to learners and teachers. Many of the barriers to learning are being tackled collaboratively within many other national and provincial programmes of the Departments of Education, Health, Welfare, and Public Works in particular (DoE, 2001). This shows that inclusive education relies heavily on collaboration for its principles and goals to be achieved.

2.2.2.2 How IE should be implemented?

White Paper 6: Special Needs Education, Building an Inclusive Education and Training system (Department of Education (DoE), 2001) outlined a national strategy to achieve an inclusive education system that focuses on addressing and accommodating learners who experience various barriers to learning as far as possible in mainstream classrooms (Engelbrecht et al., 2015; Walton, 2011; Stofile, Green & Soudien, 2018; Dalton et al., 2012; Nel et al., 2013; Nel et al., 2016; Donohue & Bornman, 2014). The international trends on EFA and the Salamanca Statement and Framework for Action on Special Needs Education, encouraged each and every country to dismantle separate special education systems and promote the education of children with disabilities or other support needs in regular rather than separate classrooms (Walton, 2011). The South African government in White Paper 6 decided to retain special schools to cater for learners with moderate to severe support needs and to serve as resource centres for neighbouring schools (Walton, 2011; Stofile et al., 2018; Engelbrecht et al., 2015; Dalton et al., 2012; Nel et al., 2013; Nel et al., 2016; Donohue & Bornman, 2014). The government aimed at converting five hundred primary schools into full-service schools over a period of twenty years to cater for learners with moderate support requirements (Department of

Education 2005; Walton, 2011; Stofile et al., 2018; Engelbrecht et al., 2015). Engelbrecht et al., (2015) assert that the decision to retain special schools and converting some primary school into full-service schools to support learners with diverse barriers to learning is still depended on the medical approach that was practiced during the apartheid era in South Africa.

Draft documents and policies with the aim of putting inclusive education into practice have emanated from this White Paper (Engelbrecht et al., 2017; Stofile et al., 2018; Dalton et al., 2012; Nel et al., 2013; Nel et al., 2016; Donohue & Bornman, 2014). They include policies on a continuum of support, ranging from well-resourced mainstream schools to Special Schools as Resource Centres (SSRC), the Screening, Identification, Assessment Strategy (SIAS) and Support and guideline programmes for a more inclusive curriculum (DoE 2005; 2014; DoBE; 2010; Engelbrecht et al., 2017; Stofile et al., 2018; Dalton et al., 2012; Nel et al., 2013; Nel et al., 2016; Donohue & Bornman, 2014). The EWP6 identified three structures that need to frequently collaborate to ensure the success implementation of IE in inclusive schools in South Africa (Nel et al., 2016; Engelbrecht et al., 2017; Donohue & Bornman, 2014; Stofile et al., 2018). This includes the establishment of District-Based Support Teams (DBST), Institution-Level Based Support Teams (ILST) (also called school-based support teams), Full-Service Schools (FSS) as well as Special Schools as Resource Centres (SSRC) (Nel et al., 2016; Engelbrecht et al., 2017; Donohue & Bornman, 2014; Stofile et al., 2018).

(a) Institution-Level Support Team (ILST)/ School-Based Support Team (SBST)

Support for teachers and learners within the school is considered as the basic support structure by the EWP6. (DoE, 2001; Engelbrecht et al., 2017; Makhalemele & Nel, 2015; Stofile et al., 2018; Dalton et al., 2012; Nel et al., 2013; Nel et al., 2016; Donohue & Bornman, 2014; Daniels, 2010). This structure is referred to as the Institution-Level Support Team (ILST), sometimes called School-Based Support Team (SBST) (DoE, 2001; Engelbrecht et al., 2017; Makhalemele & Nel, 2015; Stofile et al., 2018; Dalton et al., 2012; Nel et al., 2013; Nel et al., 2016; Donohue & Bornman, 2014; Daniels, 2010). This team comprises teachers, other members of staff (administrative and support), volunteers, members of the school management team, members of the DBST, learners themselves, who can provide peer support to one another and other stakeholders from the community (such as health professionals, other governmental departments and non-governmental organizations) (Engelbrecht et al., 2017; Makhalemele & Nel, 2015; Stofile et al., 2018; Dalton et al., 2012; Nel et al., 2013; Nel et al., 2016; Donohue & Bornman, 2014). The main duty of this team is to co-ordinate support services within the

school by identifying and addressing learner, educator and institutional needs, develop learner support programmes, provide training for teachers and encourage collegial collaborative support and, ultimately, liaise with the DBST (Engelbrecht et al., 2017; Makhalemele & Nel, 2015; Stofile et al., 2018; Dalton et al., 2012; Nel et al., 2013; Nel et al., 2016; Donohue & Bornman, 2014). Furthermore, Landsberg (2011) added that the SBST is also responsible for facilitating the sharing of resources between different role players; ensuring parent involvement; planning preventive strategies; and monitoring the learning support progress. When the SBST is unable to support teachers and learners within their school, they need to seek support from the DBST (Engelbrecht et al., 2017; Makhalemele & Nel, 2015; Stofile et al., 2018; Dalton et al., 2012; Nel et al., 2013; Nel et al., 2016; Donohue & Bornman, 2014).

(b) District-Based Support Team (DBST)

The second structure of support that was identified by Education White Paper 6 (EWP6) (Department of Education, 2001; 2005) was the District-Based Support Teams (DBSTs) (Makhalemele & Nel, 2015; Dreyer, Engelbrecht & Swart, 2012; Nel et al., 2016; Stofile et al., 2018; Dalton et al., 2012; Nel et al., 2013; Nel et al., 2016; Donohue & Bornman, 2014; Daniels, 2010). The members of these DBSTs should include psychologists, specialised and general counsellors, therapists and other health and welfare workers employed by the DoE, non-governmental organizations (NGOs) or Community-Based Organizations (CBOs); various learning-support personnel; 'special needs' teachers; department officials providing administrative, curricular and institutional development support at district levels; specialist support providers; and teachers from Special Schools as Resource Centres (SSRCs) (Makhalemele & Nel, 2015; Mahlo & Condy, 2016; Landsberg, 2011; DoE 2005; Green & Moodley, 2018).

The primary function of these DBSTs is to assist schools to identify and address barriers to learning and promote effective teaching and learning (DoE 2005; Makhalemele & Nel, 2015; Stofile et al., 2018; Dalton et al., 2012; Nel et al., 2013; Nel et al., 2016; Donohue & Bornman, 2014). This includes on-going classroom and organizational support, providing specialised learner and teacher support, as well as curricular and institutional development (including management and governance), and administrative support (Makhalemele & Nel, 2015). This includes the responsibility of making the curriculum to be flexible in terms of teaching pedagogy and assessments (Makhalemele & Nel, 2015; Stofile et al., 2018; Dalton et al., 2012; Nel et al., 2013; Nel et al., 2016; Donohue & Bornman, 2014). It also needs to demonstrate the

use of learning support materials and assessment instruments (Makhalemele & Nel, 2015; Stofile et al., 2018; Dalton et al., 2012; Nel et al., 2013; Nel et al., 2016; Donohue & Bornman, 2014). The DBST's key roles are to support, train and mentor teachers and they have to arrange specialised support from the SSRC (Green & Moodley, 2018; Landsberg, 2011; Dreyer et al., 2012; Nel et al., 2016). The DBST also has a responsibility to ensure that the FSS has physical, material and human resources and provide the schools with support programs which involve skilled or specialised personnel and the use of assistive devices (Green & Moodley, 2018; Landsberg, 2011; Dreyer et al., 2012; Nel et al., 2016).

(c) The role of Full-Service Schools (FSS)

Full-Service Schools (FSS) will be equipped through staff training, building adaptations, and collaboration, with a variety of support services to meet the full range of educational needs of learners in a community (Walton, 2011; Makhalemele & Nel, 2015; Stofile et al., 2018; Dalton et al., 2012; Nel et al., 2013; Nel et al., 2016; Donohue & Bornman, 2014; Daniels, 2010). Furthermore, FSS should have the capability to deal with a diversity of learning needs, irrespective of the disability or differences in learning style or pace or social difficulties experienced (Makhalemele & Nel, 2015; Stofile et al., 2018; Dalton et al., 2012; Nel et al., 2013; Nel et al., 2016; Donohue & Bornman, 2014). This should be done by establishing strategies to assist curriculum and institutional transformation as well as by providing additional support to teachers and learners from other mainstream schools (DoBE, 2010; Makhalemele & Nel, 2015; Stofile et al., 2018; Dalton et al., 2012; Nel et al., 2013; Nel et al., 2016; Donohue & Bornman, 2014). Teachers at these schools also need to provide various levels of support to neighbouring schools, for example, they can share resources, skills and technology; ideas on how to prepare learning materials and good practice examples (Makhalemele & Nel, 2015; Stofile et al., 2018; Dalton et al., 2012; Nel et al., 2013; Nel et al., 2016; Donohue & Bornman, 2014).

(d) Special Schools as Resource Centers (SSRCs)

One of the primary roles of Special Schools as Resource Centres (SSRCs) is to collaborate with the DBST and FSS and exchange knowledge with surrounding mainstream schools; provide professional development to teachers as well as sustainable support to learners and teachers (DoE, 2001; DoE, 2005; Engelbrecht et al., 2017). Furthermore, Makhalemele and Nel (2015); Green and Moodley (2018) and Landsberg (2011) assert that the aim of SSRCs to collaborate

with surrounding schools is to capacitate teachers and this can be achieved by conducting communal workshops. These SSRCs should preferably be attached to schools in order for them to support the learners, teachers, parents and the community (Makhalemele & Nel, 2015; Stofile et al., 2018; Dalton et al., 2012; Nel et al., 2013; Nel et al., 2016; Donohue & Bornman, 2014). By clustering mainstream schools that fall within the same jurisdiction of the SSRC and by conducting communal workshops for example, is one way of capacitating teachers in these schools (Makhalemele & Nel, 2015; Stofile et al., 2018; Dalton et al., 2012; Nel et al., 2013; Nel et al., 2016; Donohue & Bornman, 2014).

2.4.7 National Strategy on Screening, Identification, Assessment and Support

One component of the implementation of Inclusive Education is the National Strategy on Screening, Identification, Assessment and Support (SIAS) (Dalton, McKenzie & Kahonde, 2012; Nel et al., 2016; Daniels, 2010). In 2008, SIAS was released. SIAS aims to respond to the diverse needs of all learners within the schooling system and to facilitate school access for children who were marginalised or totally excluded (Department of Education, 2008; Green and Moodley, 2018; Daniels, 2010).

SIAS introduces new roles and responsibilities to various stakeholders involved in the scholastic career of the child. It acknowledges the central role played by educators, parents, Special Schools as Resource Centres, Full Service Schools, communities, District Based Support Teams and School-Based support Teams (Department of Education, 2008). SIAS moved from assessing learners' intrinsic barriers to learning to assessing contextual factors which impact on teaching and learning, including teaching methodologies of teachers (Department of Education, 2005a; Daniels, 2010).

2.3 Theoretical framework

In this section, the researcher has used Cultural-Historical Activity Theory (CHAT) as a theoretical and analytical framework as Wilson (2014) mentioned that CHAT is increasingly used internationally to examine issues in teacher education and it is used in this study to examine teachers' collaboration practices in developing inclusive education. CHAT was used also to understand historical, economic, political, social and cultural factors constituting teachers' collaboration practices. This section briefly defines and outlines the development of

CHAT relying mainly on Engestrom's (2015) analysis. It further discusses how CHAT has been used as an analytical tool in this study.

2.3.1 WHAT IS CULTURAL-HISTORICAL ACTIVITY THEORY?

CHAT is a theory that was derived from German philosophy and Russian social science and it is used to describe the activity of people (Gretschel, Ramugondo & Galvaan, 2015). The acronym 'CHAT', according to Gretschel et al. (2015), is extended as follows: 'cultural' positions humans-the subject of activity theory- as being shaped by their cultural views and resources, 'historical' highlights the inseparable influence of our histories on our actions, and how this history shapes how we think, 'activity' refers to the doing of people, together, that is modified by history and culture, and situated in context, and 'theory' refers to the conceptual framework that activity theory offers for describing and understanding human activity. Hence, Trust (2017) stated that CHAT enables researchers to understand human thinking and understanding by examining the dialectical relationships among people, tools, and goals as they influence and are shaped by social structures, culture, and history within the context of a community.

2.3.2 Development of CHAT

According to Engestrom (2015) and Igira and Gregory (2009) CHAT was initiated by Lev Vygotsky (1978) in the 1920s and early 1930s and was further developed by Alexei Leont'ev (1978, 1981) and Luria. In Engestrom's reading, activity theory has evolved through three generations of research (Engestrom, 2015). The first generation focused on Vygotsky's mediated action, the second generation focused on the individual in collective activity, and the third generation focused on multiple, interacting activity systems and boundary-crossing between them (Engestrom, 2015). This study relies on Engestrom's (2015) formulation of third generation of activity theory. A brief introduction to the three generations of activity theory is provided in the following subsections.

(a) First generation

According to Yamagata-Lynch (2010), Vygotsky introduced mediated action as a concept to explain how human consciousness develops through interaction with artifacts, tools, and social others in an environment and this results in individuals finding new meanings in their world. Feldam and Weiss (2010) stated that artifacts can be physical tools, such as computers, while

public ordinary schools do not accept disabled learners, especially the physically disabled ones. cultural artifacts include language. Vygotsky suggested that people’s interaction with their environment is mediated by other people, and the cultural-historical context in which they live (Wilson, 2014). According to Igira and Gregory (2009), Vygotsky proposed a shift from understanding the individual mind unto itself to an understanding of the human mind in society and culture as they evolve historically. Wilson (2014) agrees with Engestrom (2015) that people’s interactions transform the environment in which they live. They then change culture and society through mediation, and in turn this changes them. To Vygotsky (1987) relationship among artifacts, tools, and social others changes over time. Figure 2.3.3 (a) represents what is often referred to as Vygotsky’s basic mediated action triangle (Engeström 2015).

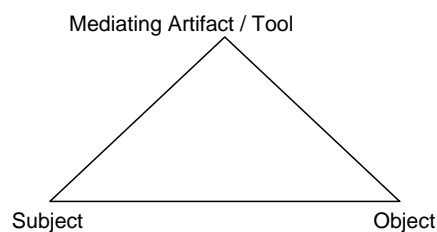


Fig. 2.3.3(a) Vygotsky’s basic mediated action triangle (Engeström, 2015)

The *subject* in the above triangle is the individual or individuals engaged in the activity (Engeström 2015; Edwards, 2011). The *mediating artefact or tool* can include artifacts, social others, and prior knowledge that contribute to the subject’s mediated action experiences within the activity (Engeström 2015; Wilson, 2014). Tools can be physical, cognitive or symbolic to direct activities towards the object and to produce outcomes (Engeström 2015). Wilson (2014) added that the *tools* that mediated teachers’ actions included their teaching strategies, such as; small groups, peer teaching, co-teaching, etc, and classroom materials, such as mathematics apparatus, brail, over-head projectors, audio devises, etc. The *object* is the goal of the activity (Engeström 2015). According to Engeström, (2015) and Igira and Gregory (2009) the unit of analysis of Vygotsky’s model remained individually focused as it did not integrate mediation by and with other human beings with their social relations. This led to the formation of the second generation of CHAT.

(b) The second generation of CHAT

Leont'ev extended Vygotsky's concept of mediated action by recognising the importance of the collective aspect of human activity (Igira & Gregory, 2009). Leont'ev identified object-oriented activity as the unit of analysis (Yamagata-Lynch, 2010). For Leont'ev consciousness develops by goals and motives (object of activity) in which individuals or groups choose to participate (Yamagata-Lynch, 2010). Leont'ev's model of the structure of activity helps to understand the inter-relatedness of levels of mediated action oriented by specific goals that constitute an activity dynamically, and how they are linked to the shared object of that activity (Edwards, 2010). According to Edwards (2010) Leont'ev's model was criticized for emphasising what is being done instead of how and who is involved in the activity. Edwards (2010) added that Leont'ev's interpretation of the structure of an activity does not indicate the roles and responsibilities of individuals involved in carrying out the collective activity.

(c) The third generation of activity theory

Drawing on the works of Vygotsky (1978) and Leont'ev (1978; 1981), among others, Engeström (1987) introduced his concept of an *activity system* to understand the interaction between individuals or group of individuals and the environment, and how they affect one another (Yamagata-Lynch, 2010; Feldman & Weiss, 2010). Engeström's (1987) activity systems model is represented as a triangle diagram. The top triangle is Vygotsky's original mediated action triangle – signifies the *subject*, the *tool*, and the *object* of the activity represented (Engeström, 2015; Feldman & Weiss, 2010). The *rules*, *community*, and *division of labor* components add the socio-historical aspects of mediated action that were not addressed by Vygotsky (Engeström 2015). In Engeström's (2015) conceptualization, *Figure 2.3.3 (b)* illustrates the core features of an activity system.

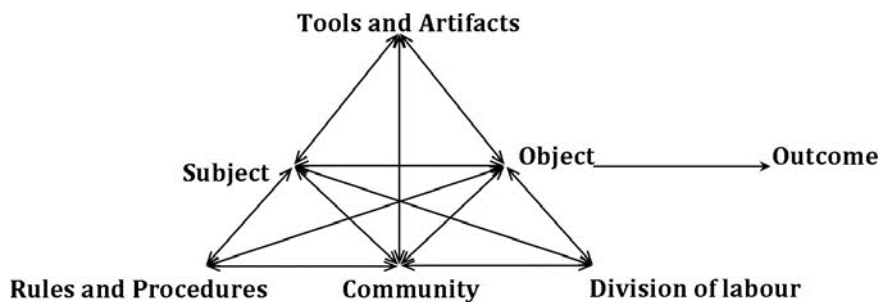


Figure 2.3.3 (b) The structure of a human activity system.

Rules refer to formal or informal regulations that can, in different levels, constrain or liberate the activity and provide to the subject guidance on correct procedures and acceptable interactions to take with other community members (Engeström, 2015). The community is the social group with which the subject identifies while participating in the activity (Engeström, 2015; Mwanza, Engeström & Amon, 2009). The division of labor refers to how the tasks are shared among the community (Engeström, 2015). All of the above components of activity systems, including Vygotsky’s triangle and the bottom socio-historical components can mediate change that may lead to an outcome not only for the object but also for each other (Engeström, 2015).

Human activity can trigger tensions caused by systemic contradictions when the conditions of an activity put the subject in contradictory situations that can prevent achieving the object or the nature of the subject’s participation in the activity while trying to achieve the object (Engeström, 2015; Daniels, 2010). In some cases, according to Engeström (2015) and Daniels, (2010) the activity may collapse altogether and the subject may not be able to attain the object. In other cases, subjects may attain the object but be dissatisfied about how they attained the object (Engeström, 2015; Daniels, 2010).

Engeström (2015) refers to third generation of activity theory as an application of activity system analysis that needs to develop conceptual tools to understand dialogues, multiple perspectives, collaboration and boundary-crossing between systems, and networks of interacting activity systems. Engeström (2015) initially models these perspectives in a network of minimally two interacting activity systems (Figure 2.3.3 (c)); that is to say, two activity systems comprise the minimum unit of analysis.

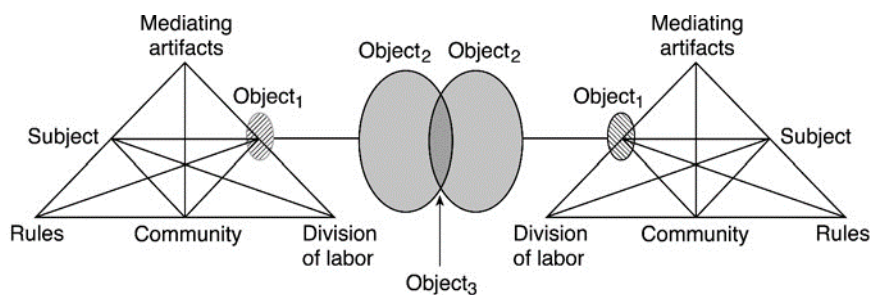


FIG. 2.3.3(c). Two interacting activity systems as minimal model for the third generation of activity theory.

Engeström (2015) made an example of a doctor-patient relationship when explaining networks of minimally two interacting activity systems. He said when a doctor consults with a patient, the object moves from the primary problem of the patient (object 1) to a collectively meaningful object constructed by the doctor and the patient on the patient's multiple problems (object 2), and toward the emergence of a shared object that is jointly constructed between multiple activity systems (object 3), to collaboratively construct an understanding about the patient's life situation and care plan (Engeström, 2015). Figure 2.4 highlights the emerging shared object between the minimum unit of analysis of two activity systems A and B (there may be more), showing how inter-organizational learning can occur.

Engeström (2015) presented five principles of activity theory when he summarized the current state of CHAT. *The first principle* is that an activity system is taken as the unit of analysis (Engeström, 2001). According to Feldman and Weiss (2010) this means that one needs to look at all network relations of an activity system to understand what is happening in an activity. *The second principle* is the multi-voicedness of activity systems (Engeström, 2015). In a community people have different views, roles, traditions and histories and the activity itself carry its own history (Engeström, 2015). Therefore, these differences are the sources of trouble and sources of innovation, depending on actions of translation and negotiation from the people (Engeström, 2015). *The third principle* is historicity (Engeström, 2015). Activity systems change over lengthy periods of time; therefore, their challenges and abilities can only be understood against their own local history (Engeström, 2015).

The fourth principle is the central role of contradictions as sources of change and development (Engeström, 2015). Contradictions are historically accumulating structural tensions within and between activity systems (Engeström, 2015). According to Feldman and Weiss (2010), when an activity system adopts a new element from the outside (for example, a new technology or a new object), it often leads to an aggravated secondary contradiction where some old element (for example, the rules or the division of labor) collides with the new one. Such contradictions generate disturbances and conflicts, but also innovative attempts to change the activity (Feldman & Weiss, 2010). *The fifth principle* proclaims the possibility of expansive transformations in activity systems (Engeström, 2015; Engeström & Sannino, 2010). Once contradictions of an activity system are fully recognised, some participants may begin to question and deviate from its established norms (Engeström, 2015; Engeström & Sannino, 2010). In some cases, this can

result in collective change effort, and escalates into collaborative envisioning and a deliberate collective change effort (Engestrom, 2015; Engeström & Sannino, 2010).

2.3.4 Application of CHAT to this study

Teachers' collaboration practices were the unit of analysis for this study. The subjects in this study were teachers who were involved in collaboration practices. The object was for the teachers to include learners, with or without learning barriers, in one classroom, and the outcome was to develop inclusive education. The subjects' past professional and personal experiences as well as their positions at work were examined as these attributes were believed to be influencing their construction of the object of the activity. The researcher wanted to understand the tools that teachers used when they collaborate to produce inclusive pedagogies, that is, outcomes. A full-service primary school was the community for this study because it consisted of teachers and other people (such as parents, social workers, administrative staff, etc.) that collaborate directly or indirectly in developing inclusive pedagogies. The researcher also wanted to understand the explicit as well as the implicit rules of this community and how these were acting as constraints and/or affordances of collaboration practices. Within the collaboration spaces, the researcher sought to understand how tasks are shared among teachers.

As stated earlier that all components of CHAT are interrelated so historically accumulating structural tensions can arise when the conditions of collaboration practises put teachers in a contradictory situation that can prevent achieving collaboration practices and when teachers try to implement collaboration practises and this can motivate them to change their practises and at the same time change themselves.

Although there are many ways to apply CHAT, the researcher outlines three elements valuable for examination of teachers' collaboration practices in developing inclusive pedagogies: (1) identification of activity systems, (2) historicity, and (3) contradictions. To understand teachers' collaboration practises, the researcher identified systems within and beyond their collaboration practise such as ways in which the school community (in their policies) establish practices that contribute to learning and examine contradictions between elements of each system so that the researcher can suggest possibilities for improving teachers' collaboration practises. Hancock and Miller (2018) stated that inclusive education adds another layer to context, depending on who is involved, and for what purpose and outcome, and may come

across implementation barriers such as application of resources and preparation for collaboration. The researcher wanted to examine whether teachers view their differences as sources of trouble or as sources of innovation for their collaboration practises. The researcher also wanted to understand change that has happened in the way that teachers now collaborate in developing inclusive pedagogies.

2.3 CONCLUSION

This chapter reviewed relevant and existing literature on teachers' collaboration practices in developing IE. Collaboration and IE had been defined and debates pertaining to inclusive policies have been discussed expansively. Teachers' perceptions and understanding of collaboration as well as their affordances and constraints of collaboration practices in developing IE have been discussed. CHAT, as a theoretical framework of this study, has been defined and the relevance of this theory to this study has been discussed.

CHAPTER 3

RESEARCH DESIGN AND METHODOLOGY

3.1 INTRODUCTION

The previous chapter reviewed literature on teachers' collaboration practices in developing inclusive education. As stated in Chapter 1, the aim of this study was to develop narratives of teachers' trajectories of collaboration in the process of developing inclusive pedagogies in one of the full-service schools in the Western Cape. This chapter describes and discusses the research methodology that was employed in this study; it provides a detailed description of the research approach and how the research was designed and conducted. The chapter further provides an explanation of the procedure used to conduct this study. It also describes the research methods, such as data collection methods used in this study. The research design explains how participants were selected, how data were transcribed and translated, and how the data were analyzed. It further explains how issues of trustworthiness were handled. It concludes by discussing the ethical considerations that guided the researcher during the research process.

3.2 RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

3.2.1 Research paradigm

Several authors, such as Denzin (2010); Hussain, Elyas and Nasseef (2013); Thanh and Thanh (2015) and Lincoln and Guba (2013), define a paradigm as a set of beliefs or human constructions that define the worldview of the researcher. Creswell and Creswell (2017) contend that "worldview" refers to the belief(s) that guide(s) and influence(s) the practise of research; they suggest that researchers need to make clear the larger philosophical idea they adopt. Having a worldview helps the researcher to determine the research methods that will be used and how data will be analysed and interpreted (Creswell & Creswell, 2017; Kivunja & Kuyini, 2017; De Vos & Strydom, 2011). According to Lincoln and Guba (2013), Fouche and Schurink (2011) and Creswell and Creswell (2017), the following three types of paradigms are mostly applied in education research: Positivist, Interpretivist, and/or Critical. Each of the aforementioned paradigms consists of four elements, viz.: epistemology, ontology, methodology and axiology. Epistemology refers to the manner in which researchers come to know the truth, reality, or something (Kivunja & Kuyini, 2017; Fouche & Schurink, 2011). Ontology is the study of the nature of reality, of being or becoming, as well as the basic

categories of things that exist and their relations (Kivunja & Kuyini, 2017; Fouche & Schurink, 2011). Methodology is the broad term used to refer to the research design, methods, approaches and procedures used in an investigation that is well planned to find out something (Fouche & Schurink, 2011). Axiology, on the other hand, refers to the ethical issues that need to be considered when planning a research proposal (Kivunja & Kuyini, 2017).

Hence, this study is a qualitative research, and the researcher followed the interpretivist philosophy, as suggested by McMillan and Schumacher (2010); Fouche & Delport (2011) and Hennink, Hutter and Bailey (2011). Interpretivist philosophy is based on the belief that reality is multi-layered and it is socially constructed by individuals through their interactions in trying to make sense of their world (McMillan & Schumacher, 2010; Thanh & Thanh, 2015; Fouche & Schurink, 2011). The interpretivist paradigm was chosen for this study in order to understand teachers' thinking, their interactions with others, and their interpretation of their world (Check & Schutt, 2012; Kivunja & Kuyini, 2017; Fouche & Schurink, 2011). Another reason for the selection of the interpretivist paradigm was to explore how different teachers in a full-service school construct their beliefs and develop their subjective meanings of their world (Check & Schutt, 2012; Creswell & Creswell, 2017; Kivunja & Kuyini, 2017; Fouche & Schurink, 2011).

The interpretivist paradigm, according to Kivunja and Kuyini (2017), adopts a subjectivist epistemology, relativist ontology, a naturalist methodology, and a balanced axiology. "The assumption of a *subjectivist epistemology* means that the researcher makes meaning of their data through their own thinking and cognitive processing of data informed by their interactions with participants" (Kivunja & Kuyini, 2017, p. 33). In this study, the researcher constructed knowledge by interacting with participants in various ways, including interviews, which were recorded, the observation of participants, and through reflective discussions, at their places of work, about their collaboration practices in developing inclusive pedagogies.

The assumption of a *relativist ontology* means that the researcher believes that the situation studied has multiple realities that can be explored (Kivunja & Kuyini, 2017). The researcher believed, at the outset, that the participants have developed different views about collaboration practices at their school through interaction with others and through historical and cultural norms. Therefore, the study sought to explore the multiple realities of their collaboration practices.

In assuming a *naturalist methodology* the researcher used data collected through interviews, observations and reflective discussions, with the researcher acting as a participant observer. A

balanced axiology assumes that the outcome of the research will reflect the values of the researcher, who has tried her best to present a balanced report of the findings.

3.2.2 Research approach

Creswell and Creswell (2017) define a research approach as the plan adopted to guide the conduct of research; the plan gives details about the research design, and the methods of data collection, analysis, and interpretation. Since this study explores teachers' collaboration practices in the development of inclusive pedagogies, it was imperative to select a mode of research that would allow the researcher to have direct interaction with participants. Accordingly, the study adopted an interpretivist paradigm, within the qualitative research approach, where a case-study design was used, and data collected through interviews, observations and reflective discussions. The data collected was analyzed thematically, within the context of a CHAT framework.

Qualitative research is not easy to define as it covers a wide range of techniques and philosophies (Hennink, Hutter, & Bailey, 2011). Creswell and Creswell (2017); Fouche & Delport (2011) and Hennink et al. (2011) define qualitative research as an approach that enables researchers to explore in detail and understand the meanings and interpretations participants give to their social or individual experiences by using a specific set of research methods, such as in-depth interviews, focus group discussions, observation, and so on. Qualitative research was regarded as the most appropriate approach to meeting the aim of investigating and understanding teachers' experiences and perceptions of collaboration practices at a full-service primary school. Qualitative researchers study people in their natural settings, because they are interested in understanding how experiences and behaviour of people are influenced by the context in which they live and work (Creswell & Creswell 2017; Hennink et al., 2011). The collection of data at a full-service school, where the participants who took part in this study work, enabled the researcher to understand how context has influenced their collaborative practices.

3.2.3 Research design

The selection of the research design employed in this study was informed by the research questions and the aim of the study. A research design is a strategy that is guided by the underlying philosophical assumptions of the researcher and it provides a specific direction for procedures, such as the selection of participants, the data collection techniques to be used and

the data analysis to be done (Creswell & Creswell, 2017; Maree, 2013; McMillan & Schumacher, 2010). Creswell and Creswell (2017) mention five types of qualitative research designs, namely, narrative research, phenomenological research, grounded theory, ethnography, and case study. This study adopted a case study design. The specifics of the case study research design used in this study are illustrated in figure 3.1 below.

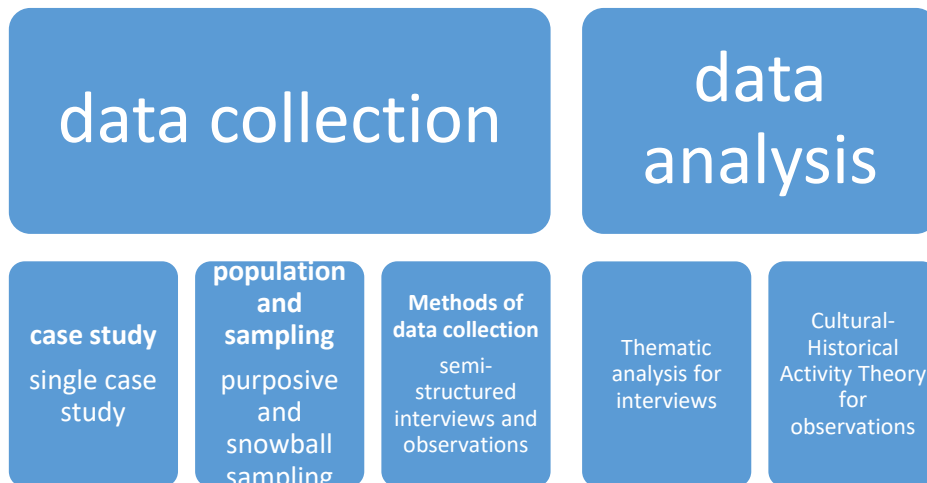


Figure 3.1: Research design

3.2.4 Case study

This study adopted Yin’s (2017) approach to case study methodology, which is based on an interpretivist paradigm. According to Yin (2017); Houghton, Casey, Shaw, and Murphy, (2013); Fouche and Schurink (2011) and Creswell and Creswell (2017), a case study is a research design that offers a researcher an opportunity to closely examine what she or he chooses to study in order to produce rich and in-depth information about the participants within their context. A case study was chosen because of the researcher’s pursuit of an in-depth understanding of the contextual conditions of teachers in a full-service school; this quest was premised on the belief that contextual conditions have an impact on teachers’ collaboration practices. Yin (2017); Fouche and Schurink (2011) and Creswell and Creswell (2017) identified three types of case study: explanatory, exploratory, and/or descriptive. Yin (2017) also differentiated between single, holistic and multiple-case studies. This study employed a descriptive, single case study approach. A descriptive case study is used to describe an intervention or phenomenon and the real-life context in which it occurred (Yin, 2017; Houghton et al., 2013; Fouche & Schurink, 2011; Creswell & Creswell, 2017). The researcher

did not want to make generalisations or comparisons; instead, the aim was to describe the trajectories of teachers' collaboration practices in the process of developing inclusive education.

Creswell and Creswell (2017); Houghton et al., (2013); Creswell and Poth (2017); and Merriam, and Tisdell (2015) mentioned three advantages, of using case study design, as follows: case studies help a researcher to explore or describe the context in which the study is conducted; different types of case studies allow for both qualitative and quantitative data analysis; and, case studies also help explain the complexities of a context, which may not be captured through survey research.

Despite these advantages, case studies have received criticisms. Creswell and Creswell (2017); Houghton et al., (2013); and Merriam, and Tisdell (2015) mentioned three disadvantages of case studies, namely; “case studies are often accused of lack of rigour; case studies provide very little basis for scientific generalisation since they use a small number of subjects, some conducted with only one subject; and case studies are often labelled as being too long, difficult to conduct and producing a massive amount of documentation”.

3.2.5 Research site

The data was collected at a full-service primary school, in one of the districts in the Western Cape. For ethical reasons, the selected school's name is not mentioned in this study; instead, the school is referred to as a full-service school. The school started off as a public ordinary school and was changed into a full-service school in 2005 by the education district. The school is located in a predominantly gang-infested area, a low socio-economic township in the City of Cape Town in the Metropolitan Municipality. Numerous learners come from the informal settlement; their parents are unemployed and survive on pensions and child support grants received from the Department of Social Development. Accordingly, the school is classified as Quintile 2 and parents are not required to pay school fees. The school had an enrolment of 1240 black learners from Grade R-7 in 2018. The school admits all learners regardless of their disabilities, including learners who¹ came from other African countries. Some learners from other African countries experience some difficulties, especially in Foundation Phase, as the Language of Learning and Teaching (LoLT) is IsiXhosa. The LoLT in grade 4 to 7 is English

¹ Quintile 2 schools are in the poorest communities and they are no fee schools as most of the people in these communities depend on the government's social grants and infrastructure.

and some learners struggle with this first additional language as they do not use it anywhere else other than in their classrooms. Learners who experience learning barriers in the surrounding communities are referred to this school by neighbouring schools because it is a full-service school.

The school had 30 permanent educators, including two deputies, one resource educator and six heads of departments, plus a principal. The school is characterized by overcrowded classes with a learner-teacher ratio of 1:40. The school has a school-based support team (SBST) that supports learners who experience learning challenges. The learner support educator serves two schools; therefore, she works at a selected school few days a week. Other support personnel such as counsellors, social workers, psychologists, doctors, speech therapists, etc., visit the school, oftentimes upon request by the school principal and or SBST members.

3.3. RESEARCH POPULATION AND SAMPLE

3.3.1 Population

A population is the entire set of people who conform to specific criteria in which the study focused (Bless, Higson-Smith, & Sithole, 2016; Taherdoost, 2016). The target population for this study were Foundation Phase teachers in one of the full-service primary schools in the Western Cape Province. The reason for selecting one full-service primary school was to have information-rich cases, which could provide valid knowledge and meaningful insights into teachers' collaboration practices in developing inclusive education at that particular school.

3.3.2 Sampling

A sample is a group of individuals from the population in which data is collected (Bless et al., 2016; Taherdoost, 2016; Strydom & Delpont, 2011). Taherdoost (2016); and Strydom and Delpont (2011) mentioned two types of sampling, namely; probability or random sampling and non-probability or non-random sampling. According to Strydom and Delpont (2011), qualitative researchers tend to use non-probability sampling and it is often associated with the case study design. As mentioned earlier, this study used a qualitative approach; therefore, the researcher adopted non-probability sampling. Taherdoost (2016); and Strydom and Delpont (2011) mentioned four types of non-probability sampling, namely quota, snowball, convenience, and purposive sampling. In trying to answer the research questions, this study adopted purposive sampling to select the research site and the participants.

Patton (2014); Strydom and Delpont (2011); and Creswell (2014) stated that purposive sampling is about selecting participants and sites (cases) that will yield in-depth understandings of the research question. Silverman (2016) added that cases are selected because they illustrate features or processes in which a researcher is interested. Purposive sampling was used when the researcher selected the school. The school was selected because it has been classified as a full-service school by the Department of Basic Education since 2005 and the researcher was interested in understanding teachers' collaboration practices in developing inclusive education.

The researcher approached the principal to obtain permission to conduct the study at his school; the principal then referred the researcher to the SBST coordinator. The SBST coordinator referred the researcher to two Foundation Phase heads of departments (HODs). The two HODs then identified and selected three Foundation Phase teachers they believed were considerably knowledgeable and experienced in relation to working at a full-service primary school; these three teachers had participated in collaboration practices geared towards developing inclusive education. The process was not smooth sailing as the researcher experienced some challenges while trying to engage the school. The challenges began when the researcher made an appointment to see the principal to explain the research aim; two appointments were cancelled due to the principal's busy schedule. For the first appointment, the principal was attending to parents who wanted to come inside the school premises during tuition time because they were concerned about gang fights that were happening after school. The second appointment was cancelled because the principal had to attend a principals' meeting with his counterparts from neighboring schools.

When the researcher finally got a chance to explain the study's purpose, the principal was excited and he welcomed the study. He promised to inform his colleagues about the study the following morning and he was confident that they would all be interested in it. The researcher went back to the school to check whether the principal had found volunteers, who would be interested in participating in the study, only to find out that the principal forgot because he had a lot to deal with. The principal referred the researcher to the SBST coordinator, who invited the researcher to an SBST meeting. Before the meeting started, the researcher was given an opportunity to explain the research purpose. No one was interested; they said they were busy, with extra mural activities on top of their everyday class responsibilities, and could not create time for the study.

Accordingly, the supervisor and the researcher went to the school to inform the principal that the study would be conducted in another school; however, the principal referred the researcher to the same SBST coordinator because he wanted the study to be conducted at his school. The researcher was referred to the Foundation Phase HODs who then identified three teachers who they believed would be interested in the study and those teachers were happy to participate.

3.3.3 Research participants

The six teachers were identified as participant A, B, C, D E & F respectively. Participant A and B were chosen by the HOD to participate in this study because they had more than ten years of experience at this particular school. Participant C was chosen because she served as a member of the SBST. Participant D was chosen because he was the principal of the school, participant E and F were chosen because of their teaching experience. Participant E had 15 years of teaching experience while participant F had 20 years of teaching experience. Before conducting this study, the researcher applied for and was granted ethical clearance from the Research Ethics Committee of the University of the Western Cape. The researcher then applied for, and was granted, permission by the Western Cape Department of Education to conduct research at a full-service primary school in one of the districts (see Appendix A). The researcher then made an appointment at a full-service primary school to see the principal to obtain permission to conduct research. She then presented a letter to the principal after she explained the purpose, the procedures to be followed, the risks, benefits, alternative procedures, and the measures implemented to ensure confidentiality and identity protection in the study to be conducted (see Appendix B). Likewise, informed consent from all the participants to participate in the study was obtained after having informed them of its purpose, the procedure to be followed, the risks, benefits, alternative procedures and the measures implemented to ensure confidentiality and identity protection (see Appendix C). Table 3.4.3 visually presents a summary of the participants in this study.

Table 3.4.3: A summary of participants

Participant	Sex	Phase Taught	Teaching experience	Age
A	Female	Foundation Phase	20 years	47
B	Female	Foundation Phase	8 years	38
C	Female	Foundation Phase	16 yers	41
D	Male	Principal	20 years	48

E	Female	Foundation Phase	15	42
F	Female	Foundation Phase	20	40

3.4 DATA COLLECTION METHODS AND PROCEDURES

The data collection methods and procedures selected in this study were consistent with qualitative research and case study design. These were interviews, observations and reflective discussions. The researcher concurs with Creswell and Creswell (2017); and Denzin, and Lincoln (2011) that methods of data collection in qualitative research and case study design usually involve direct interaction with participants on a one-on-one basis or in a group setting. The researcher of this study used Creswell (2014); and Creswell and Poth's (2017) recommendation that qualitative researchers must use open-ended questions that will elicit views and opinions of the participants.

3.4.1 Interviews

According to Marshall, Cardon, Poddar & Fontenot (2013), Creswell and Poth (2017), Hennink, Hutter, and Bailey (2011), Silverman (2016), Greeff (2011), and Denzin and Lincoln (2011), an interview is a conversation with a purpose between people in which one person has the role of researcher. The role of the interviewee, according to Hennink et al., (2011), is to share his or her story while the interviewer elicits the story. Interviews are used by researchers as a powerful way of trying to understand people's perceptions, attitudes, and definitions of situations and how they construct their reality (Marshall et al., 2013; Creswell & Poth 2017; Denzin & Lincoln, 2011; Glasser & Strauss, 2017; Silverman, 2016). For Doody and Noonan (2013), the researcher has a responsibility to establish rapport and trust from the outset. Marshall et al., (2013); Creswell and Poth (2017); Hennink et al., (2011); Greeff (2011); and Denzin and Lincoln (2011) listed three types of interviews, namely, structured, semi-structured, or unstructured. Doody and Noonan (2013); Creswell and Poth (2017) added that the choice of interview type depends mainly on the aims and objectives of the study. According to Denzin and Lincoln (2011); Greeff (2011); Glasser and Strauss (2017), semi-structured interviews are flexible in that the researcher is guided by a list of several key questions to be explored and may deviate in order to pursue an idea or response in more detail. Silverman (2016) and Doody and Noonan (2013) added that interviewees' responses lead the interview and that it why it is imperative for a researcher to listen carefully.

Based on the aim of this study, semi-structured interviews were adopted. Semi-structured interviews were found to be suitable for this study because the researcher wanted to understand how teachers understand and interpret collaboration and also to share their collaboration practices at their school. The interviews were conducted in a classroom of each participant at a full-service primary school after school hours to avoid interruptions. Six sets of interviews and four reflective discussions, after four observations of collaborative activities, were conducted with each participant. The researcher arranged suitable time in advance for each participant as suggested by Greeff (2011). The participants were reminded of the appointment closer to the time via WhatsApp.

Before the first interview commenced, the researcher-built rapport with participants during preliminary interviews by introducing herself and asking each participant about their job and school. Participants were informed about the study details, such as the study aim, what to be covered and that the interviews were to be conducted after school and were to be an hour long, depending on the availability of the participant. Participants were assured about ethical principles, such as anonymity and confidentiality. This gave participants some idea of what to expect from the interview and it, hopefully, increased the likelihood of honesty. The researcher negotiated the use of a tape recorder because interviews were recorded and transcribed in a verbatim manner. Assurance was given that the audiotapes of the interviews were to be locked away until transcriptions were completed, after which they would be destroyed. Each participant voluntarily participated in the study and signed a consent form.

The researcher went to each interview with a list of questions to be explored even though she started with a different question while interviewing each participant. During the interviews, open-ended questions were used to understand how teachers conceive their collaboration practices and how they explain or make sense of the important collaboration practices in developing inclusive education at their school. The issues that were covered in interview one include questions on the following (also see Appendix D):

- school context
- teacher career
- addressing the needs of all learners
- collaboration practices
- Facilitators and constraints of collaboration practices.

The second interviews were about teachers giving more details about their collaboration practices focusing on what enables them to collaborate, what makes it difficult, and how they can improve their practice (see Appendix E). They shared what they learn when they collaborate with others and the nature of support structures at their school. During interviews, participants were code-switching between English and IsiXhosa, their home language. Participants were more comfortable in responding in their home language. Code-switching was used to ensure maximum understanding on the part of the participants. After interviews the participants identified four collaborative spaces, wherein the researcher observed what the collaboration practice entailed and how they participate in the collaboration process. These collaboration spaces were phase meeting, SBST meeting, co-teaching and meetings with inclusive education teams.

The advantages of using interviews for this study were as follows: (1) the researcher had control over the line of questioning; (2) the researcher used probes to explore historical information about collaboration practices; and (3) the researcher enhanced her understanding of what was said by interpreting non-verbal cues through observation of body language, facial expression and eye contact (Creswell, 2014; Doody & Noonan, 2013). However, the researcher's presence and the perceived status difference between the interviewer and interviewee may have prejudiced participants' responses (Creswell, 2014; Doody & Noonan, 2013).

3.4.2 Observations

The researcher concurs with Merriam and Tisdell (2016) and Strydom's (2011) contention that observation is different from an interview in that an observation occurs in the setting where an activity or practice naturally occurs. The following authors defined observation as a research method that allows researchers to systematically observe and record people's behaviours, actions and interactions, and to describe the social settings in detail in order to understand people's behavior in their own socio-cultural context (Petty, Thomson, & Stew, 2012; Terrell, 2012; Taylor, Bogdan, & DeVault, 2015). In addition, Patton (2014) and Merriam and Tisdell (2016) defined observation as a complex combination of sensing (sight, sound, touch, smell and even taste) and perception of people's actions and recording, analysis and interpretation of their behavior. Taylor et al. (2015) added that observation can be used for a number of reasons, such as to complement other methods of data collection, to provide a contextual understanding to the findings of other research methods, as a stand-alone method, etc. The researcher used

observation as the research tool in conjunction with interviews and reflective discussions to substantiate the findings of this study.

Petty et al. (2012), Terrell (2012), Taylor et al. (2015) and Strydom (2011) mentioned two types of observation, that is, participant and non-participant observation, through which the researcher can collect data, either covertly (by hiding their identity), or overtly. According to Merriam and Tisdell (2016) and Strydom (2011), participant observation can be defined as the process whereby a researcher is exposed to, or involved in, the day-to-day activities of participants in the research site to learn about social order, cultural norms and behavior. On the other hand, non-participant observation is a process whereby a researcher conducts an observation without participating in the activities that he or she is observing (Merriam & Tisdell's, 2016; Taylor et al., 2015). The researcher adopted participant observation because she was a guest in collaboration spaces, and she behaved according to participants' norms and values at a full-service school.

Observations followed the first interviews, and during those interviews, participants were asked to identify and invite the researcher of this study to a collaboration space that they consider as important in their career. The aim of the observations was to validate what the participants said about their collaboration practices during the interviews. The researcher of this study concurs with Strydom (2011) when he stated that the first permission to conduct the study does not give the researcher a right to all information; therefore, the researcher needs to ask for further permission when necessary. The researcher of this study consulted and asked permission to observe the participants during their collaboration spaces. The participants were told the aim of the study and the aspects to be observed.

Before observations commenced, participants were reminded of the research aim, and their right of withdrawal if they felt uncomfortable; they also signed a consent form. Therefore, participants were aware of the researcher's presence and the purpose of the observation. Researchers, according to Taylor et al., (2015), Merriam and Tisdell (2016) and Strydom (2011), can decide to participate completely or passively; they can be moderate or active participants. The researcher decided to be a passive participant because she did not want to interfere during interactions. According to Strydom (2011) being a passive participant is preferable as it comes with fewer ethical issues as compared to active participants. It also has advantages of being more objective and passive (Strydom, 2011). However, it reduces the richness of the information to which the researcher is exposed. To overcome challenges of

being a passive participant, the researcher of this study used reflective discussions to enhance acceptance by participants and access to the participants' everyday activities.

According to Petty et al. (2012) and Hanson, Balmer, and Giardino (2011), as much as researchers are the research instruments, they cannot observe everything at once; therefore, they need to decide what to focus on. Prior to observations, the researcher developed semi-structured observation checklist (see Appendix F) that was based on six components of CHAT (*subject, object, tools, community, rules, and division of labour*), as a guide.

The subjects in this study were the participants observed in their collaborative spaces that they identified as important. The first observation focused on co-teaching between a general educator and learner support educator and it took about 45 minutes. The second observation was a meeting held after school between the inclusive education team and the teachers and it was an hour long. The third observation was a Foundation Phase meeting that lasted for an hour after school as well. The last observation was a meeting of the SBST that lasted for three hours.

In each collaboration space the researcher of this study observed how the participants conducted themselves. The participants were the subjects in their collaboration spaces, therefore the researcher observed whether they voluntarily interact with others, whether they were free to voice their ideas, beliefs, knowledge and insights or was their interaction forced because they had to respond to interrogations. The researcher also observed whether the participants were part of decision making or decisions were imposed by others. The researcher observed whether the participants gave and received support from others or whether they only received or gave support to others. The researcher also observed whether the participants were willing to share their expertise and other resources and learn from others in order to reach a common goal or they were not willing to share their expertise and resources. The researcher also observed whether the participants focused on achieving a common goal or were pushing their own agenda.

For the object of the activity the researcher observed whether the participants knew the goal of the activity and whether everyone understood the common goal. The researcher observed for the tools, (tools can be physical, cognitive, symbolic) used by the participants to get to their goals. The researcher observed the participants who were present during the activity practice and those who were not present but had an influence on the activity practice. The researcher observed the different tasks done and the roles played by the participants in the activity practice.

The researcher also observed whether the responsibilities were shared equally among team members or some members did not do anything. When the responsibilities were not equally shared among team members, the researcher observed who was dominating the activity practice.

The researcher took field notes, as suggested by Strydom (2011), while observing the behavior and activities of participants during their collaboration practices at a full-service school. Field notes, according to Hanson et al. (2011), are used by a researcher when analysing data. Observation provided the researcher with an opportunity to record information as it occurred and to get beyond participants' opinions and self-interpretations of their collaboration practices towards an evaluation of their actions in practice. However, the researcher is aware that her interpretation of what was observed may have been influenced by her values and motivation.

3.4.3 Reflective discussions

Four sets of reflective discussions followed the observations of four sets of collaboration practices. The reflective discussions were one-on one interview between the researcher and the participants. The researcher of this study initiated the discussions by asking questions that required the participants to reflect upon and interpret their collaboration practices (see Appendix G). As the participants responded to questions, they clarified their personal interpretations, thoughts and feelings about their collaboration practices. The aim of the reflective discussions was to gain further explanation of aspects of the observations. These include critical discussions on whether the rules that govern the participants' collaboration spaces, including those of the school and the Department of Education enabled or obstructed them from participating fully. The researcher also asked the participants to explain how they felt about the division of labour at their collaboration spaces.

3.5 DATA ANALYSIS AND INTERPRETATION

Several authors, have defined data analysis in qualitative research as a process whereby the researcher tries to make sense of the large amount of raw data collected from participants by analyzing their perceptions, attitudes, knowledge and experiences and transforming these into findings with the aim of answering the research questions (Creswell, 2013; de Vos, Strydom, Fouche, & Delport, 2011; Patton, 2014). In order for the researcher to answer the research questions, data analysis was done as data was collected in the field (Atkins & Wallace, 2012; Tuckman & Harper, 2012). According to Patton (2014) and Creswell (2013) simultaneous

collection and analysis of data enables researchers to go back to the participants and the original field notes to verify conclusions. In this study, the researcher analyzed data while she was collecting it. Two types of analysis, thematic and CHAT were used to analyze data. Thematic analysis was used to analyze data from interviews and reflective discussions, with the aim of producing data-driven analysis. On the other hand, CHAT was used to analyze data from observation, with the aim of producing theory-driven analysis. Before analysing the data, the researcher of this study prepared, organized, transcribed and translated the data. The following sub-sections describe the process followed in preparing data from the interviews and reflective discussions for thematic analysis.

3.5.1 Preparation of data

The process of analysis requires a researcher to prepare data. For Denscombe (2014), Richards (2014) and Bloomberg and Volpe (2018) preparation of data for analysis incorporates three main tasks, that is, a verbatim transcription of interviews or group discussions, translation of transcripts where necessary, and the removal of identifiers from the data to preserve participant anonymity. Richards (2014) suggested five ways of preparing data for analysis, namely; description of sample and participants, organizing data, transcribing data, getting to know data, and saving data. In this study, the researcher prepared data by organizing it, transcribing it, removing identifiers, translating it, and familiarising herself with it, before eventually saving it.

3.5.1.1 Organising data

The process of organising data involves the separation of data into different data sets, such as field notes, observation data, interview data, etc., and marking each bit of data clearly in terms of its identifying characteristics, such as when, where, how, and why it was collected (Gibbs, 2018; Richards, 2014; Mason, 2017). Richards (2014) and Bloomberg and Volpe (2018) suggested that researchers should use folders, files or boxes to gather materials dealing with the same batch of data. They further suggested that researchers should use labels that will enable them to easily retrieve files, folders, or boxes. The researcher organized the data into computer files and used research questions to name the files. According to Richards (2014), researchers who choose to use computers should save all their data into separate files and make a print-out of it so that they have a hard copy to work on.

3.6.1.2 Transcribing data

Transcription is the process of writing, in word-to-word fashion, replicas of the words spoken in the audio recorded interviews, as well as some aspects of speech that may also add meaning to the spoken words, such as pause before speaking, speech fillers (ahh), emotions, and verbal gestures (um, aha) (Denscombe, 2014; Richards, 2014; Bloomberg & Volpe, 2018; Maree, 2013). Transcription can begin immediately after the interview, or after all data have been collected, and it is important to identify the speakers with letters before the words because this will enable readers to differentiate between words of the interviewer and those of the participant (Bloomberg & Volpe, 2018; Mason, 2017; Gibbs, 2018). Denscombe (2014) added that identifying the speakers with letters or pseudonyms and removing any specific information that may reveal the identity of the speakers guarantees anonymity during data analysis.

Verbatim transcription enables a researcher to uncover cultural meaning during the analysis process as it captures information in participants' own words and expressions and helps the researcher to avoid being biased (McMillan & Schumacher, 2010; Denscombe, 2014; Bloomberg & Volpe, 2018). However, the only disadvantage of transcribing data in a verbatim manner is that the process takes a lot of time to complete (Maree, 2013).

The researcher transcribed each interview immediately; this enabled her to notice interesting issues that were added to the research guide for the subsequent interview. She then listened to tape-recorded interviews, and identified herself with the letter R, for researcher, and the participants as Participant A, Participant B, Participant C, Participant D, Participant E and Participant D respectively, during the verbatim transcription of both verbal and non-verbal data; she believed that both sets of data conveyed special meanings relevant to the study and presented the verbatim transcriptions of the interviews to the participants for verification.

3.6.1.3 Translation of data

As mentioned earlier in the text, the participants were more comfortable in responding in IsiXhosa, their home language and that of the researcher; consequently, the researcher had to translate the data obtained during interviews and reflective discussions from IsiXhosa to English. Hennink, Hutter, and Bailey (2011), Denscombe (2014) and Bloomberg and Volpe (2018) listed two approaches a researcher can use when translating data before data analysis: the first approach involves the production of a verbatim transcript in the original language of the interview, followed by translation of the product to a second transcript in the language of the researcher; the second approach is when a researcher translates and transcribes

simultaneously leading to a single transcript in the language of the researcher. The researcher adopted the first approach and produced two transcripts per interview, the IsiXhosa transcript as well as the English one. The English transcript enabled the researcher to extract participants' words to substantiate certain points, as appropriate. Denscombe (2014) and Bloomberg and Volpe (2018) suggest that when a researcher translates data, she or he must preserve the colloquial style of the language used by participants, in brackets, as some expressions hold cultural meaning that can be useful for analysis.

3.6.1.4 Thematic Analysis (TA)

Thematic analysis is a method for identifying, analysing, and interpreting patterns of meaning ('themes') within qualitative data (Clarke & Braun, 2013; Smith & Firth, 2011; Gale, Heath, Cameron, Rashid & Redwood, 2013; Sgier, 2012; Mihas, 2019; Joffe, 2012; Braun, Clarke, Hayfield & Terry, 2019; Herzog, Handke, Hitters, 2018). Maguire and Delahunt (2017) added that themes are identified because they are important or interesting and are used in trying to answer the research questions. The data from semi-structured interviews and reflective discussions were analyzed according to the following six steps of thematic analysis presented by Clarke and Braun (2013).

During the first step of thematic analysis, the researcher listened to the recorded interviews several times to check for repetition of issues raised by participants and whether the issues point to any underlying concepts as suggested by Clarke & Braun (2013), Smith & Firth (2011), Gale et al. (2013), Sgier (2012), Mihas (2019), Braun et al. (2019) and Joffe (2012). The researcher then engaged in a process of reading and re-reading the data to identify explicit as well as implicit issues raised by participants (Clarke & Braun, 2013; Smith & Firth, 2011; Gale et al., 2013; Sgier, 2012; Mihas, 2019; Braun et al., 2019; Joffe, 2012). The researcher made notes and wrote down early impressions of the data and developed initial codes. An initial code refers to an opinion, idea, or topic that is discussed by participants and is identified through reading data (Gale et al., 2013; Sgier, 2012; Mihas, 2019; Braun et al., 2019; Joffe, 2012; Braun & Clarke, 2013; Herzog et al., 2018). Clarke and Braun (2013) mentioned two types of codes, namely, inductive and deductive codes. The inductive codes are codes raised by participants and are discovered through reading of data, while deductive codes are codes prompted by the interviewer using theory and literature (Clarke & Braun, 2013; Gale et al., 2013; Sgier, 2012; Mihas, 2019; Joffe, 2012; Braun et al., 2019; Herzog et al., 2018). In this study, the researcher coded inductively and generated labels for important features of the entire dataset that were

relevant to answer the research questions. The labels were written on the margins of the paper and were then arranged together on a separate page as suggested by Mihas (2019), Gale et al. (2013) and Braun et al. (2019).

For the second step of thematic analysis, the researcher searched for themes from the list of the arranged codes. The researcher then identified similar codes for broader patterns of meaning, or potential themes, in such a way that these themes could be reviewed (Clarke & Braun, 2013; Gale et al., 2013; Sgier, 2012; Mihas, 2019; Joffe, 2012; Braun et al., 2019; Herzog et al., 2018). Finally, the researcher checked potential themes against the dataset and reflected on whether the themes told a convincing or compelling story about the data (Clarke & Braun, 2013; Gale et al., 2013; Sgier, 2012; Mihas, 2019; Joffe, 2012; Braun et al., 2019; Herzog et al., 2018).

During the third step of thematic analysis, the researcher grouped themes under the same codes. In this step, some potential themes were split into two or more themes, some were combined into a theme, and some were discarded as they were not answering any of the research questions as suggested by Clarke and Braun (2013); Gale et al. (2013); Sgier (2012); Mihas (2019); Joffe (2012); Braun et al. (2019); Herzog et al. (2018).

In the fourth step of thematic analysis, the researcher defined and named themes by writing a detailed analysis of each theme and reflected on the relevance of each theme to the data (Clarke & Braun, 2013; Gale et al., 2013; Sgier, 2012; Mihas, 2019; Joffe, 2012; Braun et al., 2019; Herzog et al., 2018). The researcher then decided on an informative name for each theme. On the final step of thematic analysis, the researcher put together in writing the analytic narrative and data extracts to tell the reader a coherent and persuasive story about the data, and contextualised it in relation to existing literature (Clarke and Braun, 2013; Gale et al., 2013; Sgier, 2012; Mihas, 2019; Joffe, 2012; Braun et al., 2019; Herzog et al., 2018).

The above steps are presented in a linear form; however, they move in circles (De Vos, Strydom, Fouche & Delpont, 2011; Gale et al., 2013; Sgier, 2012; Mihas, 2019; Joffe, 2012; Braun et al. 2019; Herzog et al., 2018). The researcher did not follow the steps rigidly because, as stated by De Vos et al. (2011), Gale et al. (2013), Sgier (2012), Mihas (2019), Joffe (2012), Braun et al. (2019) and Herzog et al. (2018), the steps move in circles; therefore, the researcher used them as guidelines. The results were presented according to the following themes that were identified based on collaboration practices in developing IE at a full-service school in the Western Cape:

- conceptualisation of collaboration
- collaboration practices
- facilitators of collaboration
- barriers to collaboration

A detailed discussion of the research results will follow in the next chapter.

3.5.2 Cultural-Historical Activity Theory (CHAT)

Observations were analyzed using Cultural-Historical Activity Theory (CHAT). The researcher observed co-teaching between a general educator and learner support teacher and an SBST meeting. The researcher was guided by an observation checklist that she created using six components of CHAT. The researcher familiarised herself with the data from the observation checklist by reading it several times. The six components of CHAT (subject, object, tools, community, rules, and division of labour) were used as initial codes. The researcher then examined the dialectical relationships among the codes in order to develop themes for a broader understanding of the complexity of teachers' collaboration practices. This was done by creating relationship codes for each component, such as subject-object, subject tools, subject-rules, subject-community, and subject-division of labour. Then the researcher identified and examined the data that fit within themes. Observation results are presented according to the following two themes: (1) multi-voicedness; and (2) contradictions.

3.6 TRUSTWORTHINESS

Trustworthiness is used to evaluate the quality of the research process and findings in qualitative research (Bless, Higson-Smith, & Sithole, 2016; Cope, 2014). Lincoln and Guba (2013) and Check and Schutt (2012) suggested that research conducted in the interpretivist paradigm should be validated by four criteria of trustworthiness: issues of credibility, transferability, dependability, and conformability. In the next sections the four criteria to ensure trustworthiness and their relevance in the study are discussed.

3.6.1 Credibility

Credibility refers to the extent to which the researcher represents the actual meanings of the research participants' original data (Lincoln & Guba, 2013; Moon, Brewer, Januchowski-Hartley, Adam, & Blackman, 2016; Prion & Adamson, 2014; Cope, 2014; Polit & Beck, 2012;

Prion & Adamson, 2014; Schurink, Fouche & De Vos, 2011). Credibility is established when the participants in a study agree with the way the researcher interpreted their original views (Moon et al., 2016; Prion & Adamson, 2014; Cope, 2014; Schurink et al., 2011). Credibility in this study was established by member checks and triangulation as suggested by Bless et al. (2016). After data collection, the researcher went back to the school to confirm the accuracy of the transcript with participants. This helped clear up miscommunication and also helped the researcher get additional information. The researcher used triangulation to investigate whether the data collected from interviews were in tandem with data collected during observations and reflective discussions. The researcher would have evidence of credibility if data from interviews, observations and reflective discussions, produced the same description of an event or when a participant responded similarly to a question asked on three different occasions.

3.6.2 Transferability

Transferability is the degree to which the findings of a study can be applied or generalized to other contexts or to other groups (Ary, Jacobs, & Sorensen, 2010; Cope, 2014; Polit & Beck, 2012; Houghton, Casey, Shaw & Murphy, 2013; Prion & Adamson, 2014; Schurink, Fouche & De Vos, 2011). The researcher established transferability, as suggested by Bless et al. (2016), by providing sufficiently rich, detailed, thick description of context and sample so that other researchers or readers can make necessary comparisons and judgments about similarities of the findings.

3.6.3 Dependability

Dependability refers to the extent to which the research findings can be consistent if repeated with the same participants in the same context (Moon et al., 2016; Cope, 2014; Polit & Beck, 2012; Prion & Adamson, 2014; Schurink, Fouche & De Vos, 2011). To ensure dependability in this study, the researcher assessed her subjectivity, and this enabled her to reduce it (Moon et al. 2016). If the study were to be conducted again, in the same context with the same participants, the researcher expects that the findings would be similar.

3.6.4 Confirmability

Confirmability refers to the extent to which the research findings are only meanings of the participants and not biases of the researcher (Moon et al., 2016; Cope, 2014; Polit & Beck, 2012; Prion & Adamson, 2014; Schurink, Fouche & De Vos, 2011). The researcher ensured

the minimization of her bias, which would have contaminated the results of data analysis, by using triangulation and member checks as explained above.

3.7 ETHICAL CONSIDERATION

Research ethics places an emphasis on the protection of the rights of participants by reducing any potential harm to them (Creswell & Poth, 2017; Denzin & Lincoln, 2011; Glaser & Strauss, 2017; Marshall & Rossman, 2014, Creswell & Creswell, 2017; Ritchie, Lewis, Nicholls, & Ormston, 2013; Bryman, 2016; McMillan & Schumacher, 2010; Strydom, 2011). This study, just like any other study, presented ethical issues largely because people were involved (Glaser & Strauss, 2017; Bryman, 2016; Creswell & Creswell, 2017; Strydom, 2011). In any kind of research there are ethical guidelines which have to be adhered to (McMillan & Schumacher, 2010; Bryman, 2016; Denzin & Lincoln, 2011; Strydom, 2011). According to McMillan and Schumacher (2010); and Strydom (2011) these guidelines include informed consent, avoiding deception, ensuring confidentiality and anonymity, avoiding harm to subjects, and respecting privacy. In order to ensure that research participants were not placed at any kind of risk, the following ethical principles were used as guidelines throughout the research process.

3.7.1 Informed consent

Before conducting this study, ethical clearances, from the Research Ethics Committee of the University of the Western Cape, the Western Cape Department of Education, and the concerned school's principal, were sought and granted. Informed consent was obtained from all the participants who took part in this study; this occurred after they had been informed of its purpose, the procedure to be followed, the risks, benefits, and the measures implemented to ensure confidentiality and identity protection (see Appendix C). Participants were informed that the purpose of the study was to develop narratives of teachers' collaboration trajectories in developing inclusive pedagogies. They were informed that, following their consent, two sets of interviews that could last for about 45-60 minutes, two observations, and two reflective discussions after the observations, would be conducted at a convenient place and time. Bless, Higson-Smith, and Sithole (2016); Bryman (2016) and Denzin & Lincoln (2011) believe that it is important for a study to potentially contribute to the well-being of others. Accordingly, even though participants were informed that this study might not benefit them directly, they were nonetheless informed that reflection and discussions could be positive learning experiences. Besides, the research findings would contribute to knowledge about collaboration practices in a full-service school set-up.

The researcher also paid heed to the contentions of Bless et al. (2016) who emphasize that researchers must ensure that participants are not harmed, whether intentionally or unintentionally, during a study. At the outset of this study, the researcher was aware that participants may feel some discomfort with the fact that they were taking part in a study focusing on their experiences of inclusion and collaboration in a full-service school. The researcher was also aware that they may recall frustrations or negative experiences, which may cause feelings they did not expect. Accordingly, efforts were made to ensure that the location of the interviews was private, with low risk of distractions. Participants were informed that, if at any time during the process they found any of the procedures uncomfortable, they could skip a question or stop entirely.

3.7.2 Voluntary participation

The researcher informed all participants that their participation in the study was completely voluntary, since participants cannot be compelled, coerced or required to participate in a study against their will as suggested by Strydom (2011). Participants were also informed that the freedom to participate or not to participate is a basic right which includes the freedom to withdraw from the research at any time without penalty. In this way, it was ensured that coercion to participate or to remain a participant was not applied, and that the participants were not exploited in any way, thereby upholding the highest ethical code.

3.7.3 Anonymity and confidentiality

According to Bless, Higson-Smith, & Sithole (2016); Bryman (2016); Marshall and Rossman (2014) and Strydom (2011), in ensuring confidentiality, researchers have a responsibility of protecting participants' sensitive and personal information. The participants were assured that all the information provided by them would not be shared with anyone, their identities would not be revealed in any record or report, and there would be no link between the data and the participants. Furthermore, code names for participants and the school were used to ensure anonymity. In this way, no one can link them to what has been written in the research report. Participants were kept informed regarding the progress of the research and guaranteed the provision of courteous feedback, in writing, following the completion of the research.

3.8 CONCLUSION

This chapter has described the research process and given the details of the choice of a paradigm, approach, design and sampling of participants in this study. It has also provided a

detailed description of data collection processes and explained how issues of trustworthiness and authenticity were attended to in this study. It has concluded by discussing ethical considerations. Chapter Four presents the analyzed data.

CHAPTER 4

PRESENTATION AND ANALYSIS OF DATA

4.1 INTRODUCTION

The previous chapter discussed research methodology that the researcher used when conducting this study. The purpose of this chapter is to present and interpret the data from two sets of semi-structured interviews, observations as well as reflective discussions on perceptions and experiences of teachers' collaboration practices in developing inclusive education at a full-service school. This chapter is organized according to the following themes that emanate from the categorisation of the data collected for this study: (a) biographical characteristics of the participants; (b) perceptions of the school context; (c) conceptualisation of collaboration; (d) collaboration practices; (e) barriers to collaboration; (f) benefits of collaboration and, (g) facilitators of collaboration.

4.2 Biographical characteristics of the participants

In order to make sure the selected participants were well targeted and could bring in valuable data in addressing the research question, all the participants were asked to share information about themselves. The data collected concerned mainly their teaching career, their initial education qualification(s), grades and or subjects taught, positions occupied and years of teaching experience (see appendix D for details with reference to the tool used). They were also asked to explain the reason(s) they became teachers. In keeping with the above, it is worth to mention that the data collected were relevant to this study as responses yielded an in-depth understanding of teachers' experiences. A summary of responses from all the three participants are visually presented in the following Table 4.2.

Table 4.2: participants' biographical characteristics

Participant	Qualification	Teaching experience	Grade	Gender
A	Diploma in Education (3-year programme).	20 years of teaching in public schools 5 years of teaching in full-service school	Foundation Phase (grade 1-3)	Female
B	Diploma in Education (3-year programme) Higher Diploma in Education (HDE)	10 years of teaching experience in full-service school	Foundation Phase (grade 1-3)	Female
C	Diploma in Education (3-year programme)	14 years of teaching experience in public schools and two years of teaching in full-service school	Foundation Phase (grade 1-3)	Female
D	B.A degree and Higher Diploma in Education (HDE)	25 years of teaching in public schools 9 years of teaching in full-service school	Intermediate and Senior Phase	Male
E	B.Ed. degree	8 years of teaching in public schools 4 years of teaching in full-service school	Foundation Phase	Female
F	B.A degree and Higher Diploma in Education (HDE)	15 years of teaching in public schools 9 years of teaching in full-service school	Foundation Phase	Female

As indicated in the above table 4.2.1, the data for this study were collected from six participants, five of them were females. As for their qualifications, the data revealed that they were qualified teachers who were initially trained to teach in public ordinary schools. They were post level one Foundation Phase teachers with more than ten years of teaching experience. As far as their teaching experience is concerned, the findings revealed that 80% of the participants had 20 years of teaching experience.

In relation to motivations why they wanted to become teachers, the data revealed that they all had different reasons. Some of the participants embraced teaching career because it offered a bursary. Another chose a teaching career out of love for children, whereas others were inspired

by their primary school teacher. These views are supported by the following excerpts from interviews provided as evidence.

“I studied at a college...but I started in 1993 to work at a public ordinary school as a post level one teacher...I started working at this school in 2013... we had a bursary for teaching...” (Participant A).

“...I studied at a university... here I will be ten years now...I love children...” (Participant B).

“...I was at a university...I have always been a post level 1 teacher...I think I have a role model, my primary school teacher...” (Participant C).

Concerning the major changes, they experienced during their teaching career and how they coped with them, the data revealed that in general participants considered curriculum reviews as the major change they experienced in their teaching career. They indicated that they started teaching with the Outcome-Based-Education (OBE) curriculum, which changed into Revised National Curriculum Statement (RNCS) and now to Curriculum Assessment Policy Statements (CAPS). The data showed that curriculum change was a frustrating experience. For example, one of the participants indicated that she even decided to study for a different career. Despite the frustration, the participants indicated that they managed to cope with the changes. One the participants mentioned that she tried to adapt to the new curriculum even though she was not fully trained to work in an inclusive school. In this regard another participant adopted a very flexible, dedicated and a positive attitude towards the changes that enabled her to persevere. The data revealed that the review of the curricula made the participants feel powerless and forced to adapt to the newly introduced curriculum. It clearly appeared that the negative feelings of participants related to curricula changes emanated from the inappropriate initial training they received. They felt incompetent and lacked confidence in their abilities to support learners with learning barriers. They describe this in the following extracts from their interviews:

“I try because I am here, you try by all means but some of these kids we don’t understand because we are not trained” (Participant A).

“I am busy studying law...what is more frustration is the change of curriculum advisers...I was trained for OBE, then RNCS, when I started working it was CAPS...” (Participant B).

“The curriculum has been changing since I have been a teacher...I was a new teacher during OBE, whereas when I was studying, I was not trained for OBE, then RNCS was introduced” (Participant C).

4.3 Description of the school context

The participants were asked whether they regard their school as inclusive and the reasons. The data indicated that all six participants believed that inclusive schools are different from other public ordinary schools. They reported that their admission policy in their school is inclusive and does not discriminate against learners as compared to ordinary public schools, which does not accept disabled learners, especially the physically disabled ones.

The participants further indicated that their school is inclusive because it welcomes and accommodate every child with or without disability in the same classroom with their non-disabled peers. In this regard, the participants mentioned that the culture of their school was to embrace the diversity and treat everyone (learners, teachers and parents) with respect. The following extracts from interviews with participants can serve as evidence to describe the above point of view:

“Our school is different in a way that we admit all learners including the disabled ones.” (Participant A).

“...the school is dominated by the learners who have problems...” (Participant B).

“...then when you come to an inclusive school you will find that you do not have a right of saying you will not admit a learner...” (Participant C).

As far as how and when their school had become more inclusive, the participants revealed that they did not know the genesis of when and how their school had become more inclusive. They reported that they learnt only later after attending workshops on inclusive education and when the Western Cape Department of Education sent support personnel to their school. They also revealed that by the time they joined the school, it was already identified as an inclusive school even though they did not know how and when. They explained in the following extracts from their interviews:

“...when I came this school was an inclusive school already ...therefore I do not know when and how it started to be an inclusive school...” (Participant A).

“...when I first started here it was an inclusive school already...we have been to workshops and we have been educated about an inclusive education so it is not a new thing” (Participant B).

“Okay, I am not sure when and how because I only started here last year...so when I applied I didn't know I was coming to an inclusive school...” (Participant C).

4.4 Conceptualization of collaboration

Participants in this study were asked to share their understanding of collaboration or what collaboration means to them. Three participants believed that collaboration means consultation and teamwork with experts inside and outside the school. It included consultation with experienced teachers, the learning support teacher (LSEN), neighbouring schools, teacher assistants (TAs) from non-governmental organizations (NGOs), school-based support teams (SBST) and parents, as well as support professionals from the District Office. Two participants described collaboration as an act of working together to address complex problems they face in teaching learners in the school. The terms that emerged during interviews were ‘partnership’, ‘networking’, ‘cooperating’, ‘multidisciplinary and inter-professional working’. As two participants described:

Collaboration is about working together to solve problems that relate to teaching learners in the school. For example. Working with other professionals, community organizations, psychologists, social workers, police and therapists. It also means forming partnership with other people outside the school, sharing information and ideas (Participant D).

I think it is networking with people that do a similar work. Sometimes you connect with them over the phone when the need arises. I like cooperating in those activities that relate to the goals I want to achieve (Participant E).

The participants reported that they consult other people for various reasons such as obtaining information about learners who experience learning difficulties and the best strategies to use in addressing these barriers in the classroom situation.

“Collaboration is when I work with the previous teacher of a learner, who , who is struggling, when I err I ask certain information like, the behaviour of the learner, parent’s contact details, things like that, so I collaborate with my colleagues” (Participant A).

“... I collaborate with teachers from the same grade as me, uhm (silent)...” (Participant B).

On the other hand, they understood collaboration as working together during phase meetings. They considered their weekly planning meetings and their workshops conducted at their school as collaboration. As they described it in the following extracts during the interview’s sessions:

“Let me make an example, I collaborate with teachers from the same grade as me, uhm (silent) we collaborate by planning together on weekly basis during our phase meetings, yes collaboration is about working together” (Participant B).

“Collaboration is when teachers work together, for instance when we try to help each other with SNA 1 form, we collaborate with our colleagues” (Participant C)

In summary, collaboration was conceptualised by participants in the study as a continuum, including the following: educators merging to work as one team; educators sharing information and ideas; educators sharing a physical space and some information and resources, educators participating in cooperative activities; one educator coordinating cooperative activities for a group of participants.

4.4.1 Collaboration practices

Considering the collaboration practices at the inclusive schools the data revealed that there exist school-owned activities as well as Department of Education-owned activities.

4.4.1.1 School initiated collaboration

The data revealed participants’ school-initiated activities that enable them to collaborate. These activities include interaction and engagement with teacher assistants (TAs), parents and with their colleagues.

The participants reported that they worked with teacher assistants who were deployed in their school by the Western Cape Department of Education and non-government organizations

(NGOs). They indicated that teacher assistants were employed to work with teachers from Grades R to 7 in teaching and supporting learners with diverse needs on a one-on-one basis. They further highlighted that teacher assistants were trained to support learners in mathematics and reading and that they were available from Monday to Thursday. However, the participants believed that their learners, especially the ones experiencing barriers to learning, needed support in all subjects and almost every day. Furthermore, they unanimously reported that their school had a shortage of one teacher assistant for the Foundation Phase. As a result, they explained that, this led to the rotation of teacher assistants to cover all the classes and get every class assisted. In short, the data indicated that participants had a positive attitude towards teacher assistants, and they regarded teacher assistants as helpful. The following excerpts illustrate this point of view:

“... I get assistance in mathematics and reading and she does not come Fridays...so she takes a small group of learners and sit with them at a corner or on the mat...we are short of 1 teacher assistant... so they move to other classes...” (Participant A).

“The assistant teachers sit with them on the mat here in the classroom and teach them how to read during the reading period...in mathematics as well.... They come in Monday up until Thursday...so we have one class that does not have the teacher assistance...” (Participant B).

“... they help us in reading and mathematics, they are not enough...they sit with them on the mat and teach them on one-on-one basis” (Participant C).

However, the data have also revealed that although the participants were in favor of working with teacher assistants, they seemed to have different views about what working with teacher assistants meant and how it should be practiced. Most of the participants reported that their focus was not only on executing the lesson, but also on planning the lesson together with the teacher assistant and deciding on relevant teaching strategies. The following extracts from the interview illustrates her position:

“...We plan together what we will teach, when and how...” (Participant B)

The data revealed that the participants unanimously reported that they work formally with their colleagues during Foundation Phase meetings (Grades R-3). They indicated that during these meetings they conduct and participate in different activities such as, lesson planning, sharing and implementing information received from workshops, sharing classroom challenges and

seeking advice from more experienced colleagues. Besides, each teacher gets a chance to share what he or she had learnt from the workshop attended. As for meeting preparation, two of the six the participants explained that a few days prior to these meetings, they were given documents on which their discussion would be based, and this strategy enables them to share their thoughts and experiences. Considering the above procedure and collaboration the participants felt empowered, valued and most importantly supported by their Head of Departments (HODs). The following excerpts provide evidence:

“...it is a platform where we share our challenges and assists each other on how to address those challenges...” (Participant A).

“...we plan together on a weekly basis...if there was a teacher who attended a workshop he or she then gets a chance to share...we are given the document earlier, so that we can go through it for discussions ...During these meetings teachers share their classroom challenges and ask for advice from more experienced teachers” (Participant B).

“...we discuss about a variety of issues... we get the information from the person who attended the workshop... there are always documents given at the workshop so the HODs make copies and give it to us before the meeting so that we can read through and be able to share our thoughts and opinions” (Participant C).

Apart from the formal meeting indicated above, consistently the participants indicated that they also seek advice informally from their colleagues any time during the day. In the same realm, they indicated that they practice classroom rotation where their Foundation Phase colleagues would come and teach certain lessons when they were not confident in presenting the content or when they noticed that learners did not understand it. For the success of the class rotations, the participants indicated that they were planning lessons to be taught together as a team. The following statements extracted from the interviews can serve as evidence:

“...in corridors we advise and ask whatever that we struggle with in our classrooms I usually ask a teacher to come and teach during that period and I would go and teach her learners...” (Participant A).

“...I am not good in mathematics so what I normally do is to ask a teacher that I know is good in mathematics to come and teach a part that I do not explain well to learners...I

then go and teach a lesson that the teacher was going to teach her kids...”(Participant B).

“...yes, I asked a teacher to come and explain part of mathematics when I notice that my learners does not understand what I am teaching...” (Participant C).

As far as collaboration with parents is concerned, the data indicated that teachers in this inclusive school were working with parents in supporting learners, especially those who were experiencing barriers to learning. All the participants reported that their school principal invited parents for teacher-parents’ meetings towards the end of each term. The purpose of these meetings was to inform parents about learners’ progress and encourage them to assist their children at home. In this regard, one participant reported that she sometimes suggested strategies, such as a spelling test, which parents could use to assist their children at home. In complete agreement, they reported that they encouraged the parents to check the learners’ books every day. They also reported that most learners appreciated their parents’ interest in their school work. It seems as if parents were told what to do; they were not given a chance to initiate the support that they think their children needed. This practice does not fit the definition of collaboration according to literature as indicated in chapter two. This practice lacks the most basic characteristics of collaboration such as, mutual goals, participation in decision making and viewing each other as experts.

One of the participants reported that her principal used to visit parents at home when they did not attend school meetings, especially when a situation was severe. This implies that this particular school has a leader who supports his teachers, and this enables collaboration between teachers, the principal and the parents. In addition, another participant reported that receiving a letter from the school that informs the employer about the meeting that the parent attended at the school enabled parents and teachers to work together.

Apart from the meetings called by the principal, the participants reported that they invited parents of learners who were experiencing barriers to learning to inform them about their observations so as together they decide on how to support the children. Based on these data, it is obvious that the participants valued parents’ opinions and considered them as important actors in the efforts to support learners experiencing learning barriers.

“... I have learnt that it is very important to alert a parent immediately...So I write a letter to a parent or go check the parent’s cellphone number and call the parent so that we look into the challenge together and immediately” (Participant A).

“We always call a meeting towards the end of the term, where parents hear a progress of their child...the parent will get a letter from the school that she will give her boss” (Participant B).

“I ask a parent to assist the child at home by doing spelling...we are lucky at the school because our principal do home visits when the situation is severe...” (Participant C).

4.4.1.2 Department of Education initiated collaboration

Participants participated in collaboration spaces initiated by the Department of Education. These include discussion, mentoring and meetings with the inclusive education team, special schools as resource centers (SSRC), school-based support team (SBST), learner support teacher, curriculum advisors (CAs) and, with other schools during workshops held at the Cape Teaching and Leadership Institute (CTLI).

The participants reported that they share ideas and experiences with other schools during workshops conducted by the District officials at CTLI. They indicated that CTLI workshops are scheduled at the District Office; thereafter schools get the invitation from the District Office to attend a particular workshop. The data revealed that during these workshops’ teachers get trained on how to integrate technology into their everyday teaching. The participants reported that they were grouped and given activities to practice what they had learnt. They claimed that they enjoyed working in groups as they were learning from each other and sharing their experiences. Without exception, they all reported that they get trained on how to use assistive devices such as braille and audio devices. However, the participants indicated that as far as the preparation for CTLI meetings is concerned the schools play no part in this. Regardless of their needs, they have no choice but to wait until they are invited. The following extracts from the interviews can illustrate the above point of view:

“... I personally learnt a lot from the CTLI workshops that our school was invited to attend...we were taught things like how to use technology when teaching... (Participant A).

“... we also work with colleagues from other schools during CTIL workshops...it is always interesting to learn from others...our school received an invite for Foundation Phase teachers to attend...” (Participant B).

“...I enjoyed working with other schools during CTLI workshops...I noticed we had some similar experiences...we get trained on how to use technology, braille and hearing devices” (Participant C).

Apart from the CTLI workshops, the participants reported that they work with other teachers from SSRC during workshops. The workshops educate them about different issues such as teaching strategies that they can use to accommodate learner diversity and the support structures that they can consult for additional support. They also mentioned that during the workshops, they share their experiences, and, in the process, they learn from each other. The data revealed that they positively appreciate the support received from the Department of Education. The following excerpts from interviews can serve as evidence to illustrate the participants' opinions:

“We work closely with other schools...we meet with them during workshops, where we were motivated and reminded of diversity in our school and how to handle it and where to ask for assistance. The department is really trying to equip us with useful information” (Participant B).

“... we had a workshop...we were trained on how to deal with learners who cannot sit still...we were sitting in small groups and we shared our classroom experiences...we were learning from each other...” (Participant C).

Besides CTLI and SSRC, the participants reported that they also collaborate with IE team when the team conducts workshops at their school. One of the participants reported that the IE team visits are scheduled by the Western Cape Department of Education. Another reported that IE team sometimes conducts workshops for all teachers. She added that most of the time the IE team works with the SBST. The SBST invites the IE team to the school whenever it needs assistance. During the workshops the IE team demonstrates strategies that the team believes are best in supporting learners experiencing barriers to learning. Another one claimed that the IE team was comprised of psychologists, occupational therapists, nurses and doctors. The extracts below from interviews illustrate this point of view:

“...inclusive education team visit our school to teach us teaching strategies...most of the time the time works with SBST” (Participant C).

“...the SBST ask for advice from the IE team when they do not have answers...members of IE team include psychologists, occupational therapists, doctors and nurses...” (Participant A).

“...I am now able to support some of the learners in my class using the strategies the IE team has trained us...” (Participant B).

Unanimously, the participants reported that they work with the SBST by referring learner cases to the team for intervention. They also mentioned that the key role of the SBST was to advise teachers on teaching strategies that they had to use when supporting a particular learner. In their responses they indicated that:

“...the SBST looks into the case and come up with their intervention...the team tell teacher how to support learners...” (Participant A).

“I usually write a report to SBST and explain clearly learner’s problem and they develop their intervention that I must do in my class...” (Participant B)

“I first make an appointment with the coordinator, and then she tells me when to come to present...they listen and say when they will bring their intervention, a strategy maybe that I can use to teach that learner...” (Participant C).

Contrary to the researcher’s observations, the participants were not advised. Instead, they were told exactly what to do and how to do it. To be advised according to the researcher’s understanding is to get a suggestion(s) and to decide where the advice will be suitable in a particular context. During reflective discussion, the participants indicated that the IE team strategies do not always work in their context but they were unable to share that because of the fear of being labeled as hostile. The participants also reflected on the contradictions and tensions they had during the discussion. According to the participants the SNA 1 process is too complicated for them but there are easy and meaningful ways of providing the same information,

One of the participants indicated that the SBST is comprised of two HODs who chair the meetings, the learner support teacher, the resource center teacher, the principal, the five

teachers who volunteered to be members of the SBST and sometimes the DBST member joins, as well as the teacher representatives of grade 3 and 5. One of the participants explained that:

“We have two Heads of Departments who are the chairpersons of the meeting...we also have teacher representatives of grade three and five, we have resource center teacher, learner support teacher, the principal, and sometimes the DBST members...”
(Participant C).

The structure of the SBST was confirmed by the researcher’s observation and the reflective discussion between the researcher and one of the participants. However, it is interesting to note that only the DBST member claimed that the parents of learners who were discussed in the meeting should be part of the meeting. During the reflective discussion, the researcher then asked Participant C whether she invited parents of the learners she presented. Participant C claimed that she did not invite parents to the meeting instead, she contacted the parents to get information about the learner. Participant C reported that parents do not attend SBST meetings because most of their parents work long hours. As Participant C explains:

“...we never had a parent during our meetings...we invite them to attend the meeting they always come up with excuses that maybe they are working late...a teacher needs to consult the parent to get more information about the learner...” (Participant C).

One of the participants reported that responsibilities within the SBST were shared equally. She claimed that the SBST’s role of being the secretary and the duty of completing the Special Needs Assessment (SNA 2) form and the Individual Support Plan (ISP) for each learner rotate from one member to another.

The above claim was confirmed by the researcher’s observations during the SBST meeting she attended. She noticed that all SBST members shared responsibilities. The chairperson indicated that the minutes of the previous meeting were written by the member of the SBST who went to a workshop. The chairperson therefore asked for a volunteer to write minutes of the meeting and two other volunteers to complete the SNA 2 form and the ISP form of every learner case to be presented at the meeting as suggested by the DBST member. The following extract from the interview with one participant illustrate the above point of view:

“We rotate the roles of being a secretary of the team...” (Participant C)

Finding from the reflective discussions confirmed that the SBST share responsibilities. As Participant C explained:

“...we rotate secretaries, a person who writes Individual Support Plan, and a person who writes SNA two Intervention” (Participant C).

The data indicated that the participants revealed that the SBST had procedures that teachers were expected to adhere to. Before referring learner cases to the SBST, the participants reported that they used differentiation as an intervention strategy to identify and support learners experiencing barriers to learning. They further indicated that differentiation is about aligning assessment of learners with their levels of functioning. However, they reported that their intervention becomes unsuccessful when some learners’ performance does not improve. With regard to their unsuccessful intervention, the participants indicated that they were requesting meetings with the coordinator of the team and waiting for an invitation to present their learners’ cases. They also indicated that they were required to fill in a SNA 1 form, to bring evidence of their unsuccessful intervention, learner portfolio and classwork books. The following excerpts from the interviews provide confirmation:

“I do differentiation where I allocate them according to their levels...once the differentiation does not work on severe learners we refer them to a team called SBST, that is School-Based Support Team. SBST checks what intervention I have done as a teacher then they do theirs, they do an individual planning... (Participant A)

“I first do differentiation as my intervention...I make an appointment with the coordinator of SBST and they told me to bring evidence of my intervention such as books and files of learners...” (Participant B)

“...there is a form that I fill in, I fill in section one...then whatever that I have discovered I write it down then I take it to SBST committee, then the committee will invite me to present the situation of the learner and I must include evidence, then I bring learner classwork books, learner portfolio then they will suggest how to deal with a situation...” (Participant C).

During the SBST meeting I observed, the chairperson requested each teacher, who had to present her learners’ cases, to circulate a completed SNA 1 form, their unsuccessful intervention as well as the learners’ writing books for the group to familiarize with the case. However, it is interesting to mention that all the teachers present at the meeting did not have

completed SNA 1 forms. In cases where a teacher had not completed an SNA 1 form, the DBST member instructed the SBST to send him or her back to complete the form before he or she was given the chance to present his/her cases. This practice does not fit the definition of collaboration because the DBST member was dominating, taking solo decisions for the SBST and teacher even though she was not familiar with the school context.

Similarly, data from reflective discussion between the researcher of this study and one of the participants confirmed the importance of the SNA 1 form. Besides, the data revealed the teachers' experience in completing this SNA 1 form. One of the participants admitted that she was not confident in completing this form. This is why she did not fill it. She reported that she did not know what to write. She confirmed that according to her that SNA 1 form was just an additional paperwork on top of what they had already done. The data also revealed that this lack of knowledge made this participant feel frustrated. However, she reported that she was optimistic because the DBST member promised to train them on how to complete the SNA 1 form. The following extract confirms the above discussion:

“...she promised to come back for a workshop, where she will teach us how to fill in SNA 1...there is a lot of information that they require, I sometimes feel like I am repeating the same thing and another thing that she picked up was that we write little information on the form, I am just not confident I am glad we will have a training on this” (Participant C).

In keeping with the above point of view Participant C claimed that she participated in decision making when the SBST develops an ISP for each learner. This claim suggests that decisions were not imposed but discussed:

“...another thing everyone participates in decision making so everyone gets a chance to contribute their thoughts...” (Participant C).

However, the above-mentioned perception contradicts the researcher's observations during the SBST meeting. According to the researcher during the meeting the participant observed did not participate in decision making. Instead the DBST member provided guidance on the decision to be taken based on her 'expertise'. The DBST member together with learner support teacher interrogated teachers and afterwards they imposed decisions on the teachers. The DBST member instructed teachers on how to support each child that was presented. In this regard, the SBST member also instructed teachers to change their classroom settings, give short classwork

to struggling learners, and also to use oral activities most of the time. As a result, teachers as well as the SBST relied on the DBST member to resolve the challenges that they were experiencing at their school. The chairperson and the learner support teacher also approved every decision taken by the SBST member while the participant was quiet and accepted the decisions.

Similarly, the reflective discussion data confirmed the researcher's observation. The data revealed that according to participants the role of the DBST member, who was present at the meeting, was to correct what they were doing wrong and to advise the SBST on how to support teachers and learners. The following extract can serve as evidence:

“...sometimes we get a visitor from the District, who comes to check if we are doing things right and she is a very helpful lady...she is there to correct and advise us...”
(Participant C).

This claim confirms the researcher's observation that the participant viewed the DBST member as an expert who knew better than her. This response also suggests that the participant lacks confidence in her abilities to think of creative solutions to her problems. The participant viewed the SBST member as someone from whom she can learn.

Participants reported that most of the time the SBST sends a member to visit classrooms and to monitor the progress of learners. This supporting measure seemed to be a motivation for some teacher to play their role. However, they have also indicated that when a learner's case is severe, the team refers the learner to other professionals such as, psychologists, speech therapists, and other support personnel. The data indicated that other support personnel such as psychologists assist learners outside the classroom. The following excerpts can serve as evidence to illustrate the above claims:

“...the SBST visit out class to check the progress of learners...if their intervention does not work, then they refer a learner to a psychologist...” (Participant A).

“...the SBST takes it from there...the SBST come to my class to check if learners are coping...if they notice learners are still struggling they send learners to social workers, psychologist...” (Participant B).

“...if there is no progress they refer a learner to the psychologist... they send one of their members to come and check the progress of the learner...” (Participant C).

The data have revealed that all participants admitted that working with the SBST in their school was a good experience. They also indicated that it helped a lot in the improvement on learners' performances. The following extracts from the interviews indicate as follows:

"...I enjoy working with the SBST because after my learners received support from the team they improved..." (Participant A).

"...some learners passed at the end of the year after the SBST intervention, it is so nice..." (Participant B)

"I am proud of SBST of our school, some learners now are able to write and read...it is amazing..." (Participant C).

Participants indicated that they collaborate directly and indirectly with curriculum advisors (CAs). Concerning the direct collaboration teacher participants reported that teachers work together with CAs during classroom visits. As for the collaboration process, teachers deliver lessons and the CAs evaluate, identify teachers' weaknesses and suggest strategies for improvement. As for indirect collaboration teachers are required to submit their files, learners' books and portfolios to their HODs. Participants also indicated that the CAs' visits are quarterly scheduled by the District Office to visit the school in order to monitor teachers' implementation of the content and the type of support they give to their learners. They further mentioned that very often the CAs did not consider the fact that they had overcrowded classes. Instead, they only find faults with the way the lessons are delivered. Participants reported that this judgment made them to feel as if they have failed in their teaching performance. The following excerpts provide evidence:

"...our CAs send dates of their visits to the school and they state exactly what they want...they want my file, learner books and portfolios...CAs come to check if we are teaching according to CAPS..." (Participant A).

"I get worried when the CAs are coming...they want teacher files and learners' files to be correctly done...sometimes they sit in our classes" (Participant B).

"...for CAs evidence of how and what we have taught is important for them, they do not understand how it feels to teach forty learners in one classroom..." (Participant C).

As far as collaboration with learner support teachers is concerned participants indicated that they co-teach with them. Unanimously, they reported that they invite learner support teachers

in their classrooms when they are unable to support learners in need and plan lessons to be taught with them. As for teaching procedure, they showed that they deliver the lesson to the whole class while the learner support teacher is working with a group of learners in need. This implies that they share classroom management and responsibilities, each of them conducting specific activities based on his/her performance skills, to ensure that all learners are included in the lesson. Participants felt positive about working with the learner support teacher. The following extracts from the interviews reflect this:

“...I work with learner support teacher when I do not know to support a learner, I ask her to come and show me how to teach a particular learner...” (Participant A).

“...we meet before she comes to my class and discuss my learner problem and how we can teach to accommodate a learner...” (Participant B).

“...our learner support is helpful...I struggle to teach some learners...she comes to my class and support learners with barriers...” (Participant C)

The following observations of the co-teaching procedure shows that while the class teacher was delivering the lesson on multiplication theoretically, she also introduced different methods learners can use to multiply and she encouraged them to study their multiplication timetable. The learner support teacher was practically working with a group of five boys and three girls using Coca Cola caps and repeating the methods learners could use to multiple. After a good practice with the examples, then came time for an exercise. The class teacher again wrote five activities on the board for the whole class and learners were also encouraged to work with a partner. The class teacher moved around the classroom assisting learners who were struggling a little, while the learner support teacher was assisting the group for the entire period.

Similarly, the data collected from the reflective discussion between the researcher and one of the participants confirmed all the participants' perceptions and the researcher's observations about co-teaching at the school.

As far as working with the learner support teacher is concerned, one of the participants reported that the learner support teacher is very good in working with learners and that it is always a pleasure working with him/her. Furthermore, the participant mentioned that there were always some improvements from learners who had been supported by the learner support teacher. From her own experience the participant added that it was not the first time she worked with the learner teacher. The following extract describes this experience:

“It was a nice experience, I always enjoy working with our learner support teacher...it was not the first time, I invited her...there is some improvement...” (Participant A).

4.5 Barriers to collaboration practice

The data collected to understand teachers’ collaboration practices have not only provided benefits. The data indicated that participants were experiencing challenges that prevented them from collaborating with their colleagues, other support personnel and parents. These barriers include the lack of parental involvement, the delay in the referral process, time constraints, top-down approach (protocol), lack of trust, difficult personalities and resistance to organizational change.

4.5.1 Lack of parental involvement

As far as barriers to collaboration are concerned participants reported lack of parental involvement as one of the challenges that hindered collaboration between teachers and parents. Participants believed that some parents work long hours, they leave their home in the early hours of each day and return home late; therefore, they are unable to attend teacher-parent meetings or to support their children at home. The following extracts from the interviews confirm this:

“...some they care and come when they are called for a meeting, some just do not have time for meetings” (Participant A).

“...some write letters apologizing saying they knock off late at work, some of the parents there is no apology they just don’t pitch” (Participant B).

“... some used to say they do not have time because they come home late after work...some parents, judging from the appearance, are alcoholics, some come to school drunk” (Participant C).

One of the participants reported that some parents believed that educating their children is the duty of teachers only. This negative belief that parents possessed can be attributed to the fact that parents do not know how to help their children with school work and they do not believe that they can have a positive influence on their children’s education. In this regard, one of the teacher participants reported that the negative attitude that she received made it difficult for her to work with some parents.

“...Some parents just do not want to hear that their children cannot write and they say it is my job to teach them how to write” (Participant B).

Another participant reported that when parents change their contact details and do not inform the school, it makes it difficult for her to communicate with them. Such situations resulted in parents missing teacher-parent meetings.

“...but sometimes you realize that the parent changed his or her cellphone number, I usually send an older learner staying in the same area as the parent to ask for the recent contacts” (Participant C).

4.5.2 Delays in referral process

Another barrier the data revealed are the delays in the referral process. It was observed that it hindered collaboration between teachers and the SBST. One of the participants reported that the number of learners who needed extra support was increasing every day at the school; therefore, the SBST was overloaded with learners' cases. Another participant considering the above claim added that this phenomenon was the cause of extension of the waiting period for teachers to get a chance to present their learners' cases to the SBST. Another one reported that it took about two weeks before she was called to present her learners' cases. This situation seemed to have frustrated her as she had to continue to teach the content prescribed by Curriculum Assessment Policy Statement (CAPS) while some students were struggling to grasp the previous content.

“...the number of learner cases sent to them is increasing daily” (Participant A).

“It depends on how busy they are; sometimes it takes two weeks or more...” (Participant C).

Besides the above-mentioned causes of delay in the referral process, one of the teacher participants reported that the support personnel such as the psychologists work in solo when supporting learners with barriers to learning. This also hindered collaboration between teachers and psychologists because with the increase of referrals psychologists delay in producing learner interventions.

“Psychologist takes a learner out of classroom and helps him or her using psychological assessments” (Participant C).

4.5.3. Top-down approach (protocol)

Apart from lack of parental involvement and delays in the referral process teacher participants indicated that the SBST protocol also hindered their collaboration. They reported that they had urgent cases, but they were unable to collaborate with the SBST as they had to wait to be called. Furthermore, all the participants reported that the solo decisions taken by the SBST hindered their collaboration. These include decisions such as when to refer learners to psychologists and or other support personnel for further support.

“I think, the biggest constraint is staying within the work channels. If I have a problem that needs to be attended to, I would have to go straight to the deputy or principal which is a process and might take long rather than me going straight to the teacher which I know would be able to help me with the problem.. We as educators are even lazy to present the learner’s case to the SBST” (Participant D).

“We can teach and understand children’s problems but we cannot solve social ills. Security is an issue in our townships. We have managed though to make sure that we collaborate with other organisations. We accommodate children with disabilities and we have a unit class. Our working relations with Noluthando School for the Deaf are good. We work smart with people. I am also proud that we have a learning environment that is conducive to learning” (Participant F).

4.5.4 Difficult personalities

According to the participants, some educators in the school had difficult personalities and that hindered them from collaborating with them. It was reported that most of the time other educators were not keen to work with certain individuals. The following excerpts provide evidence of this:

“One would not want to work with another because of their own personalities. You would find that educators bring their personal problems and bring them to school”. (Participant F).

“The difficult behaviour that some of us presents is what get in the way of collaboration” (Participant D).

“Some of us are lazy to doing the necessary paper work when it comes to the learner because we see it is as too much work or too much of a process which then results to us pushing children further to the next grade” (Participant E).

4.5.5 Lack of trust

The participants believed that collaboration or all interactions with other people involve a level of trust, especially with your colleagues. A lack of trust has been identified as one of the barriers to collaborative practice in the school. The participants reported that some educators in the school were less inclined to rely on other people or share ideas with other educators.

“Some individuals do not trust processes and other people. They do not want to take or give any advice in meetings” (Participant D).

“I do not like to collaborate with people. I avoid the risk of disappointment. Also, I do not want to expose myself” (Participant F).

4.5.6 Resistance to organizational change

According to the participants, inclusive education needs individuals in the organization to adopt new values and begin working in new ways. All participants indicated that some individuals in the school resist change and as a result they do not want to associate themselves with people that discuss issues who relate to inclusive practices.

“There is a camp that does not participate in any discussions or planning that relate to addressing barriers to learning” (Participant D).

4.5.7 Lack of support

Lack of support from the Department of Education was described as one of the barriers to collaboration practice in the school. The participants seem to value the inputs from the departmental officials. The participant believed that the inclusion of learners demands an integrated support system. As one participant indicated:

“We do not always get the support we need from the Department. Our children are dealing with complex and serious social problems. These affect teaching and learning. We need social workers and psychologists that are available for us” (Participants D)

4.6 Benefits of collaboration

Besides the barriers presented and analyzed in the section above, the data revealed teacher participants viewed collaboration as a beneficial practice for them and for their learners. They claimed that their collaboration practices improved their learners’ performances, lessened their workload, and serves as a source of motivation. The following *Table 4.6* provides a summary of the perceived benefits.

Table 4.6: Summary of perceived benefits

Learner improvement	Less workload	Source of motivation
Many learners have improved their reading and numeric skills and were motivated and confident in class.	Participants felt positive about creative solutions when collaborating and this saved a lot of time and made their work easier	Teachers share their school experiences and motivate each other.

Based on the improved learner performance benefit presented in the above Table 4.6, the participants felt confident in addressing diverse needs in their classrooms. They also noticed that learners’ self-esteem was improved along with the improvement of their academic performance. Consequently, teacher participants’ attitude towards learners with learning barriers changed positively. Furthermore, the data indicated that teachers’ attitudes changed positively towards working with their colleagues. The participants reported that working with their colleagues saved them a lot of time and energy as they share creative solutions to problems. They viewed the benefits of collaboration as a source of their motivation to support their learners in their classrooms.

4.7 Facilitators of collaboration practice

Most participants in the study reported that strong leadership enables collaborative practice in their school. They claimed that they have leaders who drive and encourage the development

of collaborative practice and hold educators accountable for their performance in working collaboratively. The participants also reported that their leaders support them to attend meetings and communicate regularly with stakeholders. One of the participants said:

“Give people work to do. Do not take everything upon yourself. Know the characters you are dealing with, place them accordingly to what they do best, and enjoy most. Give the teachers opportunity to lead and manage their projects. Provide them with as much information as you can. After doing so you will see the collaboration”
(Participant D).

A shared understanding of the nature of the problem, which the collaboration is intended to address, has been described as key to successful collaboration in the school. According to the participants, clear communication about procedures and processes to be followed facilitated collaboration. As two participants indicated:

“What I have noticed that facilitates this collaboration is that when teachers do not understand something, there is resistance. The moment they know how to do something, and they fully understand the idea of something, what it is all about then it is easy for them to buy it. They will not buy it when they do not understand what it is about because it is not clear to them. As soon as it becomes clear to them, it becomes easier to collaborate” (Participant D)

“Once you impose ideas, that's where one would find that there is a lack of collaboration. People must have a clear understanding of what you bring to the table and to trust one another, that's when it will be easier to collaborate with each other”
(Participant F).

All participants in the study believed that unity and teamwork helped them to collaborate effectively.

“At this school we are very fortunate because we are one. We do not have cliques, we are one which makes it easier for everyone to approach each other. Another thing that adds on to making collaboration easier is that educators are not only placed in

one grade for a long time. We rotate grades which makes it easy for us as educators to get to know one another and not get used to only one educator. We then use this process to share experiences. This process also helps us get to know each other better, we get to know how we can approach one another and understanding one other strengths and weaknesses. One thing we also respect very much is to add value to the community and children. We put our personal differences aside. We focus on finding talent in the learner and nurturing it. Our main aim is building the children". (Participant D).

"What makes this possible is that we analyse each other to see who is better at what? which makes it easier to approach them in this regard. Fortunately, we have assistants, so it is not problematic for an educator to step out and helping where they are needed" (participant E).

The participants also believed the following factors have facilitated their collaboration in their school: trust, strengths, attitudes and willingness to share knowledge and to work together.

They reported that their colleagues were always willing to assist each other. This indicates that there is a culture of sharing at the school. They believed in sharing information for the benefit of their learners. This is what the participant reported:

"...we advise and ask whatever that we struggle with in our classrooms" (Participant A).

"...they are always willing to help and I also help when they ask for help" (Participant B).

"...Other teachers have experience and they share how they have resolved some issues..." (Participant C).

One of the participants reported that knowing her colleagues' strengths enabled her to collaborate with them. Furthermore, she claimed that two important skills, namely, self-introspection and honesty had enabled her to work with her colleagues. The following extracts illustrate the participants' views:

"...we know each other's strengths so we help each other...what I can say self-introspection and honesty is very important, it is important to ask for help for the benefit of learner" (Participant B).

“...many learners have different challenges, so alone I cannot meet all learner needs”
(Participant A).

“I have learnt that alone I will never be able to assist every child with his or her diverse needs therefore I need help and I do not want to lie she is very helpful” (Participant C).

4.8 CONCLUSION

This chapter presented and interpreted the data that was collected from three female Foundation Phase teachers through interviews, reflective discussions and observations. The data was organized into the following themes: (a) biographical characteristics of the participants; (b) perceptions of the school context; (c) conceptualisation of collaboration; (d) collaboration practices; (e) barriers to collaboration; (f) benefits of collaboration and, (g) facilitators of collaboration. All the participants in this study understood collaboration as consultation and team work and they highlighted that both teacher and learners benefitted in their collaboration practices. For learners the participants noticed an academic improvement which served as a motivation for them to work together. They also believed that their school was an inclusive school and that their positive attitude towards working with others facilitated their collaboration practices. However, all participants highlighted some barriers to their collaboration practices, such as lack of parental involvement, delay in the referral process and a top-down approach. Furthermore, contradictions and similarities between the participants' perceptions of their collaboration practices and the researcher's observations had been highlighted.

CHAPTER 5

DISCUSSION

5.1 INTRODUCTION

As indicated in chapter one, the aim of this study was to develop narratives of teachers' trajectories of collaboration in developing inclusive pedagogies. Through Thematic Analysis and Cultural-Historical Activity Theory chapter four presented the data of this study. This chapter discusses findings using current literature on collaboration for inclusive education. Since CHAT underpins this study, it is appropriate to situate the discussion with this particular approach. In two principles of CHAT, namely; multi-voicedness and contradictions that perceptions of collaboration, school-initiated collaboration practices and Department owned collaboration practices are situated. Therefore, this chapter is divided into three sections; the first section discusses perceptions of collaboration; the second section discusses school-initiated collaboration practices; and the last section discusses Department owned collaboration practices.

5.2 PERCEPTIONS OF COLLABORATION

The findings from this study revealed that all participants had different views of what is collaboration. Some understood collaboration as teamwork and others understood it as consultation with parents and experts inside and outside their school. Similar to the finding of this study, Murawski (2010) conducted a study and discovered that ever since the introduction of collaboration in schools, there has been a misconception that collaboration is occurring every time two or more professionals interact. Richards (2016) added that in his experience collaboration has been used interchangeable with teaming and consultation. Research done by Nel, Engelbrecht, Nel and Tlale (2013) and Schoeman (2012) in South African in several schools revealed that the majority of teachers did not understand the concept of collaboration instead they used it interchangeable with the referral process of learners to other professionals, inclusive education and as working together as a team. The participants in this study seemed to have a narrow understanding of what is collaboration.

The participants' understanding of collaboration lacks the most important components of collaboration such as voluntary exchange of expertise and experience, agreement to view each other as equal with diverse and needed expertise, mutual agreement on goals, and shared

responsibility, resources and accountability as indicated by the following authors: Friend and Cook (2010), Dove and Honigsfeld (2010), Milteniene and Venclovaite, (2012), Taylor, Smiley, and Richards (2015), Zagona, Kurth and Macfarland (2017), Shakenova (2017) and Richards, Frank, Sableski and Arnold (2016). The above authors seemed to have broader understanding of collaboration (Richards, 2016; Da Fonte & Barton-Arwood, 2017; Green & Johnson, 2015; Friend & Cook, 2010; Dove & Honigsfeld, 2010; Milteniene & Venclovaite, 2012; Taylor et al., 2015; Zagona et al., 2017; Shakenova, 2017; Richards et al., 2016). Richards (2016) understood consultation and teaming as part of the collaboration process, while, Da Fonte and Barton-Arwood (2017) contend that collaboration is more than just working together. The participants' gap in knowledge can be attributed to their initial training. As indicated in chapter three, all participants were trained to teach in public ordinary schools. Participants' different understanding of collaboration did not hinder them from collaborating with others.

5.3 COLLABORATION PRACTICES

5.3.1 School-initiated collaboration practices

The findings of this study revealed that participants participated in intra-organizational collaboration practices initiated by their school. Intra-organizational collaboration, as indicated in chapter two, involves teams that brainstorm ways of accommodating all learners in general classroom by resolving barriers to learning before they develop into severe ones (Anderson-Butcher & Ashton, 2004; Diamond & Rush, 2012; Cha & Ham, 2012; Harris, 2010). Intra-organization team at this particular school included teacher assistant teams; teachers of the same phase, and parents.

The culture of this particular school seemed to promote collaboration among teachers, in which they share resources and responsibilities and they commit themselves to reaching the common goals. A school culture according to Hargreaves, Nakhoda, Mottay, and Subramoney (2012) is a school environment where teachers exchange ideas and experiences in everyday activities. This is consistent with research conducted by Avalos-Bevan and Bascope (2017) that found that teachers perceived that their school tended to be shaped by collaboration among staff, parents and learner participation in school affairs through shared responsibility and commitment to common goals. The principal of this particular school supported inclusion and this is considered by Donohue and Bornman (2014) as contributing to the successful inclusion of learners with learning barriers. All participants in this study seemed to have developed

interdependent relationships with their colleagues and parents during their school's-initiated collaboration practices because they participated voluntarily and their interactions were cooperative and not competitive.

5.3.1.1 Collaboration between teachers and their colleagues

Within intra-organizational collaboration, the results of this study revealed that the participants collaborated with teacher assistance teams. Teacher assistance teams consist of teachers and other support personnel, either elected or voluntary, whose roles are to raise problems, and discuss and develop solutions together with their diverse skills and experiences (Markle, Splett, Maras & Weston, 2014). It was revealed in this study that the participants collaborated in their classrooms with teacher assistants who were employed by the Department of Education (DoE) and some by the non-government organizations (NGOs). This is consistent with the research conducted by Giangreco, Suter, and Doyle (2010) and Hedegaard-Soerensen, Jensen, and Borglum (2018) when they found that teachers work with teacher assistants to support learners with learning disabilities.

In line with the study conducted by Giangreco et al., (2010), the results of this study revealed that participants had different views about planning with teacher assistants. Some teachers did not include teacher assistants when planning while others planned with their teacher assistants. Giangreco et al., (2010) discovered that there is a continuous disagreement about planning and adapting educational activities with teacher assistants. The participants' different views could be influenced by their past professional and personal experiences as suggested by Engestrom, (2015). Even though all participants in this study had different views, they felt positive about working with teacher assistants and they perceived their collaboration as helpful for both teachers and learners. Similarly, Ronfeldt, Famer and McQueen (2015); Giangreco et al. (2010) and Hedegaard-Soerensen et al. (2018) discovered that the majority of teachers' value teacher assistants and regarded instructional teams as helpful.

The results of this study also revealed that within intra-organizational collaboration, teachers collaborated formally and informally with other teachers in the same (Foundation) Phase. Formally, teachers collaborate during Foundation Phase meetings (Grades R-3) in which they plan lessons and share and implement information received from workshops. Informally, teachers seek advice from their colleagues anytime during the day. This is consistent with the study conducted by Avalos-Bevan and Bascope (2017) who found that teachers tend to engage more frequently in informal collaboration such as informal discussions and conversations

among themselves about learning results of specific learners. Suc, Bukovec and Karpljuk (2017) and Nel et al., (2013) agree with this finding as they discovered that some teachers collaborate formally as well as informally through teamwork in their schools when supporting one another. Avalos-Bevan and Bascope (2017) added that primary school teachers participated more frequently in all types of school-based collaboration including joint lesson preparation as compared to high school teachers. Furthermore, Nel et al. (2013) confirmed that teachers collaborated formally during grade, subject, and school assessment teams, and SBST meetings and informally teachers discussed with colleagues during intervals.

All participants of this study felt positive about their collaboration with their colleagues. They perceived their collaboration practices to have enabled them to share their experiences and learn from each other. Suc et al., (2017) supports this finding as they discovered that teachers favored working with their colleagues and they regard their collaboration as often beneficial. Similarly, studies conducted by Milteniene and Venclovaite (2012), Shakenova (2017) and Eccleston (2010) argue that as teachers share knowledge; they develop missing skills and become more competent and creative in providing flexible and considered support for their learners. A study conducted by De Vries, Jansen and Van de Grift (2013) in Netherlands and a study conducted by Hargreaves et al., (2012) and Nel, Tlale, Engelbrecht and Nel (2016) in South Africa also contended that collaborating with colleagues both inside and outside the school helped to improve confidence and provided feedback from colleagues that helped in generating new ideas and resolving challenges. Contrary to this finding, Avalos-Bevan and Bascope (2017) found that teachers in their study preferred working alone than preparing lessons with their colleagues or engaging in co-teaching.

5.3.1.2 Collaboration between teachers and parents

The results of this study revealed that all participants collaborated with parents in supporting learners, especially those who were experiencing barriers to learning, during teacher-parent meetings. This type of collaboration is what Anderson-Butcher and Ashton (2004) called ‘family-centered collaboration’. This type of collaboration views children, youth and parents as experts in deciding what kind of services and support learners need (Anderson-Butcher and Ashton, 2004; Hornby & Lafaele, 2011; Hay & Raymond, 2013; Goodall & Montgomery, 2014; Epstein, Sanders, Sheldon, Simon, Salinas, Jansorn, ... & Hutchins, 2018; LaRocque, Kleiman & Darling, 2011). This finding is consistent with other research conducted by Nel, et al. (2013); Engelbrecht, Savolainen, Nel, Koskela and Okkolin (2017); and Adams, Harris, and Jones

(2016) that discovered teachers collaborate with parents when supporting learners with learning challenges. Furthermore, Schultz, Able, Sreckovic and White (2016) support this finding as they viewed collaboration between parents and teachers as the foundation for support.

All the participants valued parents' opinions and they perceived collaboration with parents to be beneficial for teachers and the inclusion of learners. The participants claimed that they get to know their learners better and learners get motivated to learn. Similarly, a study conducted by Adams et al. (2016) and Garcia and Thornton (2014) revealed that parents helped teachers to better understand the learners. Likewise, Grant and Ray (2010) are of the view that certain teachers benefit from the extra support and individualized attention that families give their children, whether it is volunteering in the classroom or helping at home. Furthermore, Hall and Wurf (2018); Walton (2011) and Schultz et al. (2016) support the above study finding as they stated that parental involvement benefits the family, teachers and learners. Parent-teacher collaboration impact positively on learner's academic performance and involvement in organized groups and friendships (Hall& Wurf, 2018; Walton, 2011; Schultz et al., 2016).

5.3.2 Department owned collaboration practices

Apart from school-initiated collaboration practices, this study results revealed that participants participated in interagency collaboration practices that were initiated by the Department of Education. Interagency collaboration according to Anderson-Butcher and Ashton (2004) and McLean (2012) occurs when two or more independent organizations, usually with different mission, agree to work together towards a common goal and are sent to work in different environment. For schools to be able to provide sufficient support to all learners, Anderson-Butcher and Ashton (2004) and McLean (2012) believed that professionals trained in special areas should collaborate with teachers in school-based or school-linked programs when supporting learners. The interagency collaboration in this study includes, as indicated in chapter four, collaboration with the DBST and with the SBST. This study's results revealed that the DBST comprises of health and welfare workers employed by the DoE such as; psychologists, learner support teachers, teachers from the SSRs and the curriculum advisors. This is in-line with what Engelbrecht et al. (2017); Makhalemele and Nel (2015) and Makoelle (2014b) asserted to be the composition of a DBST. Furthermore, this study's results revealed that the SBST comprise of teachers within the school, the school management team, the DBST and parents. This is consistent with what Engelbrecht et al. (2017) and Makhalemele and Nel (2015) declare as the composition of a SBST.

5.3.2.1 Collaboration with DBST

The findings of this study revealed that teachers collaborated with the DBST via the SBST. Collaboration between the DBST and SBST is a mandate of the Department of Education to strengthen educational support (Daniels, 2010; Donohue & Bornman, 2014; Nel et al., 2016; Makhalemele & Nel, 2015). Therefore, the school had no choice but had to conform. The DBST played two crucial roles at this particular school. Firstly, the DBST supports the SBST with severe learner cases that they are unable to address and, secondly, the DBST monitors the effectiveness of SBST and suggests ways to improve. This finding is confirmed by the DoE (2005), Makhalemele and Nel (2015), Nel et al. (2016), Engelbrecht et al. (2017), and Schoeman (2012) as they declare that the primary function of the DBST is to support teachers and learners in all schools in identifying and addressing barriers to learning and to monitor this support as this will ensure effective teaching and learning.

Although Makhalemele and Nel (2015); Nel et al. (2014) and Schoeman (2012) discovered that the DBST struggle to function within an inclusive education environment, this study finding suggests that the school had a functioning DBST. Nel et al. (2016) support this finding as they discovered that teachers were collaborating with the DBST by referring learner cases that they were unable to resolve at school level and the DBST assisted the SBST and also monitored the effectiveness of the SBST (Nel et al., 2016).

The findings of this study revealed that the Department of Education (DoE) scheduled the DBST workshops and school visits in which they train a large group of teachers in short-term courses. Walton (2011) agrees with this finding as he stated that there is evidence that teachers are enrolled in workshops. This finding is consistent with Makhalemele and Nel (2015) who declared that the DBST is expected to continuously train teachers to ensure that they make the curriculum accessible to all learners. For Donohue and Bornman (2014); and Govender (2018) successful implementation of inclusive education (IE) requires adequate training, sufficient support and positive attitudes. However, Engelbrecht et al. (2015) and Govender (2018) stated that the professional development training of teachers in South Africa is inadequate as it tends to be fragmented and short-term, lacks in-depth content knowledge, and focuses more on a deficit-oriented approach to intrinsic barriers to learning. Furthermore, Engelbrecht et al. (2015) added that preparation of professional training does not consider the unique extrinsic contextual influences that impact on the way in which the school functions.

Unfortunately, the Department of Education is still using the traditional forms of professional development that views teachers as passive recipients of research-based classroom practices (Waldron & McLeskey, 2010). The traditional form of professional development is ineffective as it assumes that teachers will conform and apply the information they receive in workshops, with little or no need to consider contextual factors (Waldron & McLeskey, 2010). It also violates teachers' rights to participate in decision in their school with a collaborative culture (Waldron & McLeskey, 2010). This form of professional development seemed to force schools to participate even though the Department of Education did not consult schools to check for their support needs. Therefore, there is a contradiction between the collaborative culture practiced at the research site of this study and the traditional form of professional development.

The study results also revealed that training for the participants took place during continuous professional development workshops with regard to the implementation of IE and it was conducted in school and at the Cape Teaching and Leadership Institute (CTLI). Nel et al. (2016), Makhamele and Nel (2015) and Green and Moodley (2018) support this finding because they discovered that teacher training with regard to IE takes place at different levels including continuing professional development and initial teacher education. The participants in this study collaborated with IE teams during workshops at their school in which the IE team demonstrate strategies that the team believed were best in supporting learners experiencing barriers to learning. Consistent with this finding, Nel et al. (2016), Makhamele and Nel (2015) and Green and Moodley (2018) asserted that the DBST has the responsibility of providing illustrative learning programs to ensure that teachers make the curriculum accessible to all learners. Similarly, Dejana (2013) is of the view that support professionals collaborated with teacher through workshops, and through consultation about individual work with parents and students.

This study results also revealed that teachers collaborated with teachers from other schools during CTLI workshops in which they get trained on different issues such as integration of technology in their everyday teaching, and the use of assistive devices such as braille and audio devices. Similarly, a study conducted by Themane and Thobeja (2018) confirm that teachers collaborate with neighbouring schools to assist each other in the implementation of IE. Reyneke, Meyer and Nel (2010) concur with the above finding that support services directed to teachers is not only about teaching practices but also about the infusion of technology into their teaching practices.

Furthermore, this study results revealed that teachers at this particular school collaborated with teachers from SSRCs during workshops in which they were trained on different issues such as teaching strategies that accommodates diversity. Makhalemele and Nel (2015), Green and Moodley (2018) and Landsberg (2011) supports this finding as they stated that the main responsibility of the SSRC is to provide specialized professional support and resources to full-service and mainstream schools on a number of issues, such as early identification, curriculum, assessment and instruction modifications.

This study results revealed that teachers felt positive and appreciated the support they received from the DBST. Contrary to this finding, Makhalemele and Nel (2015) discovered that teachers regarded the DBST as inadequately skilled in supporting them or learners who experience barriers to learning in inclusive schools. Makhalemele and Nel (2015) found that teachers needed more support from the DBST with regard to training, monitoring and supervision.

This study results revealed that teachers at this particular school co-teach with learning support educators (LSEs). Nel et al. (2016) asserted that LSEs are expected to help with regard to the identification and support of learners experiencing barriers to learning. The DoE (2005) mandated LSEs to establish partnerships, provide teacher professional development, support the SBST and networking with community role players.

Several authors defined co-teaching, also known as cooperative teaching or team teaching, as a strategy that involves direct collaboration between the general education and special education teachers or support personnel who combine their expertise and jointly deliver a lesson to meet the needs of a diverse group of students in the same classroom (Tzivinikou, 2015; David, 2014; Miltenienė & Venclovaitė, 2012; Solis, Vaughn, Swanson, & Mcculley, 2012; Murawski & Lochner, 2011; Sileo, 2011; Takala, Uusitalo-Malmivaara, 2012; Taylor, Smiley and Richards, 2015; Friend, Cook, Hurley-Chamberlain, & Shamberger, 2010). The above authors argue that for co-teaching relationships to be successful the school administrators should create suitable timetables that will enable co-teachers to frequently meet and discuss the lesson objectives, teaching strategies and assessment methods they will use to deliver the lesson (Tzivinikou, 2015; David, 2014; Miltenienė & Venclovaitė, 2012; Murawski & Lochner, 2011; Sileo, 2011; Taylor et al., 2015; Friend et al., 2010). The relationships between co-teachers should be based on mutual respect and willingness to acknowledge each other's expertise (David, 2014; Miltenienė & Venclovaitė, 2012). Co-teachers should have good communication and problem-solving skills as these skills will help them in handling

disruptive behaviors of learners and when informing parents about their co-teaching arrangements (Tzivnikou, 2015; David, 2014; Miltenienė & Venclovaitė, 2012; Murawski & Lochner, 2011; Sileo, 2011; Taylor et al., 2015; and Friend et al., 2010).

Smith (2006) believed, however, that there has to be an interdependent relationship between co-teachers and their roles are to raise problems and discuss and develop solutions together with their diverse skills and experience. The results of this study revealed that only the learner support teacher had solutions to the problems raised by the general teacher. The findings of this study also revealed that the general teacher delivered instructions while the learner support teacher worked with a small group of learners in class. Pancsofar and Petroff (2016) agree with this finding as they stated that co-teaching varies in nature ranging from methods in which one teacher delivers instruction to the whole class to more collaborative team-based approaches in which there is shared responsibility for planning and instruction. The model that co-teachers used in this study is what Tzivnikou, (2015) and Taylor et al., (2015) called alternative teaching. In this model, one co-teacher teaches a separate group of students for a specific purpose while the other co-teacher works with the remainder of the class (Tzivnikou, 2015 and Taylor et al., 2015).

This study results revealed that participants had a positive attitude towards the learner support teacher as it was not their first-time co-teaching and they perceived their co-teaching to be beneficial for both teachers and learners. Teachers gain knowledge that improve their skills and that they noticed improvement on learner performance. Similarly, a study conducted by Pancsofar and Petroff (2016) discovered that teachers regarded co-teaching as beneficial to learner outcomes and professional growth of teachers. Furthermore, Pancsofar and Petroff (2016) revealed that teachers with more experience in co-teaching tend to be slightly more positive toward co-teaching than those with less experience.

The results of this study revealed that teachers collaborated with curriculum advisors directly during classroom visits and workshops; and indirectly by submitting teacher files, learner books and portfolios to their HODs. This finding is consistent with findings of Taole (2015), who found that the subject advisors had follow-up visits to school after training to ensure that the curriculum was properly implemented. Taole (201) asserted that the role of subject advisors is to provide teachers with the necessary support in their classrooms and to assist them in alleviating difficulties that teachers encounter in specific learning areas. Findings of this study also revealed that teachers felt judged by CAs instead of feeling supported by the CAs.

5.3.2.2 Collaboration with the school-based support team (SBST)

The results of this study revealed that teachers collaborated with the SBST. The SBST is a mandate of the DoE to all schools (Makoelle, 2014a). Nel et al., (2013) and Nel et al. (2016) support this finding as they discovered that the majority of teachers in their study collaborated with the SBST. The SBST at this particular school supported teachers and learners and monitored the progress of learners and this encouraged the teacher to implement the SBST intervention. Some members of the SBST at this particular school went for training and they had a responsibility of training the whole staff. These findings are in line with the roles of SBST as mandated by the DoE (Engelbrecht et al., 2017; Nel et al., 2013). The SBST is expected to identify and address learner, teacher and schools' needs; develop Individual Support Plan (ISP) for each learner who need it; provide training for teachers; and encourage teachers to collaborate with each other (Engelbrecht et al., 2017; Nel et al., 2013). Furthermore, Landsberg (2011) and Makoelle (2014b) added that the SBST is also responsible to monitor the availability and use of resources between different role players; ensuring parent involvement; planning preventive strategies; and monitoring the learning support progress. Consistent with these findings, Makoelle (2014b) found that the SBST train their staff, however their training was not effective because the SBST members did not evaluate whether the guidelines and manuals they received from the DoE and NGOs were applicable within their school context.

The study results also revealed that all participants felt good and perceived collaborating with the SBST to be helpful as they noticed improvement on learners' academic and social performance. However, the only challenge that the participants perceived to be hindering their collaboration with the SBST was completion of the Special Needs Assessment (SNA) 1 form, which resulted in delays in the referral process. All the participants in this study perceived the SNA form as an addition on top of the administration that they already have. This is consistent with the study conducted by Nel et al. (2016), who found that teachers were reluctant to complete the referral forms. Furthermore Makoelle (2014b) discovered that the SBST at his research site was not effective as it emphasized the administrative roles of the committee instead of inclusive practices.

5.4 Barriers of collaboration

The participants reported some challenges that hindered their collaboration practices. These include lack of parental involvement, delays in the referral process and the top-down approach adopted by the SBST.

All the participants in this study perceived lack of parental involvement as the primary challenge that hindered collaboration between teachers and parents. Nel et al. (2016), Schultz et al. (2016) and Engelbrecht et al. (2017) agree with this finding as they also discovered that the non-involvement of parents was the challenge teachers in their study experienced. Furthermore, Avalos-Bevan and Bascope (2017) and Addi-Racah and Grinshtain (2017) support the above study finding as they discovered that the majority of teachers held negative view on parents as supportive of their children's learning and as assisting them to develop good study habits. Involvement of parents in their children's education requires parents to be dedicated and committed to support their children with homework and constant communication with teachers (Swart & Pettipher, 2011). Lack of parental involvement is attributed to parents' lack of time, skills or resources to support learners at home, and struggle to accept that their children experience barriers to leaning (Schultz et al., 2016; Bezdek, Summers & Turnbull, 2010). Addi-Racah and Grinshtain (2017) discovered that lack of parental involvement is due to the teachers' negative attitude towards parents. Teachers view themselves as experts in education and feel that they deserve more power than parents (Addi-Racah & Grinshtain, 2017). As a result, teachers may be unwilling to cooperate with parents and do not necessarily encourage interacting with them (Addi-Racah & Grinshtain, 2017). As Walton (2011) strongly suggested, parental involvement needs to be actively encouraged by the school. The results of the study revealed that participants encouraged parents to support learners at home. This is consistent with research conducted by Schultz et al. (2016) that found that some teacher in their study had "careful conversations" with parents that encouraged parents to collaborate.

With regard to delays in the referral process and the top-down approach used by the SBST, the participants reported that the number of learners experiencing barriers to learning has increased tremendously at their school. Richards et al. (2016), Richards (2016) and Taylor et al. (2015) called this barrier a pragmatic barrier because the SBST has large caseloads of learners to support which takes time to complete.

5.5 Benefits of collaboration

All participants claimed that their collaboration practices were beneficial for them and their learners. Participants reported that working with their colleagues lessened their workload, developed positive attitudes towards their colleagues and they noticed a massive improvement on their learners' academic performance and self-esteem. This served as a source of motivation for participants to continue working closely together. This finding is consistent with the study findings conducted by Milteniene and Venclovaite (2012), Eccleston (2010), Suc, Bukovec and Karpljuk (2017), Villeneuve and Hutchinson (2012) and Mulholland and O'Connor (2016) who reported that teachers share knowledge and they develop skills and become more competent and creative in providing flexible and needed support for their learners. Similarly, De Vries, Jansen and van de Grift (2013), Suc et al. (2017), Villeneuve and Hutchinson (2012) and Mulholland and O'Connor (2016) reported that teachers' collaboration practices help to improve confidence and help in generating new ideas and resolving challenges. Furthermore, Cox-Petersen (2010), Bojuwoye, Moletsane, Stofile, Moolla and Sylvester (2014), Bryan and Henry (2012), Epstein (2011), Tschannen-Moran (2014), Leornard (2011), Sailor & McCart (2014), Mulholland and O'Connor (2016) and Steyn (2017) reported that learners improve self-confidence, academic performance, and promote acceptable social behaviors when their teachers collaborate.

5.6 Facilitators of collaboration

The participants reported that the following factors enabled them to collaborate with other teachers, support personnel and parents: trust, willingness to share expertise, and knowing each other's strengths. Miltenienė and Venclovaitė (2012) support this finding as they are of the view that teacher collaboration is impossible if teachers are not willing to acknowledge and share their expertise. Richards, Frank, Sableski, and Arnold (2016) and Shakenova (2017) support this finding because they are of the view that sharing resources, knowledge and skills of professionals and parents enable collaboration. Furthermore, knowing each other's professional strengths and weaknesses, and effective communication enables professionals to collaborate effectively (Richards et al., 2016; Suc, Bukovec & Karpljuk, 2017).

5.7 Conclusion

This chapter discussed the study results using literature on collaboration for inclusion. The discussion of this chapter was situated in Cultural-Historical Activity Theory (CHAT), the

theoretical framework of this study. Discussion of perception of collaboration, and collaboration practices were placed within two principles of CHAT namely, multi-voicedness and contradictions.

CHAPTER 6

CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS

6.1 INTRODUCTION

The previous chapter presented a discussion of the findings of this study. This study finding did not only reveal that collaboration practices amongst teachers and other support personnel in a full-service school were successful in many ways, but it also revealed that teachers experienced some challenges which hindered their collaboration practices. This chapter, therefore, makes recommendations on the basis of the findings of this study. Firstly, this chapter presents a summary of findings and then make recommendations. Secondly, this chapter discusses limitations of the study and recommendations for future research. Lastly, the final conclusion of the study is presented.

6.2 SUMMARY OF FINDINGS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

6.2.1 Conceptualisation of collaboration

As indicated in chapter four, the findings of this study revealed that teachers had a different and yet narrow understanding of what it means to collaborate. They understood collaboration as teamwork. The participants' narrow understanding of collaboration is due to the fact that teachers at this particular school are exposed to one form of collaboration, which is intra-organizational collaboration. They only collaborate in teams during phase meetings and co-teaching. Based on this finding, it is recommended that the Education Department and the school should continuously expose teachers to different forms of collaboration, such as interagency, family-centered, inter-professional and community collaboration to broaden their understanding. This can be done at the school in phases in which the information is easily shared.

6.2.2 Collaboration practices

In chapter four, participants in this study reported that they participate in collaboration practices. These include school-initiated collaboration practices and Department owned collaboration practices. In terms of collaboration practices initiated by the school the participants were in favour of working with teacher assistants (TAs). However, they indicated that there was a shortage of these human resources. The participants in this study reported that

TAs are employed on a contract basis to support learners experiencing barriers in reading and mathematics from Monday to Thursday. Although all participants were in favour of working with TAs, they had different views about what working with TAs meant and how it should be practiced. In order to ensure that learners, especially those experiencing barriers to learning are supported on a daily basis and in all subjects, it is recommended that the TAs be employed on a permanent basis for each class and they must be trained to support learners in all subjects. Teachers as well as TAs should be trained continuously within their schools in which the role and responsibilities of each team member should be clearly articulated.

Participants in this study reported that they work formally and informally with their colleagues and that they established productive partnerships with them. They claimed to have established a solid collaborative team in which they work together harmoniously. Through this practice participants reported feelings of empowerment and being valued and supported by their colleagues. In order to sustain these working relations, it is recommended that teachers should continue to create environments where they work collaboratively in decision-making and problem-solving. They should continue with their culture of voluntary sharing expertise and resources. The District officials and the principal should regularly visit and encourage teachers to continue collaborating.

Regarding collaboration with parents, the participants in this study reported that some parents support their learners at home. However, some parents are unable to support their children due to the fact that they work long hours. They further claimed that their school invites parents for teacher-parent meeting at the end of each term to discuss the progress of learners and this enables them to work with parents. The participants reported that they invite parents of learners experiencing barriers to learning to one-on-one meetings where they encourage and suggest strategies parents can adopt when supporting learners at home. This practice seems to be a top-down approach that teacher employ when trying to work with parents. They dictate when and how the parents should be involved in their children's education. Ironically, teachers at this particular school are practicing the top-down approach with parents that they indicated to be frustrating and unfair. Teachers reported feelings of powerless and being unworthy when the Department used this approach and yet they do not consider the feelings of parents.

To accommodate parents who work long hours, it is recommended that teachers together with administrators of the school should find mutually convenient time, or even schedule a phone or video conference with parents. It is also recommended that the school administrator

encourages parents to be involved in the education of their children by sending Short Message Services (SMSes) and flyers advertising academic activities as well as sport activities. According to Garcia and Thornton (2014) it is important to involve parents in learners' sport activities because this will serve as motivation for learners which will ultimately improve academic performance. It is recommended that teachers should use WhatsApp to inform parents about class projects, homework, learner accomplishments, and any concerns that may arise. It is also recommended that prior to the parent-teacher meetings; parents should receive suggested agenda so that they can add issues that they would like to discuss and also be able to prepare questions and suggestions about the issues to be discussed. During the meetings with parents, it is recommended that teachers should not only academics but also they should discuss factors that can affect learning, such as behavioral and social developments, and the learners' strengths and challenges. It is also recommended that teachers should ask parents or guardians for their input about their children's strengths, needs and learning styles, as well as their hopes and dreams for their children. Parents' inputs will better inform teachers about their learners so that they can use appropriate teaching methods to accommodate learners. It is recommended that teachers should discuss with parents about intervention strategies to use to support learners. After the parents' meetings, it is recommended that teachers should thank parents for making the time to attend the meeting. This can be done by writing a letter, email, WhatsApp, or by asking learners to write thank notes to their parents for attending and supporting their learning.

In this study participants reported that they participated in collaboration practices initiated by the Department of Education (DoE). These include collaborating with the inclusive education team (IE team), special schools as resource centers (SSRCs), school-based support team (SBST), learner support teacher, curriculum advisors (CAs), and with other schools during workshops at the Cape Teaching and Leadership Institute (CTLI). All participants in this study were satisfied with the training they received from the DoE, conducted at CTLI and SSRC by the District officials, on how to support and accommodate learners, especially those experiencing barriers to learning as they were learning from each other. They indicated that the workshops enabled them to support their learners experiencing barriers to learning within their classes. However, the participants in this study reported that the entire Department owned activities were scheduled at the District Office and schools get an invitation to be able to attend a particular workshop regardless of their school needs. To accommodate the needs of each school, it is recommended that the school should be given an opportunity to indicate their needs and be trained accordingly.

Regarding collaboration with the SBST the participants felt overloaded with paperwork that needed to be completed before they can get support from the SBST. The participants further reported that they were unable to complete Support Needs Assessment (SNA) 1 form because they did not understand what was required from them. Although the participants claimed that they participated in decision-making and problem-solving during SBST meeting, the researcher observed that teachers were told how to support each learner. To ensure that teachers are able to complete SNA 1 forms, it is recommended that the DoE should continuously train teachers twice a year on how to complete the SNA1 form. It is also recommended that teachers should be given an opportunity, during SBST meetings, to come up with possible solutions to their problem as they are the ones experiencing them. To minimise paperwork, it is recommended that the SNA 1 form be completed using a computer, in which case it will be easy to upload pictures of learner books instead of describing learner challenges.

6.3 Barriers to collaboration

Participants in this study reported that they experienced some challenges when they were collaborating with parents and the school-based support team (SBST). These challenges include lack of parental involvement, delay in the referral process and the top-down approach used by the SBST.

6.3.1 Lack of parental involvement

Participants in this study reported that some parents were not cooperative when they invited them to teacher-parent meetings because they had a belief that educating their children is the duty of the teachers alone. To change this negative belief, it is recommended that the school in partnership with the community organizations should educate parents about the importance and the benefits of being involved in their children's education.

6.3.2 Delays in SBST referral process and top-down approach

The participants in this study reported that the SBST referral process is very slow because the number of referrals has increased tremendously. The participants claimed that this extends the waiting period for teachers to present their learner cases and for learners to be supported as soon as possible. To ensure that learners are supported quickly, it is recommended that the school administrators do not overload SBST members with other school activities and that they must allocate substantial time for SBST meetings. It is also recommended that all members of the SBST should have teacher assistants.

The participants claimed that the SBST is using the top-down approach when collaborating with teachers and this hindered their meaningful collaboration. The participants further reported that they had to wait for their turn no matter how urgent the learner case was. To ensure that urgent cases are prioritised, it is recommended that the SBST should evaluate learner cases and immediately support severe learners.

6.3.3 Benefits of collaboration

Participants claimed to have benefitted in their collaboration practices because they get to share creative solutions with their colleagues. They also reported that they felt motivated and confident in addressing diverse needs of learners in their classrooms. They further reported that they noticed an improvement in learners' self-esteem as well as their academic performance. It is recommended that teacher continue to work closely together as this practice benefits learners and guarantees the successful implementation of inclusive education.

6.3.4 Facilitators of collaboration

Participants reported that having a positive attitude towards working together with colleagues, knowing each other's strengths and willingness to share information facilitated their collaboration practices. It is recommended that teachers at this particular school should groom new teachers into their culture of sharing and acknowledgment of each other's expertise.

6.4 Limitations and implications for further research

The following limitations and the implications for future research are based on the findings of this study. This study is limited in scope, as the study was conducted in only one full-service school (FSS). Therefore, it is recommended that for future research such studies should be expanded to include more FSS. This will enable researchers to compare the results of teachers' experiences of collaboration for inclusion from this study to other teachers in other FSS in the Western Cape Province and in South Africa as a whole. Another limitation of this study is that only six teachers were sampled to participate which makes it difficult to generalise the results to all teachers at this particular FSS. It is recommended, therefore, that for future research the sample size should be bigger. Five of the six participants in this study were females. It may be interesting and beneficial to determine if male teachers have similar experiences about collaboration for inclusion.

6.5 Final Conclusion

The study indicated teachers' collaboration practices in one of the FSSs in the Western Cape Province. Results revealed that teachers have different experiences of collaboration for inclusion. However, all participants in this study have a positive attitude towards collaboration practices initiated by their school and they claim that they work effectively. In this regard, all participants reported that they felt disempowered when they participated in collaboration practices initiated by the Department of Education as it adopted a top-down approach. All participants perceived their collaboration practices as beneficial for them, learners and parents. This suggests that successful inclusion of learners experiencing barriers to learning is possible if teachers continue to collaborate.

This study concludes that if collaboration is the cornerstone for successful implementation of inclusive education in South African schools, the DoE as well as the school needs to train and encourage teachers to collaborate with their colleagues and other support personnel for the benefit of all learners. Based on the lived experiences of all participants in this study, teachers at the sampled FSS should continue with the good work that they are doing of ensuring that all learners who need support are supported.

Reference list

Adams, D., Harris, A., & Jones, M. S. (2016). *Teacher-parent collaboration for an inclusive classroom: Success for every child. Malaysian Online Journal of Educational Sciences, 4(3), 58-72.*

Addi-Racah, A., & Grinshtain, Y. (2017). Forms of capital and teachers' views of collaboration and threat relations with parents in Israeli schools. *Education and Urban Society, 49(6), 616-640.*

Ainscow, M. (2016). Collaboration as a strategy for promoting equity in education: possibilities and barriers. *Journal of Professional capital and community, 1(2), 159-172.*

Ajuwon, P. M., Lechtenberger, D., Griffin-Shirley, N., Sokolosky, S., Zhou, L., & Mullins, F. E. (2012). General Education Pre-Service Teachers Perceptions of Including Students with Disabilities in Their Classrooms. *International Journal of Special Education, 27(3), 100-107.*

Anderson-Butcher, D., & Ashton, D. (2004). *Innovative models of collaboration to serve children, youths, families, and communities. Children and Schools, 26, 39-53.*

Arafeh, J. M., Hansen, S. S., & Nichols, A. (2010). Debriefing in simulated-based learning: facilitating a reflective discussion. *The Journal of perinatal & neonatal nursing, 24(4), 302-309.*

Ary, D., Jacobs, C. L., and Sorensen, C. (2010). *Introduction to research in education (8th ed.)*. Belmont, California: Wadsworth Cengage Learning.

Ateah, C. A., Snow, W., Wener, P., MacDonald, L., Metge, C., Davis, P., & Anderson, J. (2011). Stereotyping as a barrier to collaboration: Does interprofessional education make a difference? *Nurse education today, 31(2), 208-213.*

Atkins, L., & Wallace, S. (2012). *Qualitative research in education*. SAGE publications.

Avalos-Bevan, B. & Bascopé, M. (2017). *Teacher informal collaboration for professional improvement: Beliefs, contexts, and experience. Hindawi Education Research International. DOI: 10.1155/2017/1357180.*

Aykac, S., & Msengi, C. (2019). Influence of Parental Involvement on Students' Success in Title I Charter School in Texas as Perceived by Middle School Principals. *School Leadership Review, 14(1), 6.*

- Babbie, E. R. (2015). *The practice of social research*. Nelson Education.
- Bezdek, J., Summers, J., & Turnbull, A. (2010). *Professionals' attitudes on partnering with families of children and youth with disabilities. Education and Training in ASD and Developmental Disabilities, 45, 356-365.*
- Bless, C., Higson-Smith, C., & Sithole, S. L. (2016). *Fundamentals of social research methods: An African Perspective*. (5th Ed.) Cape Town, South Africa: Juta & Company Ltd. CA: Sage.
- Bloomberg, L. D., & Volpe, M. (2018). *Completing your qualitative dissertation: A road map from beginning to end*. Sage Publications.
- Bojuwoye, O., Moletsane, M., Stofile, S., Moolla, N., & Sylvester, F. (2014). Learners' experiences of learning support in selected Western Cape schools. *South African Journal of Education, 34*(1).
- Bouillet, D. (2013). Some Aspects of Collaboration in Inclusive Education-Teacher's Experiences. *Center for Educational Policy Studies Journal (CEPS Journal), 3*(2), 93.
- Braun, V., & Clarke, V. (2013). *Successful qualitative research: A practical guide for beginners*. sage.
- Braun, V., Clarke, V., Hayfield, N., & Terry, G. (2019). Thematic analysis. *Handbook of Research Methods in Health Social Sciences, 843-860.*
- Bryan, J., & Henry, L. (2012). A model for building school–family–community partnerships: Principles and process. *Journal of counselling & development, 90*(4), 408-420.
- Bryman, A. (2016). *Social research methods*. Oxford university press.
- Cha, Y. K., & Ham, S. H. (2012). Constructivist teaching and intra-school collaboration among teachers in South Korea: An uncertainty management perspective. *Asia Pacific Education Review, 13*(4), 635-647.
- Chataika, T., Mckenzie, J. A., Swart, E., & Lyner-Cleophas, M. (2012). Access to education in Africa: Responding to the United Nations convention on the rights of persons with disabilities. *Disability & Society, 27*(3), 385-398.
- Check, J., & Schutt, R.K. (2012). *Research methods in education*. Thousand Oaks, California: SAGE Publications.

- Chiner, E., & Cardona, M. C. (2013). *Inclusive Education in Spain: How do skills, resources, and support affect regular education teachers' perceptions of inclusion?"* International Journal of Inclusive Education 17(5): 526-541.
- Clarke, V., & Braun, V. (2013). Teaching thematic analysis: Overcoming challenges and developing strategies for effective learning. *The psychologist*, 26(2), 120-123.
- Collinson, V., & Cook, T. F. (2013). Organizational learning: Leading innovations. *International Journal of Educational Leadership and Management*, 1(1), 69-98.
- Cook, L., & Friend, M. (2010). The state of the art of collaboration on behalf of students with disabilities. *Journal of Educational and Psychological Consultation*, 20, 1-8. DOI: 10.1080/10474410903535398.
- Cope, D. G. (2014, January). Methods and meanings: credibility and trustworthiness of qualitative research. In *Oncology nursing forum* (Vol. 41, No. 1).
- Cox-Petersen, A. (2010). *Educational partnership: Connecting schools, families, and the community*. Thousand Oaks: Sage.
- Creswell, J. W. (2014). *A concise introduction to mixed methods research*. SAGE publications.
- Creswell, J. W., & Creswell, J. D. (2017). *Research design: Qualitative, quantitative, and mixed methods approaches*. Sage publications.
- Creswell, J. W., & Poth, C. N. (2017). *Qualitative inquiry and research design: Choosing among five approaches*. Sage publications.
- Creswell, J.W. (2013). *Qualitative inquiry and research design: choosing among five approaches*. (3rd ed.). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.
- Da Fonte, M. A. & Barton-Arwood, S. M. (2017). *Collaboration of general and special education teachers: Perspectives and strategies*. *Intervention in School and Clinic*, 53(2), 99-106.
- Dalton, E.M., Mckenzie, J.A., Kahonde, C. (2012). The implementation of inclusive education in South Africa: Reflections arising from a workshop for teachers and therapists to introduce Universal Design for Learning, *African Journal of Disability* 1 (1), Art. #13, 7 pages. <http://dx.doi.org/104102/ajod.v1i1.13>.
- Daniels, B. (2010). *Developing inclusive policy and practice in diverse contexts: A South African experience*. *School Psychology International* 31(6), 631–643.

David, M. (2014). *What really works in special and inclusive education: Using evidence-based teaching strategies*. London, United Kingdom: Taylor & Francis Ltd.

De Vos, A. S., & Strydom, H. (2011). Intervention research. *Research at grass roots: for the social sciences and human service professions*, 4, 473-489.

De Vos, A. S., Strydom, H, Fouche, C. B. & Delport, C. S. L. (2011). *Research at grass roots: For the social sciences and the human service professions* (4th ed.). Pretoria: Van Schaik.

De Vries, S., Jansen, E. P. W.A & van de Grift, W. J. C. M. (2013). *Profiling teachers' continuing professional development and the relation with their beliefs about learning and teaching*: Teaching and Teacher Education, vol. 33, pp. 78-89.

Dejana, B. (2013). *Some aspects of collaboration in inclusive education-teachers' experiences*. *CEPS Journal* 3 (2), 93-117.

Denscombe, M. (2014). *The good research guide: for small-scale social research projects*. McGraw-Hill Education (UK).

Denzin, N. K. (2010). Moments, mixed methods, and paradigm dialogs. *Qualitative inquiry*, 16(6), 419-427.

Denzin, N. K., & Lincoln, Y. S. (Eds.). (2011). *The Sage handbook of qualitative research*. Sage.

Department of Basic Education. (2010). *Guidelines for Full Service/Inclusive Schools*. Pretoria: Government Printer.

Department of Education. (2001). *White paper six: Special needs education, building an inclusive education and training system*, In: *Education White Paper*. Department of Education. Pretoria, South Africa

Department of Education. (2002). *Developing district support teams*. Guidelines for practice Draft [unpublished manuscript].

Department of Education. (2005). *District-based support teams: Inclusive education conceptual and operational guidelines for the implementation of inclusive education*. Department of Education. Pretoria, South Africa.

Department of Education. (2008). *National strategy on screening, identification, assessment and support*. Pretoria, South Africa.

Department of Education. (2014). *Policy on screening, identification, assessment and support (SIAS)*. Pretoria: Government Printer.

Dettmer, P., Knackendoffel, A., & Thurston, L. P. (2013). *Collaboration, consultation, and teamwork for students with special needs*. Upper Saddle River, NJ: Pearson.

Diamond, J., & Rush, L. (2012). Intra-organisational collaboration in one UK university: potential for change or missed opportunity. *International Journal of Public Sector Management*, 25(4), 287-300.

Donohue, D., & Bornman, J. (2014). *The challenges of realizing inclusive education in South Africa*. *South African Journal of Education*, 34(2), 1-14.

Doody, O., & Noonan, M. (2013). Preparing and conducting interviews to collect data. *Nurse researcher*, 20(5).

Dove, M., & Honigsfeld, A. (2010). ESL coteaching and collaboration: Opportunities to develop teacher leadership and enhance student learning. *TESOL journal*, 1(1), 3-22.

Dreyer, L., Engelbrecht, P., & Swart, E. (2012). Making learning support contextually responsive. *Africa Education Review*, 9(2), 270-288.

Du Toit, N., Eloff, I., & Moen, M. (2014). Effectiveness of the School-Based Support Team within an inclusive South African educational system. *Tydskrif vir Geesteswetenskappe* 54 (2): 341-364.

Eccleston, St. T. (2010). *Successful collaboration: Four essential traits of effective special education specialists*. *The Journal of International Association of Special Education*, 11 (1), 40-47.

Edwards, A. (2011). Building common knowledge at boundaries between professional practices. *International Journal of Educational Research*, 50(1), 33-39.

Engelbrecht, P., & Hay, J. (2018). Creating collaborative partnerships in inclusive schools. In P. Engelbrecht & L. Green (Eds.), *Responding to the challenges of inclusive education in southern Africa* (pp.213-228). Pretoria: Van Schaik.

Engelbrecht, P., Nel, M., Nel, N., & Tlale. (2015). "Enacting understanding of inclusion in complex classroom practices of South African teachers". *South African Journal of Education*, 35(3): 1-10.

Engelbrecht, P., Savolainen, H., Nel, M., & Malinen, O. (2013). How cultural histories shape South African and Finnish teachers' attitudes towards inclusive education: A comparative analysis. *European journal of special needs education*, 28 (3): 305-318.

- Engelbrecht, P., Savolainen, H., Nel, M., Koskela, T., & Okkolin, M. (2017). *Making meaning of inclusive education: Classroom practices in Finnish and South African classrooms. Compare: A Journal of Comparative and International Education, 47(5), 684-702. DOI: 10.1080/03057925.2016.1266927.*
- Engeström, Y. (2015). *Learning by expanding.* Cambridge University Press.
- Engeström, Y., & Sannino, A. (2010). Studies of expansive learning: Foundations, findings and future challenges. *Educational Research Review, 5(1), 1-24.*
- Epstein, J. (2011). *School, family, and community partnership: Preparing educators and improving schools (2nd Ed.).* Boulder, CO: Westview Press.
- Epstein, J. L., Sanders, M. G., Sheldon, S. B., Simon, B. S., Salinas, K. C., Jansorn, N. R., ... & Hutchins, D. J. (2018). *School, family, and community partnerships: Your handbook for action.* Corwin Press.
- Feldman, A. & Weiss, T. (2010). Understanding change in teachers' ways of being through collaborative action research: A cultural-historical activity theory analysis. *Educational Action Research, 18(1), 29-55.*
- Fleer, M., (2010). *Early Learning and Development: Cultural-historical concepts in play.* Cambridge, England: Cambridge University Press.
- Florian, L. (2014). *What counts as evidence of Inclusive Education?* European Journal of Special Needs Education, 29(3), 286-294.
- Florian, L., & Black-Hawkins, K. (2011). Exploring inclusive pedagogy. *British Educational Research Journal, 37(5), 813-828.*
- Foot, K. A. (2014). Cultural-historical activity theory: Exploring a theory to inform practice and research. *Journal of Human Behavior in the Social Environment, 24(3), 329-347.*
- Forlin, C. (2010). *The role of the school psychologist in inclusive education for ensuring quality learning outcomes for all learners. School Psychology International, 31(6), 617-630.*
- Forlin, C., & Chambers, D. (2011). Teacher preparation for inclusive education: Increasing knowledge but raising concerns. *Asia-Pacific Journal of teacher education, 39(1), 17-32.*
- Fouché, C. B., & Delport, C. S. L. (2011). Introduction to the research process (Pp. 61-76). *Research at grassroots: For the social sciences and human service professions. Pretoria: Van Schaik.*

- Fouché, C. B., & Schurink, W. (2011). Qualitative research designs. *Research at grassroots: For the social sciences and human service professions, 4*, 307-327.
- Friend, M. & Cook, L. (2010). *Interactions: Collaboration skills for school professionals*. Upper Saddle River, NJ: Pearson Education Inc.
- Friend, M., Cook, L., Hurley-Chamberlain, D., & Shamberger, C. (2010). *Co-teaching: An illustration of the complexity of collaboration in special education*. *Journal of Education and Psychological Consultation, 20*, 9-27.
- Gale, N. K., Heath, G., Cameron, E., Rashid, S., & Redwood, S. (2013). Using the framework method for the analysis of qualitative data in multi-disciplinary health research. *BMC medical research methodology, 13*(1), 117.
- Garcia, L.E. & Thornton, O. (2014). *The enduring Importance of parental involvement*. <http://Neatoday.org/2014/11/18/the-enduring-importance-of-parentalinvolvement-2/>. Date of access: 13 March 2018.
- Garrison, D. R. (2013). Theoretical foundations and epistemological insights of the community of inquiry. In *Educational communities of inquiry: Theoretical framework, research and practice* (pp. 1-11). IGI Global.
- Garrison, D. R., & Akyol, Z. E. H. R. A. (2013). The Community of Inquiry Theoretical Framework. In *Handbook of distance education* (pp. 122-138). Routledge.
- Geldenhuis, J. L., & Wevers, N. E. J. (2013). Ecological aspects influencing the implementation of inclusive education in mainstream primary schools in the Eastern Cape, South Africa. *South African Journal of Education, 33*(3).
- Giangreco, M. F., Suter, J. C. & Doyle, M. B. (2010). *Paraprofessionals in inclusive schools: A review of recent research*, *Journal of Educational and Psychological Consultation, 20*: 1, 41-57, DOI:10.1080/10474410903535356.
- Gibbs, G. R. (2018). *Analysing qualitative data* (Vol. 6). Sage.
- Glaser, B. G., & Strauss, A. L. (2017). *Discovery of grounded theory: Strategies for qualitative research*. Routledge.
- Govender, S. (2018). *South African teachers' perspectives on support received in implementing curriculum changes*. *South African Journal of Education, 38*(2). 1-12.

- Grant, K. B., & Ray, J. A. (2010). *Home, school, and community collaboration: Culturally responsive family involvement*. Thousand Oaks: Sage.
- Greeff, M. (2011). Information collection: interviewing. (Pp. 341-374). *Research at grass roots: For the social sciences and human service professions*. Pretoria: Van Schaik.
- Green, B. N & Johnson, C. D. (2015). *Interprofessional collaboration in research, education, and clinical practice: working together for a better future*. *J Chiropr Education*, 29(1), 1-10. DOI: 10.7899/JCE-14-36.
- Green, L., & Moodley, T. (2018). Thinking differently about education support. *Responding to the challenges of inclusive education in southern Africa*, 195-212.
- Gregoric, C. (2013). *School-community involvement*. UNESCO-APNIEVE Australia publications.
- Gretschel, P., Ramugondo, E. L., & Galvaan, R. (2015). An introduction to Cultural Historical Activity Theory as a theoretical lens for understanding how occupational therapists design interventions for persons living in low-income conditions in South Africa. *South African Journal of Occupational Therapy*, 45(1), 51-55.
- Haines, S.J., Gross, J. M.S., Blue-Banning, M., Francis, G. L. & Turnbull, A. P. (2015). *Fostering family-school and community-school partnerships in inclusive schools: Using practice as a Guide*. *Research and Practice for Persons with severe Disabilities*, 40(3), 227-239.
- Hall, M. T. & Wurf, G. (2018). *Strengthening school-family collaboration: An evaluation of the family referral service in four Australian schools*. *Australian Journal of Education*, 62(1), 21-35.
- Hamilton-Jones, B. M., & Vail, C. O. (2014). Preparing special educators for collaboration in the classroom: Pre-service teachers' beliefs and perspectives. *International Journal of Special Education*, 29(1), 76-86.
- Hancock, C. L., & Miller, A. L. (2018). Using cultural historical activity theory to uncover praxis for inclusive education. *International Journal of Inclusive Education*, 22(9), 937-953.
- Hanson, J. L., Balmer, D. F., & Giardino, A. P. (2011). Qualitative research methods for medical educators. *Academic pediatrics*, 11(5), 375-386.
- Hargreaves, A. T., Nakhoda, R., Mottay, N., & Subramoney, S. (2012). The collaborative relationship between teachers and occupational therapists in junior primary mainstream schools. *South African Journal of Occupational Therapy*, 42(1), 7-10.

- Harris, M. (2010). Interdisciplinary Strategy and Collaboration: A Case Study of American Research Universities. *Journal of Research Administration*, 41(1), 22-34.
- Hart, C. (2018). *Doing a literature review: Releasing the research imagination*. Sage.
- Hay & Raymond. (2013). In Pienaar, C. F., & Raymond, E. B. (Eds.). *Making Inclusive Education work in classrooms*. Pearson Education South Africa.
- Hedegaard-Soerensen, L., Jensen, C. R., & Borglum, D. M. (2018). *Interdisciplinary collaboration as a prerequisite for inclusive education*. *European Journal of Special Needs Education*, 33(3), 382-395. DOI: 10.1080/08856257.2017.1314113.
- Hennink, M., Hutter, I., & Bailey, A. (2011a). In-depth interviews. *Qualitative research methods*, 108-134.
- Hennink, M., Hutter, I., & Bailey, A. (2011b). *Qualitative research methods*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.
- Herzog, C., Handke, C., & Hitters, E. (2018). Thematic analysis of policy data. *A final version of this text will appear as*.
- Hesjedal, E., Hetland, H., & Iversen, A. C. (2015). Interprofessional collaboration: self-reported successful collaboration by teachers and social workers in multidisciplinary teams. *Child & Family Social Work*, 20(4), 437-445.
- Horn, I. S., & Little, J. W. (2010). Attending to problems of practice: Routines and resources for professional learning in teachers' workplace interactions. *American educational research journal*, 47(1), 181-217.
- Hornby, G. (2011). *Parental involvement in childhood education: Building effective school-family partnerships*. Springer Science & Business Media.
- Hornby, G., & Lafaele, R. (2011). Barriers to parental involvement in education: An explanatory model. *Educational review*, 63(1), 37-52.
- Houghton, C., Casey, D., Shaw, D., & Murphy, K. (2013). Rigour in qualitative case-study research. *Nurse researcher*, 20(4).
- Hussain, M. A., Elyas, T., & Nasseef, O. A. (2013). Research paradigms: A slippery slope for fresh researchers. *Life Science Journal*, 10(4), 2374-2381.
- Igira, F. T., & Gregory, J. (2009). Cultural historical activity theory. In *Handbook of research on contemporary theoretical models in information systems* (pp. 434-454). IGI Global.

- Imel, S. (2011). Writing a literature review. *The handbook of scholarly writing and publishing*, 145.
- Joffe, H. (2012). Thematic analysis. *Qualitative research methods in mental health and psychotherapy*, 1.
- Jones, B. A. (2012). Fostering collaboration in inclusive settings: The special education students at a glance approach. *Intervention in School and Clinic*, 47(5), 297-306.
- Kennedy, S., & Stewart, H. (2012). Collaboration with teachers: A survey of South Australian occupational therapists' perceptions and experiences. *Australian Occupational Therapy Journal*, 59(2), 147-155.
- Ketterlin-Geller, L. R., Baumer, P., & Lichon, K. (2015). Administrators as advocates for teacher collaboration. *Intervention in School and Clinic*, 51(1), 51-57.
- Kivunja, C., & Kuyini, A. B. (2017). Understanding and Applying Research Paradigms in Educational Contexts. *International Journal of higher education*, 6(5), 26-41.
- Kozleski, E. B., Artiles, A., & Waitoller, F. (2014). Translating inclusive education: Equity concerns. *The handbook of special education*, 231-249.
- Kurth, J., & Mastergeorge, A. M. (2012). Impact of setting and instructional context for adolescents with autism. *The Journal of Special Education*, 46(1), 36-48.
- Lai, Y., & Vadeboncoeur, J. A. (2013). The discourse of parent involvement in special education: A critical analysis linking policy documents to the experiences of mothers. *Educational Policy*, 27(6), 867-897.
- Landsberg, E. (2011). Learning support. In E. Landsberg, D. Kruger & N. Nel (Eds), *Addressing barriers to learning: A South African perspective*. 2nd edition. Pretoria: Van Schaik, 69-85.
- LaRocque, M., Kleiman, I., & Darling, S. M. (2011). Parental involvement: The missing link in school achievement. *Preventing School Failure*, 55(3), 115-122.
- Leonard, J. (2011). Using Bronfenbrenner's ecological theory to understand community partnerships: A historical case study of one urban high school. *Urban education*, 46, 987-1010.
- Leont'ev, A. N. (1978). *Activity, consciousness, and personality*. Englewood Cliffs: Prentice-Hall.
- Leont'ev, A. N. (1981). *Problems of the development of the mind*. Moscow: Progress Publishers.
- Lincoln, Y. S. & Guba, E.G. (2013). *The constructivist credo*. Walnut Creek, CA: Left Coast Press.

- Lingo, A. S., Barton-Arwood, S. M., & Jolivet, K. (2011). Teachers working together: Improving learning outcomes in the inclusive classroom-practical strategies and examples. *Teaching Exceptional Children, 43*(3), 6-13.
- Lomofsky, L., & Lazarus, S. (2001). South Africa: First steps in the development of an inclusive education system. *Cambridge Journal of education, 31*(3), 303-317.
- Loreman, T., Deppeler, J., & Harvey, D. (2010). *Inclusive education: Supporting diversity in the classroom*. London and New York: Routledge Falmer.
- Luckner, A. E., & Pianta, R. C. (2011). Teacher–student interactions in fifth grade classrooms: Relations with children's peer behavior. *Journal of Applied Developmental Psychology, 32*(5), 257-266.
- Maguire, M., & Delahunt, B. (2017). Doing a thematic analysis: A practical, step-by-step guide for learning and teaching scholars. *AISHE-J: The All Ireland Journal of Teaching and Learning in Higher Education, 9*(3).
- Mahlo, F., & Condy, J. M. (2016). Learning support in inclusive education settings. In N Pasha & J. Condy (Eds), *Inclusive education: an African perspective*. Cape Town: Oxford University Press.
- Makhalemele, T. & Nel, M. (2015). *Challenges experienced by district-based support teams in execution of their functions in a specific South African province*. *International Journal of Inclusive Education, DOI: 10.1080/13603116.2015.1079270*.
- Makhalemele, T. J. (2011). *The changing role of district–based education support services in establishing the inclusive school settings: an ecosystemic approach* (Doctoral dissertation, North-West University).
- Makoelle, T. M. (2012). The state of inclusive pedagogy in South Africa: A literature review. *Journal of Sociology and Social Anthropology, 3*(2), 93-102.
- Makoelle, T. M. (2014a). *Exploring effective teaching practices for inclusion: A case of a South African Secondary School*. *International Journal of Education Science, 7*(1), 183-192.
- Makoelle, T.M. (2014b). *School-based support teams as communities of enquiry: A case of developing inclusive practices in the Free State Province of South Africa*. *International Journal Education Science, 7*(1): 67-76.
- Maree, K. (2013). *Counselling for career construction: Connecting life themes to construct life portraits: Turning pain into hope*. Brill Sense.

- Markle, R. S., Splett, J. W., Maras, M. A., & Weston, K. J. (2014). Effective school teams: Benefits, barriers, and best practices. In *Handbook of school mental health* (pp. 59-73). Springer, Boston, MA.
- Marshall, B., Cardon, P., Poddar, A., & Fontenot, R. (2013). Does sample size matter in qualitative research?: A review of qualitative interviews in IS research. *Journal of Computer Information Systems*, 54(1), 11-22.
- Marshall, C., & Rossman, G. B. (2014). *Designing qualitative research*. Sage publications.
- Mason, J. (2017). *Qualitative researching*. Sage.
- Matzen, K., Ryndak, D., & Nakao, T. (2010). Middle school teams increasing access to general education for students with significant disabilities: Issues encountered and activities observed across contexts. *Remedial and Special Education*, 31(4), 287-304.
- Maxwell, J. A. (2012). *Qualitative research design: An interactive approach* (Vol. 41). Sage publications.
- McLean, S. (2012). Barriers to collaboration on behalf of children with challenging behaviours: a large qualitative study of five constituent groups. *Child & Family Social Work*, 17(4), 478-486.
- McMillan, J. H., & Schumacher, S. (2010). *Research in Education: Evidence-Based Inquiry*, MyEducationLab Series. *Pearson*.
- Mellin, E. A., & Weist, M. D. (2011). Exploring school mental health collaboration in an urban community: A social capital perspective. *School Mental Health*, 3(2), 81-92.
- Mellin, E. A., Anderson-Butcher, D., & Bronstein, L. (2011). Strengthening interprofessional team collaboration: Potential roles for school mental health professionals. *Advances in School Mental Health Promotion*, 4(2), 51-60.
- Mellin, E. A., Bronstein, L., Anderson-Butcher, D., Amorose, A. J., Ball, A., & Green, J. (2010). Measuring interprofessional team collaboration in expanded school mental health: Model refinement and scale development. *Journal of Interprofessional Care*, 24(5), 514-523.
- Merriam, S. B., & Tisdell, E. J. (2015). *Qualitative research: A guide to design and implementation*. John Wiley & Sons.
- Merriam, S.B. & Tisdell, E. J. (2016). *Qualitative research: A guide to design and implementation* (4th ed.). USA: Jossey-Bass.
- Mihás, P. (2019). Qualitative data analysis. In *Oxford Research Encyclopedia of Education*.

Milteniene, L., & Venclovaite, I. (2012). *Teacher collaboration in the context of inclusive education. Special Education, 2*(27), 111-123.

Moon, K., Brewer, T., Januchowski-Hartley, S., Adams, V., & Blackman, D. (2016). A guideline to improve qualitative social science publishing in ecology and conservation journals. *Ecology and Society, 21*(3).

Mulholland, M. & O'Connor, U. (2016). Collaborative classroom practice for inclusion: perspectives of classroom teachers and learning support/ resource teachers. *International Journal of Inclusive Education, 20*: 10, 1070-1083, DOI: 10.1080/13603116.2016.1145266.

Murawski, W. W. (Ed.). (2010). *Collaborative teaching in elementary schools: making the co-teaching marriage work!* Corwin Press.

Murawski, W. W., & Lochner, W. W. (2011). *Observing co-teaching: What to ask for, look for, and listen for. Intervention in School and Clinic, 46*(3), 174 – 183.

Mwanza, D., Engeström, Y., & Amon, T. (2009). Methods for evaluating learner activities with new technologies: Guidelines for the Lab future project. *International Journal on E-learning, 8*(3), 361-384.

Naicker, S. (2005). Inclusive education in South Africa: An emerging pedagogy of possibility. In D. Mitchell (Ed.), *Contextualizing inclusive education* (pp. 230-252). Milton Park, UK: Routledge.

Nel, M., Engelbrecht, P., Nel, N. & Tlale, D. (2013). *South African teachers' views of collaboration within an inclusive education system. International Journal of Inclusive Education, 18*(9):903-917. DOI:10.1080/13603116.2013.858779.

Nel, M., Engelbrecht, P., Nel, N., & Tlale, D. (2014). South African teachers' views of collaboration within an inclusive education system. *International Journal of Inclusive Education, 18*(9), 903-917.

Nel, N.M., Tlale, L.D.N, Engelbrecht, P & Nel, M. (2016). "Teachers' perceptions of education support structures in the implementation of inclusive education in South Africa". *KOERS — Bulletin for Christian Scholarship, 81*(3).

Neuman, D. (2014). Qualitative research in educational communications and technology: A brief introduction to principles and procedures. *Journal of Computing in Higher Education, 26*(1), 69-86.

Newman, L., Wagner, M., Cameto, R., Knokey, A.-M., & Shaver, D. (2010). Comparisons across time of the outcomes of youth with disabilities up to 4 years after high school: A report

of findings from the National Longitudinal Transition Study (NLTS) and the National Longitudinal Transition Study-2 (NLTS). Menlo Park, CA: SRI International.

Nichols, J., Dowdy, A., & Nichols, C. (2010). Co-teaching: An educational promise for children with disabilities or a quick fix to meet the mandates of no child left behind? *Education, 130*(4).

Noonan, P. M., Erickson, A. G., & Morningstar, M. E. (2013). Effects of community transition teams on interagency collaboration for school and adult agency staff. *Career development and transition for exceptional individuals, 36*(2), 96-104.

Ntombela S. (2011). *The progress of inclusive education in South Africa: Teachers' experiences in a selected district, KwaZulu-Natal. Improving Schools, 14*(1):5-14.

Ntombela, S., & Raymond, E. (2013a). Inclusive education in South Africa and globally. *Making inclusive education work in classrooms, 2-17*.

Ntombela, S., & Raymond, E. (2013b). Strategies for teaching in inclusive classrooms. *Making Inclusive Education Work in Classrooms, 154-173*.

Pancsofar, N. & Petroff, J. G. (2016). *Teachers' experiences with co-teaching as a model for inclusive education, International Journal of Inclusive Education, 20:10*,

Patton, M. Q. (2014). *Qualitative Research & Evaluation Methods: Integrating Theory and Practice*. SAGE Publications.

Perkins, K. (2014). Parents and teachers: Working together to foster children's learning. *The research digest, QCT, 10*.

Petty, N. J., Thomson, O. P., & Stew, G. (2012). Ready for a paradigm shift? Part 2: Introducing qualitative research methodologies and methods. *Manual therapy, 17*(5), 378-384.

Plakhotnik, M. S., Rocco, T. S., & Roberts, N. A. (2011). Increasing Retention and Success of First-Time Managers: A Model of Three Integral Processes for the Transition to Management. *Human Resource Development Review 10*(1) 26 –45.

Polit, D. F., & Beck, C. T. (2012). Ethics in nursing research. *Nursing Research Generating and Assessing Evidence for Nursing Practice. Ninth ed. Philadelphia: Wolters Kluwer Health/Lippincott Williams & Wilkins, 150-73*.

Prion, S., & Adamson, K. A. (2014). Making sense of methods and measurement: Rigor in qualitative research. *Clinical Simulation in Nursing, 10*(2), e107-e108.

Punch, K. F. (2013). *Introduction to social research: Quantitative and qualitative approaches*. sage.

- Raver, S. A., & Childress, D. C. (2015). Collaboration and teamwork with families and professionals. *Family-Centered Early Intervention: Supporting Infants and Toddlers in Natural Environments*; Raver, SA, Childress, DC, Eds.
- Reyneck, M., Meyer, L., & Nel, C. (2010). School-based assessment: the leash needed to keep the poetic ‘unruly pack of hounds’ effectively in the hunt for learning outcomes. *South African Journal of Education*, 30(2).
- Richards, L. (2014). *Handling qualitative data: A practical guide*. Sage.
- Richards, S. B., Frank, C. I., Sableski, M.K. & Arnold, J. (2016). *Collaboration among professionals, students, families, and communities: Effective teaming for student learning*. New York: Routledge,
- Richards, S., B. (2016). *Collaboration among professionals, students, families and communities: Collaboration principles and practice*. New York: Routledge.
- Ritchie, J., Lewis, J., Nicholls, C. M., & Ormston, R. (Eds.). (2013). *Qualitative research practice: A guide for social science students and researchers*. Sage.
- Rocco, T. S., & Plakhotnik, M. S. (2009). *Literature reviews, conceptual frameworks, and theoretical frameworks: Terms, functions and distinctions*. *Human Resource Development Review*, 8(1), 120-130.
- Ronfeldt, M., Farmer, S. O., & McQueen, K. (2015). *Teacher collaboration in instructional teams and student achievement*. *American Educational Research Journal*, 52(3), 475–514. DOI: 10.3102/0002831215585562
- Sailor, W. S., & McCart, A. B. (2014). Stars in alignment. *Research and Practice for Persons with Severe Disabilities*, 39(1), 55-64.
- Sapon-Shevin, M. (2010). *Because we can change the world: A practical guide to building cooperative, inclusive classroom communities*. Corwin Press.
- Schoeman, M. (2012). “*Developing an inclusive education system: Changing teachers’ attitudes and practices through critical professional development*.” Paper presented at the National Teacher Development Conference at the University of Pretoria, September 17–19.
- Schultz, T. R, Able, H., Sreckovic, M. A., & White, T. (2016). *University of North Carolina at Chapel parent-teacher collaboration: Teacher perceptions of what is needed to support students with ASD in the inclusive classroom*. *Education and Training in Autism and Developmental Disabilities*, 51(4), 344–354.
- Schurink, W., Fouché, C. B., & De Vos, A. S. (2011). Qualitative research designs. *Research at grass roots*, 307-327.

- Scorgie, K. (2010). A powerful glimpse from across the table: reflections on a virtual parenting exercise. *International Journal of Inclusive Education*, 14(7), 697-708.
- Sgier, L. (2012). Qualitative data analysis. *An Initiat. Gebert Ruf Stift*, 19-21.
- Shakenova, L. (2017). *The theoretical framework of teacher collaboration*. *Khazar Journal of Humanities and Social Sciences*, 20(2), 34-48. DOI: 10.5782/2223-2621.2017.20.2.34.
- Sharma, U., Loreman, T., & Forlin, C. (2012). Measuring teacher efficacy to implement inclusive practices. *Journal of Research in Special Educational Needs*, 12(1), 12-21.
- Shute, V. J., Hansen, E. G., Underwood, J. S., & Razzouk, R. (2011). A review of the relationship between parental involvement and secondary school students' academic achievement. *Education Research International*, 2011.
- Sileo, J. M. (2011). *Co-teaching: Getting to know your partner*. TEACHING Exceptional Children, 43(5), 32–38.
- Silverman, D. (2010). *Doing qualitative research: A practical handbook* (3rd Ed.). Thousand Oak, CA: Sage.
- Silverman, D. (Ed.). (2016). *Qualitative research*. Sage.
- Silverman, K., Hong, S., & Trepanier-Street, M. (2010). Collaboration of teacher education and child disability health care: Transdisciplinary approach to inclusive practice for early childhood pre-service teachers. *Early Childhood Education Journal*, 37(6), 461-468.
- Slater, J. J., & Ravid, R. (Eds.). (2010). *Collaboration in education* (Vol. 35). Routledge.
- Smith, J., & Firth, J. (2011). Qualitative data analysis: the framework approach. *Nurse researcher*, 18(2), 52-62.
- Solis, M., Vaughn, S., Swanson, E., & Mcculley, L. (2012). Collaborative models of instruction: The empirical foundations of inclusion and co-teaching. *Psychology in the Schools*, 49(5), 498-510.
- Sonday, A., Anderson, K., Flacks, C., Fisher, C., Greenhough, J., Kendal, R., & Shadwell, C. (2012). *School-based occupational therapists: An exploration into their role in a Cape Metropole full service school*. *South African Journal of Occupational Therapists*, 42(1).
- Srivastava, M., De Boer, A., & Pijl, S. J. (2015). Inclusive education in developing countries: A closer look at its implementation in the last 10 years. *Educational Review*, 67(2), 179-195.
- Steyn, G. M. (2017). *Transformative learning through teach collaboration: A case study*: Koers-Bulletin for Christian Scholarship 82 (1).
- Stinchfield, T. A., & Zyromski, B. (2010). A training model for school, family, and community collaboration. *The Family Journal*, 18(3), 263-268.

- Stofile, S. (2008). Factors affecting the implementation of inclusive education policy: A case study in one province in South Africa. D (Phil) Thesis in the Faculty of Education, University of Western Cape, Bellville.
- Stofile, S. Y., Green, L., & Soudien, C. (2018). Inclusive education in South Africa. In: Engelbrecht, P. & Green, L. (eds). Responding to the challenges of inclusive education in southern Africa. Pretoria: Van Schaik. 75-90.
- Stofile, S., Linden, N., & Maarman, R. (2011). Teacher reported poverty effects on education participation in a South African district. *Journal of Psychology in Africa*, 21(4), 603-605.
- Stofile, S., Raymond, E., & Moletsane, M. (2013). Understanding barriers to learning. *Making inclusive education work in classrooms*. Cape Town: Pearson.
- Strogilos, V., & Tragoulia, E. (2013). Inclusive and collaborative practices in co-taught classrooms: Roles and responsibilities for teachers and parents. *Teaching and Teacher Education*, 35, 81-91.
- Strogilos, V., Lacey, P., Xanthacou, Y., & Kaila, M. (2011). Collaboration and integration of services in Greek special schools: two different models of delivering school services. *International Journal of Inclusive Education*, 15(8), 797-818.
- Strydom, H. (2011). Sampling in the quantitative paradigm. *Research at Grass Roots*. Pretoria: Van Schaik Publishers, 222-235.
- Strydom, H., & Delpont, C. S. L. (2011). Sampling and pilot study in qualitative research. *Research at grass roots: for the social sciences and human service professions*, 4, 390-396.
- Suc, L., Bukovec, B., & Karpljuk. (2017). *The role of inter-professional collaboration in developing inclusive education: experiences of teachers and occupational therapists in Slovenia*. *International Journal of Inclusive Education*, 21(9), 938-955, DOI: 10.1080/13603116.2017.1325073.
- Swart E & Pettipher R. (2011). *A framework for understanding inclusion*. In E Landsberg, D Krüger & E Swart (eds). *Addressing barriers to learning: A South African perspective* (2nded). Pretoria: Van Schaik.
- Taherdoost, H. (2016). Sampling methods in research methodology; How to choose a sampling technique for research.
- Takala, M., & Uusitalo-Malmivaara, L., (2012). A one-year study of the development of co-teaching in four Finnish schools. *European Journal of Special Needs Education*, 27 (3), 373–390.

- Taole, M. J. (2015). Towards a meaningful curriculum implementation in South African schools: senior phase teachers' experiences. *Africa Education Review*, 12(2), 266-279.
- Taylor, H., Krane, D., & Orkis, K. (2010). The ADA. 20 years later. New York, NY: Harris Interactive. Retrieved from <http://www.2010disabilitysurveys.org/pdfs/surveyresults.pdf>.
- Taylor, R. L., Smiley, L.R., & Richards, S. B. (2015). *Exceptional students: Preparing teachers for the 21st century*. (2nd ed.). New York, NY: McGraw-Hill Higher Education.
- Taylor, S. J., Bogdan, R., & DeVault, M. (2015). *Introduction to qualitative research methods: A guidebook and resource*. John Wiley & Sons.
- Terrell, S. R. (2012). Mixed-methods research methodologies. *The qualitative report*, 17(1), 254-280.
- Thanh, N. C., & Thanh, T. T. (2015). The interconnection between interpretivist paradigm and qualitative methods in education. *American Journal of Educational Science*, 1(2), 24-27.
- Themane, M. & Thobejane, H. R. (2018): *Teachers as change agents in making teaching inclusive in some selected rural schools of Limpopo Province, South Africa*: implications for teacher education, *International Journal of Inclusive Education*, DOI:10.1080/13603116.2018.1434690.
- Tschannen-Moran, M. (2014). *Trust matters: Leadership for successful schools*. John Wiley & Sons.
- Tuckman, B. W., & Harper, B. E. (2012). *Conducting educational research*. Rowman & Littlefield Publishers.
- Turk, J. (2012) Collaboration, Inclusion, and Empowerment: A Life Skills Mural, *Art Education*, 65:6, 50-53, DOI: [10.1080/00043125.2012.11519201](https://doi.org/10.1080/00043125.2012.11519201)
- Tzivinikou, S. (2015). *Collaboration between general and special education teachers: developing co-teaching skills in heterogeneous classes*. *Problems of Education in the 21st Century*, 64, 108-119.
- Vesterinen, O., Kangas, M., Krokfors, L., Kopisto, K., & Salo, L. (2017). Inter-professional pedagogical collaboration between teachers and their out-of-school partners. *Educational Studies*, 43(2), 231-242.
- Villeneuve, M., & Hutchinson, N. L. (2012). Enabling outcomes for students with developmental disabilities through collaborative consultation. *The Qualitative Report*, 17(49), 1-29.
- von Ahlefeld Nisser, D. (2017). Can collaborative consultation, based on communicative theory, promote an inclusive school culture?. *Issues in educational research*, 27(4), 874.

- Waitoller, F. R., & Artiles, A. J. (2013). A decade of professional development research for inclusive education: A critical review and notes for a research program. *Review of educational research*, 83(3), 319-356.
- Waldron, N. L., & McLeskey, J. (2010). Establishing a collaborative school culture through comprehensive school reform. *Journal of Education and Psychological Consultation*, 20, 58-74. DOI: 10.1080/10474410903535364.
- Walton, E. (2011). "Getting inclusion right in South Africa". *Intervention in School and Clinic*, 46(4): 240-245. DOI: 10.1177/1053451210389033.
- Walton, E. (2016). Responsive teaching. In K. Horsthemke, P. Siyakwazi, E. Walton & C. Wolhuter (Eds), *Education studies*. 2nd edition. Cape Town: Oxford University Press, 504-511.
- Weist, M. D., Mellin, E. A., Chambers, K. L., Lever, N. A., Haber, D., & Blaber, C. (2012). Challenges to collaboration in school mental health and strategies for overcoming them. *Journal of School Health*, 82(2), 97-105.
- Wilder, S. (2014). Effects of parental involvement on academic achievement: A meta-synthesis. *Educational Review*, 66(3), 377-397.
- Wilson, Viv. (2014). *Examining teacher education through cultural-historical activity theory*. Teacher Education Advancement Network Journal (TEAN), 6 (1). pp. 20-29.
- Yamagata-Lynch. L.C. (2010). *Activity Systems Analysis Methods: Understanding Complex Learning Environments*, Springer Science and Business Media.
- Yin, R. K. (2017). *Case study research and applications: Design and methods*. Sage publications.
- Zagona, A. L., Kurth, J., & Macfarland, S. Z. (2017). *Teachers' Views of Their Preparation for Inclusive Education and Collaboration*. *Teacher Education and Special Education*, 40(3), 163-178. DOI: 10.1177/0888406417692969.

APPENDIX A

RESEARCH APPROVAL LETTER

Audrey.wyngaard@westerncape.gov.za

tel: +27 021 467 9272

Fax: 0865902282

Private Bag x9114, Cape Town, 8000

wced.wcape.gov.za

REFERENCE: 20150413-46211

ENQUIRIES: Dr A T Wyngaard

Ms Sihle Fodo
B24A Site C
Njabulo Street
Khayelitsha
7784

Dear Ms Sihle Fodo

RESEARCH PROPOSAL: TEACHERS' ATTITUDES TOWARDS INCLUSION OF LEARNERS WITH LEARNING DISABILITIES IN PUBLIC ORDINARY SCHOOLS

Your application to conduct the above-mentioned research in schools in the Western Cape has been approved subject to the following conditions:

1. Principals, educators and learners are under no obligation to assist you in your investigation.
2. Principals, educators, learners and schools should not be identifiable in any way from the results of the investigation.
3. You make all the arrangements concerning your investigation.
4. Educators' programmes are not to be interrupted.
5. The Study is to be conducted from **15 April 2015 till 31 July 2015**
6. No research can be conducted during the fourth term as schools are preparing and finalizing syllabi for examinations (October to December).
7. Should you wish to extend the period of your survey, please contact Dr A.T Wyngaard at the contact numbers above quoting the reference number?
8. A photocopy of this letter is submitted to the principal where the intended research is to be conducted.
9. Your research will be limited to the list of schools as forwarded to the Western Cape Education Department.
10. A brief summary of the content, findings and recommendations is provided to the Director: Research Services.
11. The Department receives a copy of the completed report/dissertation/thesis addressed to:

**The Director: Research Services
Western Cape Education Department
Private Bag X9114
CAPE TOWN
8000**

We wish you success in your research.

Kind regards.

Signed: Dr Audrey T Wyngaard

Directorate: Research

DATE: 14 April 2015

APPENDIX B

LETTER TO THE PRINCIPAL

Dear (Mr Mrs Dr principal)

Participation in research project

Herewith an invitation to you and your staff to participate in a research project entitled *Collaboration in inclusive education: teachers' perspectives and practices* and share the unique experiences of collaboration and inclusive education in your school.

As you know, inclusive education is an international movement, and South Africa is in the process of developing systems to support the implementation process. We have learnt from our previous research that this is a complex process and that a one-size-fits-all approach is ineffective. As schools, teachers, learners and communities are different and the learning processes unique, they often develop useful strategies by working together.

Teachers play a key role in developing inclusive education. They are expected to be responsive to the needs of all learners in their classrooms. The processes and requirements outlined in SIAS (2014) is a case in point. This is often an overwhelming thought for teachers who now must learn new teaching strategies and methods to fulfil this expectation. The demands challenge teachers to think on their feet and learn in process.

Collaboration among teachers and other professionals, and between teachers, parents and the community, is often promoted as a critical strategy and skill for learning how to implement inclusive education successfully. And yet, we do not have a clear understanding of what collaboration is and how it presents in schools. If collaboration is a key tool for building supportive schools and networks, then we need to start our journey of understanding with what individual teachers know and do in contexts like full-service schools, where they have access to some resources and support. What we aim to do is to uncover teachers' practical wisdom, including how they develop inclusive practices in collaboration with others. We therefore want to learn from experienced teachers:

- HOW they address the diverse learning needs of all learners in their classrooms;

- HOW they collaborate to learn from and with others and, in the process, build the capacity of the school to address the diverse learning needs in their classrooms;
- HOW they practice collaboration (or not);
- WHAT the processes, facilitators and constraints are in these collaborative spaces; and
- HOW collaboration is believed to have added value in developing more responsive inclusive pedagogies or not.

Who should participate?

For our research we need volunteer teachers with experience in addressing the various learning needs of learners in their classrooms.

How will they participate?

Teachers will participate in at least two individual interviews and two reflective discussions after a collaborative activity. They will also be required to keep a diary to help them prepare for the final interview.

Interviews - The interviews will be arranged at a time convenient to the teachers and school. Data will be audio recorded and transcribed verbatim.

Observations - Teachers will be asked to identify at least 2 collaborative spaces where we can observe what the collaboration entails and how they participate (e.g. collaboration between two or more teachers, with parent(s), external professionals, district support staff, etc.).

Reflective discussions - The observations will be followed by reflective discussions directly afterwards, which will be audio-recorded. Teachers will also be asked to keep diaries on collaboration to help them prepare for the final interview. Data-collection will be collected between March and September 2018.

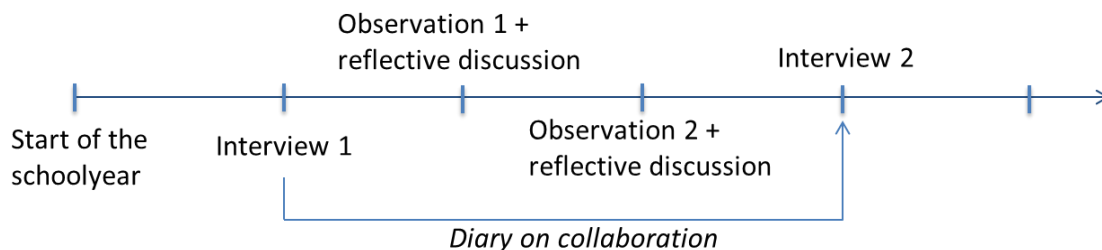


Figure 1. Timeline of data collection

Two researchers will be involved at the school, namely XXX and I. The complete group of researchers are:

Researchers

Principle investigator and promotor

Dr Sindiswa Stofile (Department of Educational Psychology, University of Western Cape)

Student

Sihle Fodo (Master's student, University of the Western Cape)

The research collaboration is funded by the National Research Foundation (FLGR160605168020) and Fonds Wetenskaplike Ondersoek (FWO) (G0G5117N).

If the school agrees to participate, we will make an appointment with you to discuss arrangements. We will also introduce the project to the staff. Needless to say, the project will not proceed without the permission of the WCED and clearance from the University of the Western Cape Research Ethics Committee .

You are welcome to contact me at sstofile@uwc.ac.za if you need more information.

APPENDIX C

CONSENT FORM FOR TEACHERS

APRIL 2018

Dear colleague

Thank you for supporting our research project and for allowing us to work in your school. As discussed telephonically and via e mail, we would like to invite you to participate in an interview. We believe that you, as the principal of a full-service school, will be able to share valuable knowledge and experience of inclusion and collaboration in the context of your school.

Please take some time to read the information presented here, which will explain the details of this project. You are welcome to ask us any questions about any part of this project that you do not fully understand. It is very important that you clearly understand what this research entails and how you could be involved. Also, your participation is **entirely voluntary**, and you are free to decline to participate. If you say no, this will not affect you negatively in any way whatsoever. You are also free to withdraw from the study at any point, even if you do agree to take part.

Our project is part of a collaborative research project funded by the National Research Foundation (South Africa) and Fonds Wetenschappelijk Onderzoek (FWO) (Flanders, Belgium). This study has been approved by the **Research Ethics Committee (Humanities) at Stellenbosch University and the Ethics Advisory Committee for Social and Human Sciences of Antwerp University**. We have also obtained permission from your school management and the Western Cape Education Department to conduct the research at your school. This will be done according to the ethical guidelines and principles of the International Declaration of Helsinki, Health Professions Council of South Africa (HPCSA) and the National Health Research Ethics Council (NHREC).

1. WHAT IS THE PURPOSE OF THE STUDY?

Full-service schools are described as “ordinary schools that are inclusive and welcoming of all learners in terms of their cultures, policies and practices. Such schools increase participation and reduce exclusion by providing support to all learners to develop their full potential irrespective of their background, culture, abilities or disabilities, their gender or race. These schools will be strengthened and orientated to address a full range of barriers to learning in an inclusive education setting to serve as flagship schools of full inclusivity” (SIAS, 2014). As the principal of XXXX Primary, a full-service school, you probably have to find answers for a range of new challenges presenting in your school and create structures and procedures to support both teachers and learners.

The purpose of the investigation is to explore how teachers in your school think on their feet in addressing the needs of all learners in your classrooms and school, and how they collaborate with others in developing the support practices referred to. We are therefore interested in how they perceive their own experiences of inclusion and collaboration in including and welcoming all learners. Our purpose as researchers is to learn from their experiences in order to develop guidelines for teacher education and practice.

2. WHAT WILL BE ASKED OF YOU?

If you agree to take part in this study, you will be asked to carefully read this document and ask questions for further clarity. You will be expected to sign the consent form once you fully understand the research procedure and agree to participate.

Your participation involves an interview (45-60 minutes), while follow-up interviews might be necessary. The interview(s) will be arranged at a time and location convenient to you. The interview(s) will be audio recorded and transcribed for analysis. The interview(s) will focus on the context of the school, support and collaborative structures and procedures, how diverse needs of learners are addressed in the school, how teachers learn to deal with diversity, teacher support, etc.

The suggested timeline is March 2018.

3. ARE THERE ANY RISKS AND DISCOMFORTS?

You may feel slight discomfort with the fact that you are taking part in a study focussing on your experiences of inclusion and collaboration in a full-service school. You may, for example, recall frustrations or negative experiences which may cause feelings you did not expect.

However, effort will be made to ensure that the location is private, with low risk for distractions. If you wish to discuss the information above, or any discomforts you may experience, please feel free to ask. If at any time during the process you find any of the procedures uncomfortable, you are free to skip a particular question or stop entirely.

If it becomes necessary, a debriefing session could be arranged with one of the project collaborators.

4. WHAT ARE THE POSSIBLE BENEFITS?

This study may not benefit you directly, but reflection and discussions could be a positive learning experience. The research will contribute to knowledge about teaching and support practices in full-service schools in general, and more particularly the experiences of teachers' collaborative experiences and practices in dealing with the diverse needs of learners in their classrooms. The information from this study may help to improve the understanding of collaboration in inclusive education. We aim to identify ways in which collaborative practices could be developed in schools via preservice and in-service teacher education and support.

5. HOW WILL MY INFORMATION, CONFIDENTIALITY AND IDENTITY BE PROTECTED?

Any information you share with us during this study that could possibly identify you as a participant will be protected. Confidentiality will be maintained and your identity and any mention to other people's identities will be maintained with the use of pseudonyms.

Information acquired in connection with this research will only be disclosed with your permission or as required by law.

Transcriptions of interviews, as well as audio recordings of interviews, will only be accessed by the researchers and securely stored after completion of the research study. Hard copies of transcripts will be stored in a locked cabinet. The digital data will be stored safely on a password protected computer. Project data will be stored for five years and then destroyed.

The information collected will be presented as part of a Master's research project for Stellenbosch University. Also, the results of the larger project may be submitted for publication in peer reviewed journals. In both instances you will not be identified in any way.

6. PARTICIPATION AND WITHDRAWAL

As explained before, you can choose whether to be in this study or not. You may also refuse to answer any questions you are uncomfortable with and still remain in the study. You are free to withdraw from participation in this study at any time. Should you withdraw, there will be no penalty, and any data that have been compiled will be destroyed and omitted from the study.

7. RESEARCHERS' CONTACT INFORMATION

If you have any questions or concerns about this study, please feel free to contact me, Sindiswa Stofile at [sstofile@uwc.ac.za](mailto:ssstofile@uwc.ac.za) or 0219592925, or Sihle Fodo at sihlefodo2@gmail.com or 0798956025.

RIGHTS OF RESEARCH PARTICIPANTS: You may withdraw your consent at any time and discontinue participation without penalty. You are not waiving any legal claims, rights or remedies because of your participation in this research study. If you have questions regarding your rights as a research participant, contact Ms Moswang Moloi @ mmoloi@uwc.ac.za ; 021 9592651] at the Division for Research Development.

You have the right to receive a copy of the Information and Consent form.

If you are willing to participate in this study, please sign the attached Declaration of Consent and hand it to the researcher.

DECLARATION BY PARTICIPANT

By signing below, I, agree to take part in a research study entitled *Collaboration in inclusive education: teachers' perspectives and practices*, conducted by Sindiswa Stofile and Sihle Fodo

I declare that:

- I have read the above information, which is written in a language that I am comfortable with.
- I have had a chance to ask questions and all my questions have been adequately answered.

- I understand that taking part in this study is voluntary and I have not been pressurised to take part.
- I may choose to leave the study at any time and will not be penalised or prejudiced in any way.
- I may be asked to leave the study before it has been completed, should the researcher feel it is in my best interests, or should I not follow the study plan, as agreed to.
- All issues related to privacy and the confidentiality and use of the information I provide have been explained to my satisfaction.

Signed on / / 2018

APPENDIX D

SEMI-STRUCTURED INTERVIEW GUIDE FOR PARTICIPANTS

Interview 1

Collaboration in inclusive education: teachers' perspectives and practices

Participant pseudonym:

1. INTRODUCTION

- a) *Introduce self*
- b) *Explain purpose of the interview*
- c) *Guarantee confidentiality and anonymity*
- d) *Explain format of the interview*
- e) *Negotiate the use of recording equipment*
- f) *Clarify and allow for questions about project and process*
- g) *Obtain consent*
- h) *PRESS RECORD*

2. SCHOOL CONTEXT

Grand tour question to put participant at ease: Tell me about your school

3. TEACHING CAREER

- a) Tell me about your career as a teacher (initial teacher education qualification/s, schools, grades and or subjects taught, positions, number of years teaching experience).
- b) *Draw a timeline and complete with the participant (provide paper, pens, crayons etc.)*
 - a. Since when have you been a teacher at this school?
 - b. When and where were you trained as a teacher?
 - c. When and where did you start teaching? Grade?
 - d. And then?
 - e. Then?
- c) Why did you choose to become a teacher?
- d) What were the major changes that you experienced during your teaching career?
- e) How do you cope with the changes?
- f) Tell me about your challenges and successes.

4. ADDRESSING THE NEEDS OF ALL LEARNERS

A full-service school is formally defined as “schools and colleges that will be equipped and supported to provide for the full range of learning needs among all our learners”. Your school is one of these schools in the Western Cape.

- a) How did this school change to become more inclusive?
- b) In what way is this school different from other schools?
- c) How do you address the diverse needs of children in your classroom? In the school?
- d) What are typical issues?
- e) Tell about the support structure in the school.
- f) Tell me about support in the school (that you give, receive, the impact of the support).

5. COLLABORATION PRACTICES

We are specifically interested in collaboration. It is often suggested that teachers can develop more inclusive practices in collaboration with others.

What is your experience in this school?

- a) When,
- b) why,
- c) with whom, and
- d) how does collaboration take place?

6. FACILITATORS AND CONSTRAINTS

- a) What enables you to collaborate with others in this school?
- b) What makes it difficult?
- c) What did you learn about collaboration with others?
- d) What did you learn about inclusion in collaboration with others?
- e) Tell me about the support (given, supporting one another, received as a teacher, impact of support)

APPENDIX E

SEMI-STRUCTURED INTERVIEW GUIDE FOR TEACHERS

Interview 2

Collaboration in inclusive education: teachers' perspectives and practices

Participant:

1. INTRODUCTION

- a) *Explain the purpose of the interview.*
- b) *Explain the format of the interview.*
- c) *Confirm the arrangement regarding the use of recording equipment.*

2. COLLABORATION PRACTICES

The grand tour question for this interview is:

You reflected in your diary about your own understanding and experiences of inclusion and collaboration in the context of your school. What would you like to share with me?

Some ideas to facilitate, if necessary:

- What are typical issues in the classroom that challenge you to think and do differently?
- Describe a situation and illustrate how you dealt with it, indicating how you initiated or accessed collaboration with others.
- What happened?
- How did you react?
- What process did you follow to solve the problem / address the issue?
- Whom did you consult or work with? When? How? (Describe the relationship and function of the collaboration / relationship.)
- What was the outcome?

3. FACILITATORS AND CONSTRAINTS

- a) What enables you to collaborate with others?
- b) What makes it difficult?
- c) How can you change that?

4. LEARNING TO COLLABORATE

- a) What did you learn about inclusion, either in collaboration with others, or on your own?
- b) What did you learn about collaboration with others?
- c) Every school should ideally become an inclusive school. Which lessons from your own learning experience would you share with other schools regarding the following tools:
 - a. Inclusion
 - b. Support
 - c. Collaboration

APPENDIX F

OBSERVATION CHECK LIST

Collaboration in inclusive education: teachers' perspectives and practices

(Based on six components of CHAT theory, namely; Subject, Object, Tools, Community, Rules, and division of labour)

Subject		
1. Voluntary interact with others (free to voice his or her ideas, belief, knowledge and insights)		1. Forced to interact (interrogated by others)
2. Participate in decision making		2. Decisions are imposed by others
3. Give and get support from others		3. Only gets support from others or only gives support to others
4. Willing to share expertise and other resources and learn from others in order to reach a common goal		4. Does not share expertise and other resources
5. Focuses on achieving common goal		5. Pushes his or her own agenda

Object

What is the goal of the activity practice?

.....

.....

Is the common goal clearly articulated?

yes	No
-----	----

Tools

Which tools (physical/cognitive/symbolic) the participants are using to get to their goal?

.....

.....

Community

Who are other participants present during the activity practice?

.....
.....

Who are other participants that are not present but have influence on the activity practice?

.....
.....

Division of labor

What are different tasks done in the activity practice?

.....
.....

What is the role(s) of each participant in the activity practice?

.....
.....

Are the responsibilities shared equally among team members?

Yes	No
-----	----

If responsibilities are not equally shared among team members, who is dominating the activity practice?

.....
.....

Rules

rules that inform the practice

Is the activity held on request by the subject or other participants or it is held every week?.....
.....

Are there any preparations participant(s) are expected to have done prior the activity practice?.....
.....

What are the correct procedures of interaction expected from the participants?

.....
.....

APPENDIX G

REFLECTIVE DISCUSSION 1 and 2

Collaboration in inclusive education: teachers' perspectives and practices

Participant:

1. INTRODUCTION

- a) *Explain the purpose of the discussion.*
- b) *Explain the format of the discussion.*
- c) *Confirm the arrangement regarding the use of recording equipment.*

2. DISCUSSION

Thank you for inviting me to XXX. Please tell me more about:

- a) this collaborative space,
- b) who the collaborators are,
- c) and how they learn together to find solutions for addressing the diverse needs in classrooms.

In all the interviews make sure you cover questions:

What?

How?

When?

Who?

Why?