An examination of primary school teachers' knowledge of the symptoms and management of children diagnosed with ADHD in their classrooms

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A mini-thesis in partial fulfilment of the requirements for the Degree of Magister Artium in Child and Family Studies

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November 2013

Keywords: ADHD, primary school teachers, diagnosis of ADHD, management of ADHD, educational interventions, learning disabilities, knowledge, educational rights, child development, psychosocial theory

ABSTRACT

There is a high rate of parental referrals by teachers to doctors for children who display symptoms of Attention Deficit Hyperactivity Disorder (ADHD). The symptoms are inattentiveness, impulse control, concentration problems and learning disabilities. Studies suggest that often a learning disability is mistaken for ADHD. ADHD is usually diagnosed from the age of seven, when children start their schooling. In some cases it is identified much earlier in the form of over-activity in children during the pre-school years. Teachers are responsible for creating an environment that is conducive to academic, social and emotional success for children with ADHD. Research suggests that mainstream primary school teachers may lack knowledge regarding ADHD and evidenced-based classroom interventions. This study therefore intended to determine primary school teachers' knowledge of the symptoms and management of children diagnosed with ADHD in their classrooms. A quantitative approach with a cross-sectional research design was used to conduct the study. A self-administered questionnaire, the Knowledge of Attention-Deficit Disorder Scale (KADDS), which measures the misperceptions and understanding of the disorder, was used to collect data from a sample of 200 teachers at 28 public schools in Kimberley. The data was analyzed by making use of frequencies and mean scores. The data obtained was useful in describing the knowledge base of teachers and in identifying the strategies that teachers mostly agreed to in managing children who have been diagnosed with ADHD in the classroom. The data was analysed by means of the Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS). The results show that the majority of teachers are knowledgeable about the symptoms and diagnosis of ADHD but less so about the general associated features and treatment. Although the majority of teachers received training on ADHD, their knowledge about evidenced-based classroom interventions for ADHD can be improved.

DECLARATION

I declare that the current study ***An examination of primary school teachers' knowledge of the symptoms and management of children diagnosed with ADHD in their classrooms*** is my own work. It has not been submitted before for any degree or examination in any university, and that all the sources I have used have been indicated and acknowledged as complete references.

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Beryl ShareenTopkin November 2013

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

Firstly I would like to thank my heavenly father for providing me with the opportunity and the strength to complete this academic journey. Secondly for His continuous grace and showers of blessings bestowed upon me. It has been an exciting and challenging journey. His grace was sufficient for me!

This opportunity is taken to express my sincere gratitude to all the people I know for their valuable contribution, support and encouragement throughout the completion of this study. A few people stand out among the many:

- My husband and two amazing sons. Thank you for your love, support, encouragement and patience throughout this journey. Winston, thank you for your words of wisdom and for helping me to keep focused when things got tough. I love you!
- My sister Farhana for always supporting and encouraging me in my studies.
- My supervisor, Dr. N. Roman, who gave her unrelenting guidance, encouragement and constructive input with my research. Thank you for helping me to grow as an academic. You're one of a kind!
- A word of thanks also to UWC who granted me permission to conduct my research, as well as the Northern Cape Department of Education and primary school teachers who partook in the exploration procedure.

I am deeply humbled by this experience! I salute you all!

TABLE OF CONTENTS

APPENDICES

LIST OF TABLES

CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION

1.1 Background and rationale

ADHD is characterized by the demonstration of the majority of symptoms in either category of inattention, hyperactivity and impulsivity as outlined in the Diagnostic and Statistical Manual IV-Text Revision (DSM IV TR) and ICD 10 codes. It can impact on education and development from a very young age (Malen, 2008). Variations in prevalence rates of ADHD and the increasing numbers of learners taking stimulant medications have triggered a debate regarding the possibility of misdiagnosis (Edwards, 2007). Misdiagnosis of ADHD has serious ramifications for learners because they are often treated with stimulant medication (Malen, 2008).

Numerous studies have shown that most children diagnosed with ADHD are of normal intelligence or brighter, yet they experience difficulty in applying their intelligence to everyday situations due to their often impulsive nature. It is also more likely that they will have learning disabilities that can result in poor academic performance (Barkley, 1998; DuPaul & Stoner, 1994).The results of studies that were done in Australia, North America and also in South Africa, regarding the knowledge of school teachers about the symptoms of ADHD, found that they had an average to good general knowledge of the disorder, that few teachers had any training in ADHD and that teachers' overall knowledge improved as a result of teaching a child with ADHD. Sciutto et al.'s (2000) study reported an average of 47, 8% for correct responses for their sample of American teachers. A study that was done in primary schools in the Cape Metropole area provides similar results (Perold, et al, 2008). This study

suggests that 42,6% of teachers had knowledge regarding the symptoms of ADHD, 35,4% did not, while 22% had incorrect responses, suggesting misperceptions regarding ADHD (Perold, et al; 2008; Gray, 2008).This lack of knowledge regarding the symptoms of ADHD is a matter of concern since teachers need to be knowledgeable not only about the etiology, diagnosis, and prognosis of the disorder in order to reduce misdiagnosis and referrals, they also need to know how to manage children diagnosed with ADHD in the classroom in order to effect positive outcomes for learners (Perold, et al; 2008). A multi-modal treatment approach which includes a combination of medication, behaviour modification, and instructional management techniques results in the most positive outcomes for students with ADHD (Barkley, 1998; DuPaul & Stoner, 2003). A lack of knowledge of the disorder and classroom management techniques, may lead teachers to more readily refer learners for stimulant medication in order to contain the learner's behaviour within the classroom (Barkley, 1998; DuPaul & Stoner, 1994). Thus teachers should be fairly knowledgeable about this disorder. Since teachers are key role players in the management of ADHD in the classroom, this study will examine teachers' knowledge of the diagnosis of ADHD and the management of primary school children who have been diagnosed with ADHD in their classrooms.

1.2 Theoretical Framework

The theoretical framework underpinning this study is the psychosocial theory of Erikson (1968). Erikson (1968) divided human development into eight stages. Each stage has a particular conflict that has to be resolved before the individual moves on to the next stage. Once the conflict in each stage has been successfully resolved, an ego-strength outcome is achieved, which builds towards the development of a healthy self-concept. It also prepares the individual for crises that emerge later in life (Mussen, et al., 1994; Phares, 1984; Shaffer,

1993; Soenens, 2006 as cited in Allen, 2006). Failure to resolve the conflict of a particular stage may markedly affect the person's capacity to cope successfully with the next stage (Phares, 1984 in Grootboom, 1999:33). Ultimately, the individual's self is affected either positively or negatively. This study will focus on the fourth psychosocial stage of development namely Industry versus Inferiority which occurs from the age of 6 years until the onset of puberty. Children between the ages of 6 to 12 are usually diagnosed with symptoms of ADHD (Gray, 2008). During this stage the repertoire of motor and mental abilities greatly expands. Children are eager to learn and accomplish more complex skills like reading, writing and telling time. Thus, the favorable outcome of this stage is for the child to learn to acquire direction, purpose and competence in activities.

1.3 Problem statement

Currently there is a debate about ADHD diagnosis because the percentage of learners diagnosed is increasing past the generally accepted mark of 3% of the general population. There is a high rate of parental referrals by teachers to doctors for children who display symptoms of Attention Deficit Hyperactivity Disorder that is inattentiveness, impulse control, concentration problems and learning disabilities (Perold, et al., 2008). More often than not a learning disability is mistaken for ADHD because it often co-exists with other clinical conditions. This could mean that a child would have difficulties with mastering languages or certain skills, such as reading, mathematics or handwriting. Learning Disabilities (LD) and ADHD are distinctive neurologically-based disorders that are diagnosed and treated differently (Perold, et al., 2008). The teacher is most often the first person to make a referral for assessment for ADHD (Malen, 2008). This happens because the structured school environment means children with problems of inattention, hyperactivity and impulsivity exhibit behaviours with which the other children and their teachers cannot cope (Malen,

2008). It is important for teachers to organize their environments according to the diversity of needs of the learners in the classroom. Having a better understanding may prevent them from developing negative views of these learners or labeling them (Holz & Lessing, 2002). ADHD is said to be one of the most highly researched areas and yet one of the most poorly understood (Gray, 2008). Only one known study has been conducted in this area of research in South Africa (Malen, 2008). The current study therefore adds to existing research as it will determine primary school teachers' knowledge of the symptoms and management of children diagnosed with ADHD in their classrooms, thereby strengthening the understanding of the disorder.

1.4 Research questions

1) What knowledge do primary school teachers have regarding ADHD and its diagnosis?

2) What strategies are teachers using to manage ADHD within the classroom in primary schools?

1.5 Aim and objectives of the study

1.5.1 Aim of the study

The aim of the study will be to determine primary school teachers' knowledge of the symptoms and management of children diagnosed with ADHD in their classrooms.

1.5.2 Objectives

The objectives of the study will be to:

1) Assess primary school teachers' knowledge of the symptoms of ADHD.

2) Determine the strategies primary school teachers use to manage children diagnosed with ADHD in their classrooms.

1.6 Methodology

This study used a quantitative approach to conduct the study. A quantitative study may be defined as an inquiry into a social or human problem, based on testing a theory composed of variables, measured with numbers and analyzed with statistical procedures in order to determine whether the predictive generalizations of the theory hold true (Creswell, 1994 as cited in De Vos, Strydom, Fouche & Delport, 2002). Quantitative research generates quantifiable data. It is primarily concerned with observable and measurable phenomena involving people, events or things, and establishing the strength of the relationship between variables, usually by statistical tests (Couchman & Dawson, 1995). It lends itself to investigating phenomena that require precise measurement and quantification often involving a rigorous and controlled design in order to enhance objectivity (Pilot & Beck, 2004). A quantitative research primarily rests upon numbers aggregated into statistics, to enable the researcher to interpret obtained data and reach conclusions (Cormack, 1996).

This quantitative study used a cross-sectional survey design. In cross-sectional studies variables of interest in a sample of subjects are assessed once and the relationships between them are determined (Hopkins, 2000). Cross-sectional studies are carried out at one point in time or over a short period. They are usually conducted to estimate the prevalence of the outcome of interest for a given population. Data can also be collected on individual characteristics, including exposure to risk factors, alongside information about the outcome. In this way cross-sectional studies provide a 'snapshot' of the outcome, and the characteristics associated with it, at a specific point in time (Cherry, 2010). Additionally, in survey designs,

survey research uses scientific sampling and questionnaire design to measure characteristics of the population and produces statistical outcomes to try and prove or disprove hypotheses of the study (Bless, Higson-Smith & Kagee, 2006). Surveys are conducted for the general purpose of obtaining information about practices, opinions, attitudes and other characteristics of people. According to Knapp (1998), as cited in Malen, 2008, the most basic function of a survey is description.

1.7 Significance of the study

The research investigates the knowledge and perceptions primary school teachers have of ADHD, its diagnosis and management. Knowledge of a disorder and its treatment course has been found to increase acceptability of interventions (Power, 2000). Identifying teachers' knowledge about ADHD can provide information for pre-service or in-service programs to be adjusted to accommodate training in this area of classroom management. Investigating on how skilled teachers believe they are in implementing various educational interventions is important because there are many interventions which can be implemented by teachers that have been empirically demonstrated to work effectively with students with ADHD. The information resulting from the study is thus useful in terms of areas of development for teachers. Furthermore, the results add to the current information available about ADHD and the rates of referrals due to misperceptions or lack of knowledge about the disorder. Management techniques within the classroom with regard to ADHD can also be explored and implemented in the school setting. Should management techniques be implemented, the academic and social outcomes for children with ADHD could improve. Children displaying symptoms of ADHD can therefore be assisted in order to function to their full potential and aide their well-being.

1.8 Definitions of terms

ADHD: A disorder defined in the Diagnostic and Statistical Manual-Text Revision (DSM-TR) that is characterized by inattention, hyperactivity and impulsivity (American Psychiatric Association, 2000).

Primary school teachers: Teachers who teach in a general education classroom – elementary level/foundation phase to grade 7 (Garcia, 2009).

Diagnosis of ADHD: the identification of factors associated with ADHD/its etiology (Malen, 2008).

Learning disabilities: an inability or difficulty experienced by the child to read, spell, do math or express him-/herself in words (William, 2011).

Child development: refers to the biological and psychological and emotional changes that occur in human beings between birth and the end of adolescence, as the individual progresses from dependency to increasing autonomy (William, 2011).

Psychosocial theory: development is the result of two simultaneous and complex influences, namely genetic and social factors (Schultz, 1990 in Meyer, et al. 2008).

Educational Interventions: Interventions that can be carried out in the classroom by a teacher that research has shown to work effectively for students with ADHD, such as giving a reward for positive behaviour, removing a privilege for negative behavior, or using different modalities when teaching (e.g., large group, small group, independent seat work, videos, overheads, projects, etc.) (Garcia, 2009).

1.9 Layout of the thesis

Chapter 1: Introduction

A broad overview of the study is provided. This chapter describes the aims, background, and rationale and theoretical framework of the study. The objectives from the formulated research problem and hypotheses are introduced. This chapter refers briefly to the understanding of ADHD and the misperceptions held by primary school teachers as well as the implementation of management techniques in the classroom.

Chapter 2: Theoretical Framework and review of Literature

This chapter presents the relevant literature which discusses the prevalence, characteristics, assessment and treatment of ADHD. Classroom management techniques are also highlighted. An overview of Erickson's Psychosocial Theory and how it relates to ADHD is also given.

Chapter 3: Methodology

Chapter 3 is centrally focused on the method of conducting the research. Here specific attention is given to how the study was conducted based upon the aims and objectives of the study, sample characteristics, measuring instruments, data collection and analysis procedures, as well as ethical considerations.

Chapter 4: Results

This chapter is a presentation of the results in tables and graphs, following the analysis outlined in chapter 3. Descriptive and inferential statistics are presented in this chapter.

Chapter 5: Discussion and recommendations

This chapter concludes the study with a discussion of the main findings integrated with previous research identified in chapter 2. Limitations of the study are provided and concluded with recommendations for further study.

CHAPTER 2

THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK AND A REVIEW OF LITERATURE

2.1 Introduction

This literature review presents the theoretical framework of Erickson and how it relates to ADHD. Information regarding the prevalence and characteristics of ADHD as well as its assessment and treatment is then presented. Finally classroom and behavioural management techniques that have been proven effective for children with ADHD are discussed.

2.2 Theoretical framework: Erickson's psychosocial theory

The theoretical framework underpinning this study is the psychosocial theory of Erikson (1968). Erikson (1968) divided human development into eight stages. Each stage has a particular conflict that has to be resolved before the individual moves on to the next stage. Once the conflict in each stage has been successfully resolved, an ego-strength outcome is achieved, which build towards the development of a healthy self-concept. It also prepares the individual for crises that emerge later in life (Mussen, et al., 1994; Phares, 1984; Shaffer, 1993; Soenens, 2006 as cited in Allen, 2006). Failure to resolve the conflict of a particular stage may markedly affect the person's capacity to cope successfully with the next stage (Grootboom, 1999:33). Ultimately, the individual's self is affected either positively or negatively. Children, who have a 'negative' self, will exhibit low self-esteem. The self-esteem of an individual has a profound effect on progress at school and experience of the school environment. Inappropriate behaviours can be exhibited which in turn can be

construed as attention-deficit, learning disabilities or oppositional defiance disorder. Erikson (1963) viewed the primary school years as critical for the development of self-confidence.

Children with ADHD often have low self-esteem (Reiff &Tippins, 2004; Selikowitz, 2004; Wender, 2000) and this low self-esteem has been found to carry on into adulthood (Shaw-Zirt et al., 2005; Wender, 2000). Ideally, the primary school provides many opportunities for children to achieve the recognition of teachers, parents and peers by drawing pictures, solving mathematical problems, writing sentences, and so on. Additionally if children are encouraged to make and do things and are praised for their accomplishments, they begin to demonstrate industry by being diligent, persevering at tasks until completed and by putting work before pleasure. If children are instead ridiculed or punished for their efforts or if they find they are incapable of meeting their teachers' and parents' expectations, they develop feelings of inferiority about their capabilities (Allen, Eileen; Marotz & Lynn, 2003). Children with ADHD are at increased risk for academic underachievement, grade retention, suspension or expulsion from school, special education placement, and socialization deficiencies.

Usually children between the ages of 6 to 12 are diagnosed with symptoms of ADHD (Gray, 2008). The focus of this study is thus on the fourth psychosocial stage of development namely Industry versus Inferiority which occurs from the age of 6 years until the onset of puberty. During this stage the repertoire of motor and mental abilities greatly expands. Children are eager to learn and accomplish more complex skills like reading, writing and telling time. Thus, the favorable outcome of this stage is for the child to learn to acquire direction, purpose and competence in activities.

2.3 Prevalence and characteristics of ADHD

2.3.1 Prevalence of ADHD

Initially, ADHD appeared to be a problem plagued by Western, industrialised, English-speaking countries and was particularly considered to be an American phenomenon. The highest prevalence estimates were found in North America, with prevalence estimates for Europe increasing. Cross-cultural studies have also claimed that ADHD is on the increase in developing countries (e.g. ADHD was estimated between 6-10 % in Africa; Kashala, Tylleskar, Elgen, Kayembe and Sommerfelt, 2005; Ofovwe, Ofovwe and Meyer, 2006; Hyperactivity Association of South Africa). Prevalence estimates have traditionally ranged between 1.7 – 17.8% of the population of schoolchildren in the literature, with American populations typically reporting higher rates for ADHD. In the USA estimates have ranged from 5-7% of schoolchildren in Guevara (2001), 7-8% by Barkley (2006), while Breggin (1999) cited estimates of 10-12% from the International Narcotics Control Board (1998). According to DSM-IV, prevalence estimates are more conservative at 3-5%.

According to recent data from the ADHD support group in South Africa (ADHASA), approximately 8% to 10% of the South African population is reported to have been diagnosed with ADHD (Picton, 2012). Flischer et al. (2009) (as cited in Perold, et al., 2008), state that the prevalence of ADHD in South Africa corresponds with that of the United States and Europe.

ADHD is more prevalent in boys than girls, and it affects 3–5% of children in South Africa. Statistics have shown that the prevalence of diagnosed ADHD children are aged 6 -17 years, with and without learning difficulties (Patricia & Pastor, 2010:15). Boys are more likely than girls to have been diagnosed with ADHD. Boys (6.7%) are more than twice as likely as girls

(2.5%) to have ADHD. The male: female ratio ranges from 2:1 - 9:1, depending on the subtype of the disorder (mainly inattentive or mainly hyperactive-impulsive).

Evidence suggests that diagnosis could be influenced by gender, as well as non-adherence to diagnostic criteria, with subsequent over diagnosis of ADHD. Boys might be seen as the more prototypical ADHD child and therefore diagnosed with ADHD more readily than girls.

Boys (5.1%) are about twice as likely as girls (2.3%) to have both ADHD and LD (Learning Difficulty).In terms of race, the treatment and diagnosis for Attention Deficit Hyperactivity Disorder (ADHD) in South Africa are lower for black children than for white children (1.7% versus 4.4% in 2005) (Patricia & Pastor, 2010). According to a South African study in Limpopo, the prevalence and sex ratios of ADHD are very similar to those reported in Western countries. It suggests that ADHD is caused by the same fundamental neurobiological processes (genetic factors) expressed independently of cultural differences. However, cultural differences do affect the performance on neuropsychological measures. The reason may be that cultural factors are important determinants of child rearing practices which may affect the brain's organization of cognition. There is therefore a need for assessment methods that are culturally valid for different ethnic groups. Thus, systematic research to identify and develop and/or adapt the neuropsychological instruments required to assess ADHD symptomatology is greatly needed (Meyer, 2004).

Though controversy persists about the influence of culture and geographical locations on the epidemiology of ADHD, there has been general agreement amongst studies that method of assessment, diagnostic criteria employed, source of information and inclusion of impairments in functioning in operational definition criteria, greatly influence the prevalence rates documented in the literature (Meyer, 2004).

2.3.2 Characteristics of ADHD

ADHD is a condition of the brain that "challenges the individual to control impulses" (American Psychiatric Association, 2000). It is characterized by the *Diagnostic and Statistical Manual of Mental Disorders 4th ed., Text Revision* (*DSM-IV TR*) as a continuous pattern of inattention and a displayed amount of hyperactivity/impulsive behaviour not in compliance with the normal developmental behaviour of a child without ADHD.

As one of the most common chronic conditions of childhood it is also often accompanied by emotional immaturity, aggressiveness and poor academic performance (National Institute of Mental Health, 2012). According to the American Psychiatric Association (APA; 2000), there are three sub-types that are associated with ADHD namely, 1) ADHD/Combined Type, 2) ADHD/Predominantly Inattentive Type, and 3) ADHD/Predominantly Hyperactive-Impulsive Type. Considerations for each diagnosis are dependent upon which symptoms are most prevalent. For the combined type, six symptoms of hyperactive-impulsivity and six of inattentiveness must be present to form a diagnosis. For the predominantly inattentive type, six or more inattentive symptoms but fewer hyperactive-impulsivity symptoms must be present. Lastly, for the hyperactive-impulsive type six or more of hyperactivity-impulsivity but fewer inattention symptoms must be present (APA, 2000).

The following are the signs and symptoms (characteristics) needed for the diagnosis of ADHD (APA, 2000).

a) Inattention:

- Often fails to give close attention to details or makes careless mistakes in schoolwork, work, or other activities.

- Often has difficulty sustaining attention in tasks or play activities.
- Often does not seem to listen when spoken to directly.
- Often does not follow through on instructions and fails to finish schoolwork, chores, or duties in the workplace.
- Often have difficulty organizing tasks and activities.
- Often avoids, dislikes, or is reluctant to engage in tasks that require sustained mental effort (schoolwork or homework).
- Often loses things necessary for tasks or activities (books, toys).
- Is often easily distracted by extraneous stimuli,
- Is often forgetful in daily activities.

b) Hyperactivity-impulsivity:

- Often fidgets with hands or feet or squirms in seat.
- Often leaves seat in classroom or in other situation in which remaining seated is expected.
- Often runs about or climbs excessively in situations in which it is inappropriate.
- Often has difficulty playing or engaging in leisure activities quietly.
- Is often "on the go" or often acts as if "driven by a motor."
- Often talks excessively.

- Often blurts out answers before questions have been completed,
- Often has difficulty waiting turn.
- Often interrupts or intrudes on others (example: butts into conversation or games).

These symptoms should be present in two or more settings (for example at school and at home). A child must also have the symptoms for six or more months and to a degree that is greater than that of other children of the same age. All signs and symptoms must have been pronounced prior to age 7 for a diagnosis of ADHD to be made (APA, 2000).

2.4 Assessment of ADHD

One of the first steps in any successful intervention is to conduct a comprehensive and accurate assessment. Assessment of ADHD in school settings is important because it provides a foundation on which effective treatment is built. Research suggests that somewhat different treatments should be used for children who are assessed as having ADHD as compared to children who are assessed as having anxiety, depression or other adjustment difficulties (Lonigan, Elbert, & Johnson, 1998). Identifying ADHD may have considerable implications for the child's experience at school. In particular, a child who is identified as having ADHD may become eligible for additional resources from the school, such as one-on-one time with a teacher aide or support from a special education teacher, whereas children with other difficulties may not. Thus, **accurate assessment** of ADHD in school settings, is a critical step in effectively treating ADHD in schools (Atkins & Pelham, 1991).

Components of an accurate assessment of ADHD in school settings include: (1) evaluating the defining features of ADHD (inattention, impulsivity and hyperactivity) and (2) evaluating the functional deficits (or associated features) associated with ADHD. Each component is

important. Assessing the defining features of ADHD is important because it provides a link to a considerable body of knowledge on treatments for ADHD and because it can help determine whether the child is eligible to receive treatment.

2.4.1 Assessment of defining features

Rating Scales: Rating scales are one of the most, if not the most, widely used measures of children's adjustment. Two types of teacher ratings have been developed for assessing ADHD. The first type is based on the clinical psychology literature and consists of the symptoms of ADHD, as specified in the current DSM diagnostic nomenclature. Typically, these items are rated on Likert scales anchored by the degree to which they are present in a child (for example, "not at all present" to "very much present"). These types of teacher ratings of ADHD can be used to provide an estimate of whether a particular child meets symptomatic criteria consistent with an ADHD diagnosis. Examples include the Disruptive Behaviour Disorder (DBD) Rating Scale (Pelham et al., 1992), the Swanson Nolan and Pelham-IV (Swanson, 1996), the Child and Adolescent Disruptive Behaviour Inventory (Burns et al., 1997), the ADHD rating scale (DuPaul, 1991), the Vanderbilt Rating Scale (Wolraich, Feurer, Hannah, Baumgaertel &Pinnock, 1998), and many others.

Observations: Observations of the child's behaviour in his or her classroom, on the playground or both can also be an important aspect of assessing ADHD. The main advantage of using observational methods in school is obtaining direct information about ADHD behaviours without the subjective filter of teacher perception. This can be important because teachers may have a tendency to view children with oppositional problems alone as having both oppositional problems and ADHD, even though objective measures would suggest that they do not have ADHD (Abikoff, Courtney, Pelham, & Koplewicz, 1993; Stevens, Quittner, & Abikoff, 1998). Numerous coding schemes have been developed to evaluate classroom

behaviour (Abikoff, Gittelman-Klein, & Klein, 1977; Barkley, 1990; Pelham, Gnagy, & Greiner, 1994 as cited in Small, 2003). One example of an empirically sound observation system for use in both classroom and playground settings is the Classroom Observations of Conduct and Attention Deficit Disorder (COCADD), developed by Atkins, Pelham, and colleagues (Atkins et al., 1985; Atkins, Pelham, & Licht, 1988, 1989, as cited in Small, 2003). The COCADD system consists of 64 codes (32 for classroom activities, 32 for playground activities) that assess behavioural categories (position, physical–social orientation, vocal activities, non-vocal activities, play activities). These categories are combined into seven global classroom scores (overactive, distracted and verbally disruptive, off task, verbally aggressive, physically aggressive, and stealing/cheating) and five playground scores (verbal disruptive, verbal aggressive, physical aggressive, stealing/cheating and highly active play).

2.4.2 Assessment of functional deficits

Teacher Ratings: Similar to the assessment of ADHD symptoms, teacher ratings are a useful measure of the functional deficits associated with ADHD. As noted above, teacher ratings have been developed for a wide variety of constructs, but among the more useful and most overlooked for assessing functional deficits associated with ADHD are ratings of impairment. Impairment is a critical aspect of assessment of ADHD because inattention, impulsivity and hyperactivity are very common behaviours exhibited by elementary-age children. What distinguishes normative levels of these behaviours (in other words, levels found in typically developing children), from pathological levels found in children with ADHD, is the degree to which these behaviours cause children “real-life” difficulties or impairment in daily life functioning. In other words, whereas typically developing children do not experience significant impairment from their inattention, hyperactivity or impulsivity, children with

ADHD do (this means, impairment in daily life functioning is required in addition to symptoms for a DSM diagnosis of ADHD). Clearly, assessing impairment is a crucial component of evaluating and understanding ADHD.

Teacher Interview: Interviewing teachers to determine the functional deficits experienced by children with ADHD, is universally recommended in writings on school intervention methods (Walker, Colvin, & Ramsey, 1995; Wielkiewicz,1995), and numerous interviews and forms have been developed for this purpose (Sterling-Turner, Robinson, & Wilczynski, 2001). The interview provides a structure for evaluating the child's referring problems and the possible controlling environmental variables (antecedents and consequences), as well as the classroom management practices that the teacher has employed with the target child and with other children. The teacher's evaluation of the effectiveness (if tried) of various interventions with the child and classroom is assessed, as well as the teacher's preferences regarding possible interventions that might be employed in the classroom and his or her opinion regarding the possible functions of the target behaviours (for example, to gain peer attention, self-stimulation, to avoid tasks, etc.). Such an interview is the first step in performing a functional analysis that sets the stage for intervention.

2.5 Treatment of ADHD

Although all people diagnosed with ADHD may not receive treatment, there are numerous research studies dedicated to determining the most efficacious treatments for children and adolescents diagnosed with ADHD. There are four empirically supported treatments for adolescents and children with ADHD: 1) behavioural parent training, 2) behavioural school-based interventions, 3) intensive peer-focused behavioural interventions and 4) medication (American Academy of Paediatrics, 2001; Pelham & Fabiano, 2008).

1) Pharmacological treatment

The most common type of medication used for treating ADHD is called a "stimulant." Although it may seem unusual to treat ADHD with a medication considered a stimulant, it actually has a calming effect on children with ADHD. Many types of stimulant medications are available. A few other ADHD medications are non-stimulants and work differently than stimulants. For many children, ADHD medications reduce hyperactivity and impulsivity and improve their ability to focus, work, and learn. Medication also may improve physical coordination (NIMH, 2008).

However, a one-size-fits-all approach does not apply for all children with ADHD. What works for one child might not work for another. One child might have side effects with a certain medication, while another child may not. Sometimes several different medications or dosages must be tried before finding one that works for a particular child. Any child taking medications must be monitored closely and carefully by caregivers and doctors (NIMH, 2008).

Over the years, a number of medications have been developed to treat ADHD. Benzedrine, the first known medication used to treat children with ADHD, was used by Dr. Charles Bradley in 1950 (Mayes & Refalovich, 2007). Benzedrine was described as making a striking change in school behaviour, resulting in an increased interest in class work, a reduction of disruptive behaviour and stronger work habits (Mayes & Refalovich, 2007). In 1955, a powerful psychiatric medication called Shlorpromazine or Thorazine, commonly used to treat adults in asylums, was used to treat children with hyperactivity (Mayes & Refalovich, 2007). In 1955, Ritalin was developed and it was approved by the Food and Drug Administration in 1961 (Mayes & Refalovich, 2007). All medications used for treating ADHD increase the

amount of dopamine and norepinephrine in the brains neurotransmitters (a neurohormone that acts as a neurotransmitter (chemicals which allows the transmission of signals from one neuron to the next across synapses) that helps control the brain's reward and pleasure centres (Selikowitz, 2004). Ritalin is a stimulant that blocks dopamine transporters in the brain by increasing neurotransmitter levels which in turn decreases restlessness and improves the ability to focus (Selikowitz, 2004).

In 1960 a researcher discovered that children without ADHD demonstrated similar improvements in behaviour to stimulants as children with ADHD (Rapoport et al., 1978; as cited in Mayes & Rafolovich, 2007). This study raised serious questions and concerns over the validity of treating children with stimulant drugs. However, since that time, a vast amount of studies have demonstrated the effective use of medications for treating ADHD (Barkley & DuPaul, 1991; DuPaul & White, 2006; Pelham et al., 1993).

Current medications do not cure ADHD. Rather, they control the symptoms for as long as they are taken. Medications can help a child pay attention and complete schoolwork. It is not clear, however, whether medications can help children learn or improve their academic skills. Adding behavioural therapy, counselling and practical support can help children with ADHD and their families to better cope with everyday problems. Research funded by the National Institute of Mental Health (NIMH) has shown that medication works best when treatment is regularly monitored by the prescribing doctor and the dose is adjusted based on the child's needs (NIMH, 2008).

Pelham et al. (1993) examined the effectiveness of treating ADHD with medication alone and treating ADHD with medication combined with behaviour modification techniques. Evidence suggests that treatments emphasizing both the psychological and emotional aspects of ADHD

are beneficial interventions for improving academic and behavioural functioning among children with ADHD (DuPaul & White; Pelham et al.; Raggi & Chronis, 2006). Treatment of choice for ADHD which is discussed here under is therefore psycho-stimulant medication, educational interventions, behaviour modification procedures, as well as diet manipulation and supplements. Performance effects on these intervention strategies require close monitoring and feedback to all relevant role players to improve the child's behaviour (DuPaul & Stoner, 2003).

2) Psychotherapy

Different types of psychotherapy are used for ADHD. Behavioural therapy aims to help a child change his or her behaviour. It might involve practical assistance, such as help organizing tasks or completing schoolwork, or working through emotionally difficult events. Behavioural therapy also teaches a child how to monitor his or her own behaviour. Learning to give oneself praise or rewards for acting in a desired way, such as controlling anger or thinking before acting, is another goal of behavioural therapy. Parents and teachers can also give positive or negative feedback for certain behaviours. In addition, clear rules, chore lists, and other structured routines can help a child control his or her behaviour. Therapists may teach children social skills, such as how to wait their turn, share toys, ask for help, or respond to teasing. Learning to read facial expressions and the tone of voice in others and how to respond appropriately, can also be part of social skills training.

2.6 Management of ADHD

1) Parental training

Parental training in behaviour therapy and classroom behaviour interventions has been shown to have positive results in the management of ADHD. Parent training is a psychosocial

management technique for ADHD that is different from most other management techniques because it works indirectly with the child through the parent or caregiver (Anastopoulous & Farley, 2003). Parent training provides parents with specific parenting skills and behaviour modification techniques for children with ADHD. Parent training programs seek to provide the parents of a child/adolescent with ADHD the tools to help manage their child's behaviour. Some components of a parent training program include psycho-education regarding ADHD, exploring the parent/child interaction, emphasizing the importance on specific praise and positive reinforcement, utilizing effective commands, behaviour management strategies for providing consequences for behaviour (i.e. token system, response-cost, time-out), and then generalizing skills to public places. Providing parents with core parenting skills and modifying how they manage their child's daily routine can significantly impact on their child's behaviour (Anastopoulous & Farley, 2003).

Parents are also encouraged to share a pleasant or relaxing activity with the child, to notice and point out what the child does well, and to praise the child's strengths and abilities. They may also learn to structure situations in more positive ways. For example, they may restrict the number of playmates to one or two, so that their child does not become overstimulated. Or, if the child has trouble completing tasks, parents can help their child divide large tasks into smaller, more manageable steps. Also, parents may benefit from learning stress-management techniques to increase their own ability to deal with frustration, so that they can respond calmly to their child's behaviour (NIMH, 2008).

2) Tips to Help Kids Stay Organized and Follow Directions

Schedule: Keep the same routine every day, from wake-up time to bedtime. Include time for homework, outdoor play, and indoor activities. Keep the schedule on the refrigerator or on a bulletin board in the kitchen. Write changes on the schedule as far in advance as possible.

Organize everyday items. Have a place for everything and keep everything in its place. This includes clothing, backpacks and toys.

Use homework and notebook organizers. Use organizers for school material and supplies. Stress to your child the importance of writing down assignments and bringing home the necessary books.

Be clear and consistent. Children with ADHD need consistent rules they can understand and follow.

Give praise or rewards when rules are followed. Children with ADHD often receive and expect criticism. Look for good behaviour, and praise it (NIMH, 2008).

3) Classroom management

Some basic strategies for academic interventions involve choice making which allows the student to choose between different classroom activities or tasks. In addition, the active teaching of rules including having teachers continually remind the student of classrooms rules verbally, and through example, has also been shown to reduce classroom behaviour problems (DuPaul & Stoner, 2003; DuPaul &Weyandt, 2006). Studies have indicated that computer assisted instruction may also be effective in improving the reading and mathematics skills of children with ADHD (Clarfield & Stoner, 2005; Mautone, DuPaul, & Jitendra, 2005). Academic interventions are implemented in order to enhance task engagement and improve academic performance (DuPaul & Weyandt, 2006). Instructional or task modifications include reducing tasks through shortening the length, or dividing into units, setting learning

goals, providing clear instructions or modifying instruction to fit the individual learning style (Raggi & Chronis, 2006). There are three types of classroom interventions commonly used for children with ADHD. These include a) behaviour management (token reinforcement, teacher mediated task modifications, self-management, self-monitoring); (DuPaul & Stoner, 2003; DuPaul &Weyandt, 2006; Raggi et al., 2006), b) academic support (peer tutoring, computed assisted instruction) and c) social skills development (social skills training). (DuPaul &Weyandt, 2006).

a) Behaviour Management

There are a multitude of behaviour management strategies available to address classroom behaviours commonly associated with ADHD. These strategies are used to prevent the occurrence of problematic behaviour (DuPaul &Weyandt, 2006). Behaviour management strategies typically take a consequent-based approach by attempting to increase acceptable behaviour and decrease problematic behaviour (DuPaul & Weyandt, 2006). DuPaul and Weyandt (2006) described empirically-based behaviour management strategies to include prudent reprimands, response cost and token reinforcement. Prudent reprimands are brief, calm and quiet statements delivered with eye contact toward the child. Response cost happens when parents become involved in rewarding or punishing school behaviour in the home setting (for instance a daily report card). Token reinforcement occurs when the student receive immediate rewards for appropriate behaviour (for example points, stickers) in the classroom (DuPaul & Weyandt, 2006; Rief,2005).

b) Self-Management Approaches

Self-management approaches are interventions implemented by the children themselves. This approach is designed to promote children's own self-control behaviours (DuPaul & Weyandt,

2006). Examples of this type of intervention include self-monitoring, self-evaluation, self-monitoring plus self-reinforcement, and self-reinforcement (Reid, Trout, & Schartz, 2005, as cited by DuPaul &Weyandt, 2006). Another example would be organization and homework management interventions that allow students to self-manage their homework by recording assignments in a planner and getting teacher initials for completed homework (Langberg, Epstein, Urbanowicz, Simon & Graham, 2008).

b (i) Peer Tutoring

Peer tutoring is an intervention requiring that children with ADHD be paired with a child without ADHD as a peer tutor providing academic assistance in learning material (Raggi & Chronis, 2006). Peer tutoring can either be with an individual tutor or multiple classmates serving as peer tutors, referred to as class-wide peer tutoring (DuPaul & Weyandt,2006; Reggi & Chronis). Peer tutoring has been demonstrated to enhance the classroom, academic, and behaviour performances of children with ADHD (DuPaul & Henningson,1993; DuPaul, Ervin, Hook, & McGoey;1998).

b (ii) Computer-assisted Instruction

Computer-assisted instruction is a type of intervention which provides an alternate way of instruction and learning for children with ADHD (Raggi & Chronis, 2006). Computer software is used to provide children with ADHD the ability to focus on learning activities with a limited amount of distraction, through the use of large print and multiple colours, to maintain their attention (DuPaul &Weyandt, 2006). Studies have indicated that computer-assisted instruction is beneficial in improving the reading and mathematics skills of children with ADHD (Garfield & Stoner, 2005; Mautone et al., 2005 as cited in Malen, 2008). Computer-assisted instruction appears to be more successful in improving the on-task

behaviour of students with ADHD as compared to teacher-directed instruction (Clarfield & Stoner, 2003).

c) Social Interventions

There has been a variety of interventions studied to improve the social skills of children with ADHD. (Fenstermacher, Olympia, & Sheridan,2006; Sheridan, Dee, Morgan, McCormick, & Walker, 1996). Social skills training provide the opportunity for children with ADHD to learn age-appropriate social cues, behaviours, and perspectives (Reif, 2005). One study investigated the effectiveness of social skills programs by utilizing a computer facilitated interactive program with four children with ADHD (Fenstermacher et al., 2006). The program included a variety of computer-facilitated social skill sequences as video peer modelling, reinforcement components and social problem solving. Each child attended six 50-minute sessions during which they viewed a video modelling problem-solving skills, participated in interactive video problem solving scenarios and received computer generated feedback and reinforcement for appropriate responses. Computer-generated data from the social skills program and analogue role-play assessments were collected 3 and 6 week post-intervention in addition to direct observations which occurred during the baseline, treatment, and follow-up periods. The Behaviour Intervention Rating Scale (BIRS) was utilized by parents and children and the Social Skills Rating System (SSRS) was utilized by the observers, parents and children in measuring the children's levels of social behaviour. Results indicated that children's levels of problem-solving skills increased significantly and they maintained their improved skills both at the 3 and 6 week follow-ups. The intervention was also positively reviewed by parents and children (Fenstermacher, et al., 2006).

An Overall Strategy for the Successful Instruction of Children with ADHD

When selecting and implementing successful instructional strategies and practices, it is imperative to understand the characteristics of the child, including those pertaining to disabilities or diagnoses. This knowledge will be useful in the evaluation and implementation of successful practices, which are often the same practices that benefit students without ADHD (U.S. Department of Education, 2006).

Teachers who are successful in educating children with ADHD use a three-pronged strategy. They begin by identifying the unique needs of the child. For example, the teacher determines how, when, and why the child is inattentive, impulsive, and hyperactive. The teacher then selects different educational practices associated with academic instruction, behavioural interventions and classroom accommodations that are appropriate to meet that child's needs. Finally, the teacher combines these practices into an individualized educational program (IEP) or other individualized plan and integrates this program with educational activities provided to other children in the class. The three-pronged strategy, in summary, is as follows:

- **Evaluate the child's individual needs and strengths.** Assess the unique educational needs and strengths of a child with ADHD in the class. Working with a multidisciplinary team and the child's parents, consider both academic and behavioural needs, using formal diagnostic assessments and informal classroom observations. Assessments, such as learning style inventories, can be used to determine children's strengths and enable instruction to build on their existing abilities. The settings and contexts in which challenging behaviours occur should be considered in the evaluation (U.S. Department of Education, 2006).

- **Select appropriate instructional practices.** Determine which instructional practices will meet the academic and behavioural needs identified for the child. Select practices that fit the content, are age appropriate, and gain the attention of the child (U.S. Department of Education, 2006).

- **For children receiving special education services, integrate appropriate practices within an IEP.** In consultation with other educators and parents, an IEP should be created to reflect annual goals and the special education-related services, along with supplementary aids and services necessary for attaining those goals. Plan how to integrate the educational activities provided to other children in your class with those selected for the child with ADHD (U.S. Department of Education, 2006).

Because no two children with ADHD are alike, it is important to keep in mind that no single educational program, practice or setting will be best for all children.

While not exhaustive, this account of international inclusive practice provides a useful framework for the exploration of South African inclusive practice. However, not all of the international inclusive practices described have been incorporated into South African policy and guidelines, for example, teacher aides and special needs co-ordinators that are essential for the implementation of inclusive education, are not mentioned in the White Paper, and specialist support personnel are envisaged to operate at district, rather than school level (DoE, 2005).

South Africa is a relative newcomer to inclusive education and can benefit from the theoretical journeys and practical experiences of countries such as the United Nations. However, because of South Africa's unique historical, educational and socio-economic

context, the expression of inclusion will be different and the challenges and opportunities experienced here will require local research and response.

2.7 Conclusion

Children with ADHD are at serious risk of underachievement in school, dropping out of school, engaging in criminal activity and becoming substance abusers. Teachers can play a major role in preventing these students from suffering from these types of problems throughout their lives. Although classroom interventions are available for working with children with ADHD, one study demonstrated that mainstream teachers had limited knowledge of intervention strategies they might use to effectively instruct children with ADHD. Primary methods teachers used to address ADHD were punishment and communication with their parents. Given the academic and behavioural challenges associated with ADHD and the apparent lack of knowledge regarding ADHD and effective interventions among mainstream classroom teachers, it is important to further study teacher knowledge of and practice related to children with ADHD. Statistics have also shown that ADHD is more prevalent in boys than in girls. Learners with ADHD are subject to many neurological, genetic, psychological, health, family, environmental and educational factors. However, there are many interventions beneficial in the treatment of such learners. Some of which are medical treatment, dietary control, psychological treatment and behaviour therapy. Educators and parents dealing with ADHD learners need to have high levels of understanding, knowledge and tolerance towards them. There are many support structures and guidelines to assist and guide educators and parents to cope and handle such learners. These include the Guidelines for inclusive learning programme (DOE, 2005), and structures such as ADHASA (Attention Deficit Hyperactivity Support group South Africa), various therapists (for example occupational therapists, speech therapists, psychologists) and healthcare practitioners.

Educators and parents can work towards collaborative consultation to overcome the challenges and difficulties they face with ADHD learners. This chapter examined the literature regarding ADHD, its prevalence, characteristics, assessment, treatment and behavioural and classroom management techniques. The next chapter will focus on the methodology of the study.

CHAPTER 3

METHODOLOGY

3.1 Introduction

A quantitative study may be defined as an inquiry into a social or human problem, based on testing a theory composed of variables, measured with numbers and analysed with statistical procedures in order to determine whether the predictive generalizations of the theory hold true (Creswell, 1994 as cited in De Vos, Strydom, Fouche & Delport,2002). Quantitative research generates quantifiable data. It is primarily concerned with observable and measurable phenomena involving people, events or things, and establishing the strength of the relationship between variables, usually by statistical tests (Couchman & Dawson, 1995). It lends itself to investigating phenomena that require precise measurement and quantification often involving a rigorous and controlled design in order to enhance objectivity (Pilot & Beck, 2004). A quantitative research primarily rests upon numbers aggregated into statistics, to enable the researcher to interpret obtained data and reach conclusions (Cormack, 1996). This chapter describes the processes that contributed to the development of the study, the pilot study including a descriptive analysis of data, data collection and analysis procedure, instruments and the issues of ethical considerations.

3.2 Research Methodology

Methodology is concerned with how we come to know, but is much more practical in nature (Babbie & Mouton, 2001). Methodology is focused on the specific ways that we can use the methods to try to understand our world better (Trochim, 2006). Thus a methodology is the method of research employed to conduct the research and gather information. This study used

a quantitative methodological approach which focuses on investigation and measurement as forms of inquiry.

Quantitative research requires statistical descriptions and inferences and to disprove hypotheses for resultant relationships between the variables of a study (Bless, Higson-Smith & Kagee, 2006). Furthermore, objective data resulting from empirical observations and measures used for testing the validity and reliability of scores on instruments which lead to meaningful interpretations of data are additional characteristics of quantitative methodologies (Kumar, 2005).

3.3 Research Design

The current study used a quantitative methodological approach with a descriptive cross-sectional survey design. In cross-sectional studies variables of interest in a sample of subjects are assessed once and the relationships between them are determined (Hopkins, 2000). Cross-sectional studies are carried out at one point in time or over a short period. They are usually conducted to estimate the prevalence of the outcome of interest for a given population. Data can also be collected on individual characteristics, including exposure to risk factors, alongside information about the outcome. In this way cross-sectional studies provide a 'snapshot' of the outcome and the characteristics associated with it, at a specific point in time (Cherry, 2010). Additionally, in survey designs, survey research uses scientific sampling and questionnaire design to measure characteristics of the population and produces statistical outcomes to try and prove or disprove hypotheses of the study (Bless, Higson-Smith & Kagee, 2006). Surveys are conducted for the general purpose of obtaining information about practices, opinions, attitudes and other characteristics of people. According to Knapp (1998), the most basic function of a survey is description.

3.4 Sample

This study was conducted at 28 primary schools in Kimberley. The pilot study was conducted at four schools that was not part of the main study. Upon request by the Department of Education, five out of eight special needs schools were added and formed part of the sample of 23 schools from previously disadvantaged and advantaged areas. Lists of names of teachers from grades 1 to 5 were used as a sampling frame, as it is within these grades that children are mostly referred for treatment of ADHD symptoms.

Population is defined as a complex set of individuals that a researcher wishes to study (Hinton, 2004). The population used in this study consisted of the primary school teachers in the Kimberley area. The sample of the study was drawn from a list of educators from 23 schools, 10 in previously advantaged areas and 13 in previously disadvantaged areas. The schools are located in areas according to the previous apartheid dispensation with areas geographically located according to socio-economic status. There are approximately between 8 to 20 grade 1 to 5 teachers at each school which resulted in the final sample of 200 participants. Gender was included based on a 50% split.

Balnaves and Caputi (2000) define sampling as a technique for selecting a subset of units of analyses from a population, suggesting that good sampling achieves representativeness. The technique of probability sampling was applied to the study as it involves the selection of a "random sample" from a list containing the names of everyone in the population you are interested in studying (Babbie & Mouton, 2001). The final sample consisted of 11% males and 89 % females. The racial categories were Coloured (n=82), African (n=68), White (n=47) and Indian (n=3) teachers.

3.5 Research Instrument

Participants completed self-reported questionnaires (Appendix C). The study used the Knowledge of Attention- Deficit-Disorder Scale (KADDS; Sciutto, et al., 2000) with additional items to collect biographical data, diagnosis of ADHD and management of children with ADHD in the classroom. The first section in the questionnaire contains demographic items examining age, gender, ethnicity, marital status, religion, number of years teaching and current grade level.

The next section contained the Knowledge of Attention Deficit Disorder Scale (KADDS; Sciutto, et al., 2000) consisting of 36 items. This scale was used to measure teachers' understanding and perceptions of the disorder. (See attached **Appendix C**). Examples of questions are as follows:

1. Teachers have access to research material on ADHD T F DK (Where T is true, F is false and DK is don't know)
2. In order to be diagnosed with ADHD, the child's symptoms must have been present before age seven T F DK
3. Antidepressant drugs have been effective in reducing symptoms for many children with ADHD. T F DK

A third section consisted of four questions with yes/no answers to investigate whether teachers have access to research material, whether they received any training on ADHD, whether they ever referred students for diagnosis and treatment, whether they have taught a child displaying symptoms of ADHD, whether they know how to manage ADHD in the classroom and which strategies they use to manage ADHD in the classroom. The section, on the management of ADHD in the classroom, contained 13 questions which were self-constructed based on a review of the literature to assess teachers' knowledge and level of

support regarding the effectiveness of classroom interventions for children with ADHD. Response categories ranged from 1 "Strongly Disagree" to 4 "Strongly Agree". Sample questions included "Class work must be broken down into smaller units for children with ADHD" and "Learning expectations should verbally be set daily before each lesson for children with ADHD."

The Knowledge of Attention Deficit Disorders Scale (KADDS) was constructed to assess important domains of ADHD knowledge (that is associated features, symptoms and diagnosis, treatment) among parents, teachers and mental health professionals. In addition to evaluating these domains of knowledge, the KADDS was also designed to distinguish lack of information about ADHD from incorrect beliefs about the disorder (that is misconceptions). Coefficient alpha for the resulting 36 item instrument was .81 (Bender, 1996). Test-retest correlations for the KADDS scores were moderate to high ($.59 < r < .76$).

3.6 Pilot Study and Results

A pilot study is a preliminary test of a questionnaire or interview schedule which helps to identify problems and benefits associated with the design (Balnaves & Caputi, 2001). Similarly, Terre Blanche, et al., (1999:94) state that pilot studies are preliminary studies on small samples that help to identify potential problems with the design, particularly the research instruments.

The pilot study was conducted with 15% of the identified sample in order to test the data collection method, instrument and reliability of the proposed study. Hence, approval of the study by the Senate for Higher Degrees Committee consequently was provided. Once permission had been received to conduct the study, permission was sought from the Head of Department of the Northern Cape Education Department to conduct the proposed research

with the teachers. The Head of Department offered permission and subsequently scheduled meetings were arranged with the school principals in order to establish a suitable time and venue permitting accessibility to the grade 1 to 5 teachers. The principals agreed to either have the data collected during first break in the mornings or after school. At a few of the schools, because of time constraints, principals requested that the questionnaires be left at the school for the teachers to complete, and collected at a scheduled date. Teachers would then be informed at their staff meetings about the study and handed the questionnaire to complete.

At the beginning of the data collection process, teachers were informed about the purpose, aims and objectives of the study. All ethical processes were adhered to. Teachers were informed that participation in the study is voluntary and they were also asked to complete a consent form (see appendix A) confirming their participation and acceptance into the study. At the schools where the questionnaires were left with the principals, they were informed that teachers who wanted to participate should complete the consent forms. The questionnaire was self-administered allowing the researcher to offer assistance and provide clarity to questions at the schools where she was present. Completion of the questionnaire lasted 30 minutes. Teachers were requested not to leave any of the items/questions blank, but to rather mark 'Don't know'. The questionnaire was constructed in English since this was the language the teachers were more comfortable with. Principals and teachers were requested to indicate whether they had any difficulty in understanding the questions and completing the questionnaire. Contact details of the researcher and supervisor were available to teachers in case they needed to contact the researcher and supervisor.

3.6.1 Results of the pilot study

The data for the pilot was coded, entered, cleaned and analysed with the Statistical Package in the Social Sciences (SPSS). Reported alphas for the KADDS were .59 and .76 (Sciutto & Terjesen, 2004). Coefficient alpha for the resulting 36 item instrument was .81 (Bender, 1996). Test-retest correlations for the KADDS scores were moderate to high (.59 < r < .76).

3.6.2 Changes to the instrument

No major changes were made to the questionnaire, except for adding additional sections to the demographic information of the participants such as: "Marital status:- widowed, divorced, cohabiting, married and never married"; "Religion:- Christian, Muslim, Hindu, Jewish, Buddhist and Other"; and "Home language:- English, Afrikaans, Setswana and Other".

3.6.3 Application of the instrument

The study focused on examining the knowledge of primary school teachers from grade 1 to 5 about ADHD and its management within the classroom. Results proved that it was better for the researcher to be in attendance when the questionnaires were completed as more cooperation was given and questions could be addressed immediately. The timing of the handing out of the questionnaires at schools also played a role in the amount received back/ response rate as more cooperation was given at the beginning of the school term.

3.7 Data collection for the main study

The data collection method for the main study followed the format of the pilot with implemented changes made during the pilot study. The data collection techniques used in the main study was through a self-administered questionnaire. A questionnaire is a set of relevant questions for gathering information from individuals, which is unique to individuals, while

ensuring ethical issues like maintaining participants' privacy (Babbie & Mouton, 2001). According to Balnaves and Caputi (2001) the administration of the questionnaire involves the layout, decisions on length, types of questions, implementation of the survey, monitoring the quality of the answers, response rates and ethical issues.

Approval of the study was provided by the Senate for Higher Degrees Committee. Once permission had been received to conduct the study, permission was sought from the Head of Department of the Northern Cape Education Department to conduct the proposed research with the teachers. The Head of Department offered permission and scheduled meetings were arranged with the school principals in order to establish a suitable time and venue permitting accessibility to the grade 1 to 5 teachers. The principals agreed to either have the data collected during first break in the mornings or after school. At a few of the schools, because of time constraints, principals requested that the questionnaires be left at the school for the teachers to complete, and collected at a scheduled date. Teachers would then be informed at their staff meetings about the study and handed the questionnaire to complete.

At the beginning of the data collection process, teachers were informed about the purpose, aims and objectives of the study. All ethical processes were adhered to. Teachers were informed that participation in the study is voluntary and they were also asked to complete a consent form (see appendix A) confirming their participation and acceptance into the study. At the schools where the questionnaires were left with the principals, they were informed that teachers who wanted to participate should complete the consent forms. The questionnaire was self-administered allowing the researcher to offer assistance and provide clarity to questions at the schools where she was present. Completion of the questionnaire lasted 30 minutes. Teachers were requested not to leave any of the items/questions blank, but to rather mark 'Don't know'. The questionnaire was constructed in English since this was the language the

teachers were more comfortable with. Principals and teachers were requested to indicate whether they had any difficulty in understanding the questions and completing the questionnaire. Contact details of the researcher and supervisor were available to teachers in case they needed to contact the researcher and supervisor.

3.8 Data Analyses

According to Cresswell (2003), the process of data analysis involves making sense of the text by preparing the data for analysis, moving deeper into understanding the data, representing the data, and making an interpretation of the larger meaning of the data. The data was entered, coded, cleaned and analyzed by means of the Statistical Package in the Social Sciences (SPSS) to provide information in terms of percentages, frequencies, means and standard deviations. A descriptive analysis was done to look at how responses to individual items are distributed, thus examining the frequency distribution for individual variables.

The instrument used in the study was the Knowledge of Attention Deficit Disorder Scale (KADDS; Sciutto, et al., 2000). This scale measures teachers' understanding and perceptions of ADHD. The items on the KADDS scale were used to form four measures; an overall knowledge scale and three subscales. The total knowledge scale was the sum of the number of correct items. The scale could range from 1 to 39. Both incorrect answers and "don't know" were coded as "0" while correct answers were coded as "1" for each item on this scale and all the subscales. Higher scores meant more knowledge (Sciutto et al., 2000). The first subscale was designed to measure general information related to ADHD using 15 items. The general information scale was constructed by summing the number of correct responses to those 15 items. The scale could range from 1 to 15. Higher scores meant more knowledge. Items on the general knowledge subscale included "Attention Deficit Disorder occurs in

approximately 5% of all school-aged children" and "It is possible for an adult to be diagnosed with ADHD" (Sciutto et al., 2000).

The second subscale was designed to measure symptoms/diagnosis of ADHD using nine items. The scale was constructed by summing the number of correct responses to those 9 items. The scale could range from 1 to 9. Higher scores meant more knowledge. Items on the symptoms/diagnosis knowledge subscale included "Symptoms must not be present before age 7 to be diagnosed with ADHD," and "Children diagnosed with an attention deficit disorder tend to have poor concentration" (Sciutto et al., 2000).

The third subscale was designed to measure knowledge of the treatment of ADHD using 12 items. The scale was constructed by summing the number of correct responses to those 12 items. The scale could range from 1 to 12. Higher scores meant more knowledge of ADHD treatment. Items on the treatment knowledge subscale included "Stimulant medication increases concentration," and "Electroconvulsive Therapy (ECT) are effective treatments for Attention Deficit Disorder" (Sciutto et al., 2000).

The first section in the questionnaire contained demographic items examining age, gender, ethnicity, marital status, religion, number of years teaching and current grade level. The section on the management of ADHD in the classroom contained 13 questions which were self-constructed based on a review of the literature to assess teachers' knowledge and level of support regarding the effectiveness of classroom interventions for children with ADHD. It uses a 5-point Likert-type scale ranging from 1 = strongly disagree to 5= strongly agree. Items were coded or recoded so that higher scores meant more agreement that the intervention was effective. Coefficient alpha for the 36 item instrument was .81 (Bender, 1996). Test-retest correlations for the KADDS scores were moderate to high ($.59 < r < .76$).

3.9 Ethical Statement

Research ethics emphasizes the sensitive treatment to communicate effectively with research participants who might feel at risk, ensuring the promotion of their welfare and protecting them from harm throughout the research process (Babbie & Mouton, 2001). Butz (2008) furthermore amplifies that it is essential for researchers to employ ethical procedures as underlying ideologies which are important aspects of critical reflexivity. According to Louw and Edwards (1998) ethical consideration is a set of rules or guidelines that is designed to ensure that members of a profession behave competently and within appropriate limits. Participants were thus treated with respect and dignity adhering to the following principles:

Informed consent: The participants were informed in terms of the process and purpose of the research, and thus completed the written consent form for their voluntary participation in the study. The contact details of the researcher and the supervisor were clearly stipulated on the consent form. This form was separated from the questionnaire before the teachers completed the questionnaire to ensure anonymity.

Voluntary information: Participation in the research was voluntary. Teachers were informed about their rights to refuse participation and their freedom to withdraw from the research at any point.

Privacy, anonymity and confidentiality: The researcher handled the acquired information respectfully and it was stored securely. This was done to ensure that each survey is coded using a number instead of a name for identification purposes during the process of data analysis. Students were also informed that they would not be identified as participants in the study and that their information would be confidential. The identities of the participants were therefore protected.

3.10 Conclusion

The research design reflects that a cross-sectional design was used to achieve the aims and objectives of the study. This chapter also included information regarding the sample, the research instrument the data collection process and the data analysis of the study. Ethical considerations were taken into account during the process of data analysis and data collection to ensure full protection of participants with regard to confidentiality and anonymity. The next chapter presents the results of the analysis.

CHAPTER 4

RESULTS

This chapter presents the results of the statistical analysis conducted for the study. The analysis was conducted using the Statistical Package for the Social Sciences 21 (SPSS). The results are presented as (1) descriptive information about the demographics of the primary school teachers, (2) descriptive analysis about primary school teachers' knowledge of the associated features, symptoms and diagnosis as well as treatment of ADHD, and (3) descriptive analysis about the teachers' years of teaching experience, training received and classroom management techniques. The list of variables is presented as a means of understanding the coding used in SPSS to conduct the analysis.

The following is a guide to abbreviations used in the analysis of the data:

Abbreviation	Variable
KADDS	Knowledge of Attention Deficit Hyper-Activity Disorder Scale
GAF	General Associated Features
SAD	Symptoms and Diagnosis
ADHD	Attention Deficit Hyperactivity Disorder

4.1. An overview of the analysis

The following hypothesis evolved from the aims and objectives of the study:

Hypothesis 1: Primary school teachers have limited knowledge of the symptoms of ADHD.

Frequencies and descriptives were used to describe the sample and ADHD knowledge levels. Descriptives were used to rank the order of preference for teacher-supported classroom interventions for ADHD.

4.2 A Description of the demographical characteristics of teachers

Table 4.1 provides an overview of the demographic variables of the primary school teachers. The demographics were age, gender, ethnicity, marital status, religion, number of years teaching and current grade level.

Table 4.1: Demographic descriptions of primary school teachers

Total sample	**Variables**					
N= 200	Gender (%)	Age (average)	Ethnicity	Marital Status	Language	Religion
	Male: 11% Female: 89%	43	White: 23,7% Black: 33,8 % Coloured: 40,9% Indian: 1,5%	Married: 57,6 % Divorced: 11,6 % Widowed: 7,6 % Never married: 23,2 %	Afrikaans: 50% English: 19,2% Setswana: 26,8% Other: 4%	Christian: 96% Muslim: 3,5 % Other: 0,5%

The demographic results in Table 4.1 (see Appendix D) indicate that in terms of gender, more females 89% (n=178) than males 11% (n=22) participated in the study. The results show that the participants identified themselves as Coloured (40, 9%) followed by Black African (33, 8%), White (23, 7%) and Indian (1, 5%). These statistics are indicative of the demographics in terms of the population of the Northern Cape, of which Coloureds are the majority, followed by Black and then the other population groups. Although the majority of participants used Afrikaans (50%) and Setswana (26, 8%) as their home language, some participants used English (19, 2%) and a few (4%) spoke other languages other than Afrikaans, Setswana and English as their home language. Christianity (96%) and Islam (3, 5%) is the most preferred/ followed religions of the respondents whilst 0, 5% of the sample represented other religions besides Christianity or Islam.

Looking at the marital status of the teachers, the majority of the sample were married (57, 6%) whilst the second highest proportion (23, 2%) were never married. The least number was widowed (7, 6%) and 11, 6% were divorced.

Table 4.2: Demographic statistics of primary school teachers (Years of teaching experience and grade levels taught)

Total sample	**Variables**				
N= 200	Grade teaching	Years teaching	Advantage/ disadvantage	School fees payable	Amount payable
	Gr 1: 22,8% Gr 2: 20% Gr 3: 19,4% Gr 5: 16,7%	0-12: 29,5% 13-20: 28,9% 21 or more: 41%	30% advantaged 70% disadvantaged	Yes: 59,3% No: 46,1%	0-100: 42% 300-500: 36% 600-800: 18% 800 or more: 4%

The schools have been divided/categorized according to quintiles. A quintile of a school indicates whether it is an advantaged or disadvantaged school. A quintile of 4 or 5 places the school in the advantaged category, while a quintile of 1 and 2 places a school in the disadvantaged category according to the previous apartheid dispensation. The schools with a quintile of 1 and 2 will therefore qualify as no fee schools, and parents of children from these schools will therefore not be liable/responsible to pay school fees. These are also the schools which participate in the feeding scheme of the Department of Education. The table above indicates that most of the respondents teach the foundation phase grades (1, 2 and 3), with the majority of the sample (22, 8%) teaching grade one. This is followed by grade two teachers who represents 20% of the sample and grade 3 teachers (19, 4%). The least of the sample of teachers (16, 7%) taught grade 5. Looking at years of teaching experience, the majority of

teachers (41%) has more than 21 years, followed by 29, 5% who had 0-12 years and 28, 9% who had 13-20 years of experience. Thirty percent (30%) of the sample taught at advantaged schools (quintiles 4 and 5) whilst the overwhelming majority (70%) taught at disadvantaged schools (quintiles 1 and 2), according to the previous dispensation. Fifty nine point three percent (59, 3%) of the sample of respondents indicated that school fees were payable with the highest amount being between R300 to R500 per month (indicated by 36% of the 59, 3% respondents who answered yes, which calculates to 61% of the sample). The lowest amount was R100 per month which was indicated by 42% of the 59, 3% respondents who responded "yes" (which calculates to 71% of the sample).

4.3 Internal consistencies of measures

Table 4.3: Internal consistencies of KADDS

Descriptive Statistics and Alpha Coefficients

		Sample				
Scale		Elementary Teachers (NY)a N= 149	Elementary Teachers (OH) b N=199	College Students c N=273	School Personnel d N=51	Elementary Education Students e N=63
Total (36 items)	M	46. 57	53.80	45.24	56.80	42.11
	SD	17.91	16.49	16.13	20.68	14.96
	Alpha	.87	.84	.82	.90	.80
Associated Features (15 items)						
	M	40.36	44.32	35.92	47.86	33.66
	SD	18.17	18.15	16.09	20.34	16.57
	Alpha	.69	.67	.56	.74	.60

Symptom/ Diagnosis (9 items)						
	M	62.86	66.44	59.14	66.47	58.60
	SD	23.53	19.76	21.15	23.83	18.78
	Alpha .71		.61	.61	.75	.52
Treatment (12 items)						
	M	42.11	56.16	46.46	60.71	40.32
	SD	20.57	19.84	21.39	23.83	17.93
	Alpha .69		.63	.66	.75	.61

Note: Mean scores represent the percentage of correct responses.
a Sciutto, Terjesen & Bender-Frank (2000)
b Sciutto, Nolfi & Bluhm (2004)
c Sciutto & Terjesen (2004)
d Herbert, Krittenden, & Dalrymple (2004)
e Bender (1996)

Table 4. 3 present the descriptive statistics and alpha coefficients for the KADDS total and subscales from five previous studies that were done. Data from these studies suggest that the KADDS total scale (36 items) has high internal consistency ($.80 < r\alpha < .90$).

According to Anastasi (1982) Cronbach Alpha coefficients above .75 are deemed to be acceptable. The Cronbach Alpha coefficient for the KADDS was .81. The Cronbach Alpha coefficient falls within the acceptable limits indicated by Anastasi (1982). Thus the instrument was considered reliable.

Total Sample: N= 196

Scale	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. deviation	Total score possible
General Associated Features	0	13	5.37 (41, 3%)	2.56	15
Symptoms and Diagnosis	0	9	5.86 (65, 11%)	1.92	9
Treatment	0	10	4.92 (49, 2%)	2.29	12

Table 4.4: Primary school teachers' knowledge of symptoms of ADHD

Item	Min	Max	*M*	*SD*
7) One symptom of children with ADHD is that they have been physically cruel to other people	0	1	.57	.497
32) The majority of children with ADHD evidence some degree of poor school performance in the primary school years.	0	1	.74	.438
26)Children with ADHD often have difficulties organizing tasks and activities	0	1	.82	.386
21) In order to be diagnosed as ADHD, a child must exhibit relevant symptoms in two or more settings (e.g., home, school).	0	1	.85	.354
17) Symptoms of depression are found more frequently in children with ADHD than in children without ADHD.	0	1	.37	.484
16) Current wisdom about ADHD suggests two clusters of symptoms: One of inattention and another consisting of hyperactivity/impulsivity.	0	1	.82	.385
9) Children with ADHD often fidget or squirm in their seats.	0	1	.86	.348
5) In order to be diagnosed with ADHD, the child's symptoms must have been present before age seven	0	1	.49	.501
3) Children with ADHD are frequently distracted by extraneous stimuli	0	1	.85	.363
Total score of teachers on symptoms and diagnosis of ADHD:				

Scale	Min	Max	*M*	*SD*	Total score possible
Symptoms and Diagnosis	0	9	5.86 (65, 11%)	1.92	9

Table 4.4 presents the mean level of knowledge, standard deviation, minimum and maximum scores for all the items on the scale of symptoms and diagnosis among the teachers, as well as the maximum score possible on this scale, if all of the questions were correctly answered. The scores for the symptom/diagnosis scale ranged from 0 to 9 with a mean of 5.86. The mean scores in Table 4.4 indicate the percentage of correct responses. The number of items for this subscale is 9 and therefore the maximum score obtainable is 9 correct responses. Items on the symptoms/diagnosis knowledge subscale included: "Symptoms must not be

present before age 7 to be diagnosed with ADHD," and "children diagnosed with an attention deficit disorder tend to have poor concentration" (Sciutto et al., 2000).

Of the sample of 196, most of the teachers (61, 2%) scored correctly on 7 of the items measuring the symptoms and diagnosis of ADHD namely, item 7 (M= .57; SD= .497), item 32 (M= .74; SD= .438), item 26 (M= .82; SD= .386), item 21 (M= .85; SD= .354), item16 (M= .82; SD= .385), item 9 (M= .86; SD= .348) and item 3 (M= .85; SD= .363). An overall mean score for the 7 items are 5.51, and the SD = .395. Thirty eight point eight percent of the sample answered incorrectly on two of the items namely item 17(M= .37; SD= .484) and item 5(M= .49; SD= .501).

Overall, out of the sample of 196 teachers 65, 11% (M= 5. 86; SD= 1.92) were knowledgeable about the symptoms and diagnosis (SAD) of ADHD. The average score obtainable on this subscale out of 9 is 4.5. The teachers obtained a mean score of 5.86 which is above the average score. It can thus be said that teachers has an above average knowledge base of the symptoms and diagnosis of ADHD and that they correctly identified the **presenting symptoms** of ADHD in children.

Table 4.5: Primary school teachers' knowledge of general associated features of ADHD

Item	Min	Max	*M*	*SD*
1) Most estimates suggest that ADHD occurs in approximately 15% of school age children	0	1	.08	.264
2) Current research suggests that ADHD is largely the result of ineffective parenting skills	0	1	.56	.498
11) It is common for children with ADHD to have an inflated sense of self-esteem or grandiosity.	0	1	.26	.437
14) Children with ADHD often have a history of stealing or destroying other people's things.	0	1	0.37	.484
19) Most children with ADHD "outgrow" their symptoms by the onset of puberty and subsequently function normally in adulthood.	0	1	.26	.437
22) If a child with ADHD is able to demonstrate sustained attention to video games or TV for over an hour, that child is also able to sustain attention for at least an hour of class or homework.	0	1	.46	.499
27) Children with ADHD generally experience more problems in novel situations than in familiar situations.	0	1	.10	.301
28) There are specific physical features which can be identified by medical doctors (e.g., paediatrician) in making a definitive diagnosis of ADHD.	0	1	.36	.482
29) In school age children, the prevalence of ADHD in males and females is equivalent.	0	1	.40	.492
30) In very young children (less than 4 years old), the problem behaviours of ADHD children (e.g. hyperactivity, inattention) are distinctly different from age appropriate behaviours of children without ADHD.	0	1	.06	.239
33) Symptoms of ADHD are often seen in children without ADHD who come from inadequate and chaotic home environments.	0	1	.38	.486
31) Children with ADHD are more distinguishable from children without ADHD in a classroom setting than in a free play situation.	0	1	.76	.426
13) It is possible for an adult to be diagnosed with ADHD.	0	1	.58	.496
6) ADHD is more common in the 1st degree biological relatives (i.e. mother, father) of children with ADHD than in the general population	0	1	.23	.419
4) Children with ADHD are typically more compliant with their fathers than with their mothers	0	1	.14	.348

Total score of teachers on the general associated features of ADHD

Scale	Min	Max	*M*	*SD*	Total score possible
General Associated Features	0	13	5.37 (41, 3%)	2.56	15

Table 4.5 indicates the subscale, General Associated Features, which was designed to measure general information related to ADHD using 15 items. This scale was constructed by summing the number of correct responses to those 15 items. The scale ranged from 0 to 15. Higher scores meant more knowledge. Items on the general knowledge subscale included "Attention Deficit Disorder occurs in approximately 15% of all school-agead children" and "It is possible for an adult to be diagnosed with ADHD" (Sciutto et al., 2000). Out of the sample of 196, only 14, 6% of the teachers scored correctly on 3 of the items measuring the general associated features of ADHD namely, item 2(M= .56; SD= .498), item 31(M= .76; SD= .426) and item 13 (M= .58; SD= .496). The majority of the sample (85, 4%) scored incorrectly on the remainder of the 15 items.

As can be seen from Table 4.5, overall the scores for the general knowledge scale ranged from 0 to 13 with a mean of 5.37. Taking all the answers on the items in this subscale into consideration, out of the sample of 196 teachers 41, 3% (*M*= 5.37; *SD*= 2.56) had knowledge of the general associated features (GAF- general information about the nature, causes and prognosis) of ADHD. The average score out of 15 is 7.5. If we take the overall score of 13 which was obtained the average would be 6.5. The mean score of 5.37 is thus below the average which indicates that the teachers has a below average knowledge base of the general associated features of ADHD.

Table 4.6: Primary school teachers' knowledge of the treatment of ADHD

Item	Min	Max	*M*	*SD*
12) When treatment of a child with ADHD is terminated, it is rare for the child's symptoms to return.	0	1	.46	.500
18) Individual psychotherapy is usually sufficient for the treatment of most children with ADHD.	0	1	.24	.428
23) Reducing dietary intake of sugar or food additives is generally effective in reducing the symptoms of ADHD.	0	1	.12	.326
34) Behavioural/Psychological interventions for children with ADHD focus primarily on the child's problems with inattention.	0	1	.17	.377
35) Electroconvulsive Therapy (i.e. shock treatment) has been found to be an effective treatment for severe cases of ADHD.	0	1	.18	.386
36) Management for ADHD which focus primarily on punishment have been found to be the most effective in reducing the symptoms of ADHD.	0	1	.53	.500
25) Stimulant drugs are the most common type of drug used to treat children with ADHD	0	1	.37	.483
20) In severe cases of ADHD, medication is often used before other behaviour modification techniques are attempted.	0	1	.56	.498
15) Side effects of stimulant drugs used for treatment of ADHD may include mild insomnia and appetite reduction.	0	1	.57	.497
10) Parent and teacher training in managing a child with ADHD are generally effective when combined with medication treatment.	0	1	.80	.405
8) Antidepressant drugs have been effective in reducing symptoms for many children with ADHD.	0	1	.41	.492
24) A diagnosis of ADHD by itself makes a child eligible for placement in special education.	0	1	.48	.501
Total score of teachers on the treatment of ADHD				

Scale	Min	Max	*M*	*SD*	Total score possible
Treatment	0	10	4.92 (49, 2%)	2.29	12

Table 4.6 presents the mean level of knowledge, standard deviation, minimum and maximum scores for all the items on the scale of treatment among the teachers, as well as the maximum score possible on this scale, if all of the questions were correctly answered. This third subscale was designed to measure knowledge of the treatment of ADHD using 12 items. The scale was constructed by summing the number of correct responses to those 12 items. The scale could range from 1 to 12. Higher scores meant more knowledge of ADHD treatment. Items on the treatment knowledge subscale included "Stimulant medication increases

concentration," and "Electroconvulsive Therapy (ECT) are effective treatments for Attention Deficit Disorder" (Sciutto et al., 2000).

Overall, the scores for the treatment scale ranged from 0 to 10 with a mean of 4.92. Looking at the individual items on this subscale, out of the sample of 196 teachers only 18, 6% answered correctly on 4 of the items of the treatment subscale namely, item 36(M= .53; SD=.500), item 20(M= .56; SD= .498), item 15(M= .57; SD= .497) and item 10(M= .80; SD= .405). The rest of the sample (81, 4%) answered incorrectly on the remaining 8 items. The mean of 4.92 is 1.08 points less than the average score of 6 out of 12 which can be obtained on this subscale, which is quite significant. If we only consider the maximum score of 10 obtained above, the mean of 4.92 is almost an average score. The teachers therefore scored below average on the treatment subscale.

Table 4.7: Prevalence of training received

Total sample	Variables							
N= 197	Training received		Taught child with ADHD		Referred child with ADHD		Access to research material	
	Yes	No	Yes	No	Yes	No	Yes	No
	82,2 %	17,8%	61,9%	38,1%	38,6%	61,4%	49,2%	50,8%

Out of the sample of 197 teachers 82, 2% received training in terms of ADHD, while 17, 8% received no training. Thus the majority of the sample of teachers received training. Sixty one point nine percent (61, 9%) indicated that they have taught a child with ADHD whilst 38, 6% referred children presenting symptoms of ADHD and 49, 2% confirmed having access to research material. This data indicates that the majority of the teachers in the sample have some knowledge about ADHD as they have received some training. Apart from training they also had experience in teaching children diagnosed with or presenting symptoms of ADHD. A lesser though significant percentage of teachers (38, 6%) referred children to doctors,

whilst just over half of the sample (50, 8%) indicated that they had no access to research material.

Based on the fact that 65, 11 % of the teachers were knowledgeable about the symptoms and diagnosis of ADHD it can be said that the teachers correctly identified the **presenting symptoms** of ADHD in children whilst 38, 6 % used this knowledge to refer children to doctors. The results indicated that teachers demonstrated a significantly greater knowledge base of the symptoms and diagnosis of ADHD as mentioned above but lesser so of the *general associated features* (which includes general information about the nature. causes and prognosis of ADHD) and treatment thereof. The biggest proportion, though less than half of the sample (41%), had 21 or more years of teaching experience. No significant difference was therefore found between the general knowledge of teachers on the general associated features (GAF) of ADHD and its **treatmen**t and the years of teaching experience.

4.4 Classroom Management techniques

Table 4.8: Prevalence of support for classroom management techniques

Variables	Total sample	Agree	Disagree
Seating in classroom	N= 199	51,8%	15,5%
Educational interventions	N= 199	62,3%	0,5%
Assistive technology	N= 199	68,3%	15,1%
Academic & social improvements	N= 199	61,8%	13,1%
Setting of behavioural expectations	N= 198	67,7%	16,2%
Time given for tests	N= 197	41,6%	35%
Learning expectations	N= 198	67,7%	12,6%
Classroom rules	N= 199	59,8%	6,5%
Repetition of directions	N= 198	67,7%	14,1%
Class work broken into units	N= 198	58,1%	14,1%
Token reinforcement	N= 198	65,2%	10,1%
Communication as intervention	N= 198	57,6%	11,6%
Ignore disruptive behaviour	N= 198	53%	28,8%

Table 4.8 indicates that teachers were mostly supportive of assistive technology, setting behavioural and learning expectations and repetition of directions to use with children with ADHD. Token reinforcement and educational interventions were the third and fourth most supported. The least supported of the classroom interventions designed to help children with ADHD were seating of children in the classroom and time given for tests.

Although parent-teacher communication for managing the behaviour of children with ADHD is effective (Jurbergs et al., 2007), these teachers agreed but were less supportive of adopting this practice (57, 6%). Also of significance is that 53% of the sample (n=198) was in agreement with requesting the other learners in the class to ignore the disruptive behaviours of children diagnosed with ADHD in their classrooms. It is worth noting that, on average, teachers were mostly in agreement with 7 (46%) of the 13 effective practices investigated here.

4.5 Summary

The results of this study were presented in the form of descriptive statistics and frequencies regarding primary school teachers' knowledge about ADHD and its management within the classroom. The results show that the majority of teachers are knowledgeable about the symptoms and diagnosis of ADHD but less so about the general associated features and treatment. Also of significance is the fact that although the majority of teachers received training on ADHD, their knowledge and support about the use of evidenced-based classroom interventions in the treatment of ADHD is low.

CHAPTER 5

DISCUSSION, CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS

5.1 Introduction

This chapter concludes the study with a discussion of the main findings integrated with previous research, identified in chapter 2, as well as the theoretical framework. Limitations of the study are provided and concluded with recommendations for further study.

One hypothesis was generated to identify the specific objectives to be measured, namely:

Hypothesis: Primary school teachers have limited knowledge of the symptoms of ADHD.

5.2 Attention Deficit Hyperactivity Disorder

ADHD is a condition of the brain that "challenges the individual to control impulses" (American Psychiatric Association, 2000:85). It is characterized by the *Diagnostic and Statistical Manual of Mental Disorders 4th ed., Text Revision* (*DSM-IV TR*) as a continuous pattern of inattention and a displayed amount of hyperactivity/impulsive behaviour not in compliance with the normal developmental behaviour of a child without ADHD.

As one of the most common chronic conditions of childhood it is also often accompanied by emotional immaturity, aggressiveness and poor academic performance (National Institute of Mental Health, 2012). According to the American Psychiatric Association (APA; 2000), there are three sub-types that are associated with ADHD namely, 1) ADHD/Combined Type, 2) ADHD/Predominantly Inattentive Type, and 3) ADHD/Predominantly Hyperactive-Impulsive Type. Considerations for each diagnosis are dependent upon which symptoms are most prevalent. For the combined type, six symptoms of hyperactive-impulsivity and six of

inattentiveness must be present to form a diagnosis. For the predominantly inattentive type, six or more inattentive symptoms but fewer hyperactive-impulsivity symptoms must be present. Lastly, for the hyperactive-impulsive type six or more of hyperactivity-impulsivity but fewer inattention symptoms must be present (APA, 2000).

5.2.1 Teachers' overall knowledge about the symptoms, general features and treatment of ADHD

The *general associated features* of ADHD include general information about the nature, causes and prognosis of ADHD. This includes estimates of the prevalence of occurrence of ADHD in school aged children as well as the functional deficits associated with ADHD such as the ratings of impairments and the degree to which these behaviours (such as inattention, hyperactivity or impulsivity) cause children "real-life" difficulties or impairment in daily life functioning.

Assessing the defining features of ADHD is important because it provides a link to a considerable body of knowledge on treatments for ADHD and because it can help determine whether the child is eligible to receive treatment. Misperceptions about the symptoms of ADHD could hinder the implementation of educational interventions for children with ADHD (Garcia, 2009).

Pelham et al. (1993) examined the effectiveness of treating ADHD with medication alone and treating ADHD with medication combined with behaviour modification techniques. Evidence suggests that treatments emphasizing both the psychological and emotional aspects of ADHD are beneficial interventions for improving academic and behavioural functioning

among children with ADHD (Du Paul & White; Pelham et al.; Raggi & Chronis, 2006 as cited in Garcia, 2009).

Treatment of choice for ADHD is therefore psycho-stimulant medication, educational interventions, behaviour modification procedures, as well as diet manipulation and supplements

The results of this study indicate that the primary school teachers have a good knowledge base of the symptoms and diagnosis of ADHD but lesser so of the *general associated features* (which includes general information about the nature, causes and prognosis of ADHD), and the treatment thereof.

The results of studies that were done in Australia, North America and also South Africa, regarding the knowledge of school teachers about the symptoms of ADHD, found that they had an average to good general knowledge, that few teachers had any training in ADHD and that teachers' overall knowledge improved as a result of teaching a child with ADHD. Sciutto et al.'s (2000) study reported an average of 47, 8% for correct responses for their sample of American teachers. A study that was done in primary schools in the Cape Metropole area provides similar results (Perold, et al, 2008). This study suggests that 42, 6% of teachers had knowledge regarding ADHD, 35, 4% did not know, while 22% had incorrect responses, suggesting misperceptions regarding ADHD (Perold, et al; 2008; Gray, 2008).

The current study revealed that just over forty percent of teachers had knowledge of the general associated features (GAF- general information about the nature, causes and prognosis) of ADHD, while more than sixty percent were knowledgeable about the symptoms and diagnosis (SAD) of ADHD and almost fifty percent had knowledge about the treatment of ADHD. More than eighty percent of the teachers in the current study received

training in terms of ADHD, and just over sixty percent indicated that they have taught a child with ADHD. Based on the fact that the majority of the teachers were knowledgeable about the symptoms and diagnosis of ADHD it can be said that the teachers are able to correctly identify the **presenting symptoms** of ADHD in children. It can also be said that having taught a child with ADHD, besides the training received, increased/ improved their knowledge of the symptoms and diagnosis of ADHD.

The results indicated that teachers demonstrated a significantly greater knowledge base of the symptoms and diagnosis of ADHD but lesser so of the *general associated features* and *treatment* thereof. The present study is consistent with the literature. Overall, teachers scored below average for general knowledge (all 3 subscales' scores added together) on their total KADDS score.

The biggest proportion, though less than half of the sample, had 21 or more years of teaching experience. No significant difference was therefore found between the general knowledge of teachers on the general associated features of ADHD and its **treatment** and the number of years of teaching experience.

This lack of knowledge regarding the *general associated features* (which includes general information about the nature, causes and prognosis of ADHD), and treatment thereof, is a matter of concern since teachers need to be knowledgeable not only about the etiology, diagnosis and prognosis of the disorder in order to reduce misdiagnosis and referrals, they also need to know how to manage children diagnosed with ADHD in the classroom in order to effect positive outcomes (Perold, et al; 2008).

5.2.2 Teachers' support for classroom management techniques

The literature suggests that there are positive interventions for effectively instructing children with ADHD in the classroom setting (DuPaul & Weyandt, 2006; Raggi & Chronis, 2006; U.S. Department of Education, 2003 as cited in Garcia, 2009). These interventions may include behavioral (token reinforcement), social (social skills training), academic (peer tutoring; DuPaul & Weyandt) supports, computer-assisted instruction, task modifications, self-monitoring, and strategy training for the youth themselves (Raggi & Chronis, 2006 as cited in Garcia, 2009). Students with ADHD may respond positively to parent/teacher rewarding (praise or privileges) or reprimands of school behavior or to immediate reinforcers such as stickers provided in the classroom (DuPaul & Weyandt; Rief, 2005). Some basic strategies for academic interventions involve choice making which allows the student to choose between different classroom activities or tasks. In addition, the active teaching of rules including having teachers continually remind the student of classrooms rules verbally and through example has also been shown to reduce classroom behaviour problems (DuPaul & Stoner, 2003; DuPaul & Weyandt). Studies have indicated that computer assisted-instruction may also be effective in improving the reading and mathematics skills of children with ADHD (Clarfield & Stoner, 2005; Mautone, DuPaul, & Jitendra, 2005).

Of the 13 classroom interventions designed to help children with ADHD, teachers in the current study were mainly in agreement with seven of the practices investigated, namely assistive technology, setting behavioural and learning expectations and repetition of directions to use with children with ADHD. Token reinforcement, academic and social improvements and educational interventions were the third and fourth most supported. The least supported of the classroom interventions designed to help children with ADHD were seating of children in the classroom and time given for tests.

It is thus likely that teachers will know which interventions can be used to effectively manage ADHD in the classroom, but there is a lesser degree of support for these interventions. This can be due to many factors, of which two stands out most clearly: 1) Lack of resources at schools and 2) support to teachers by making use of support personnel (students/additional assistant teachers to assist with the children with special needs in the classroom). The irony is that the least supported classroom interventions such as seating of children in the classroom, token reinforcement and time given for tests can easily be implemented because it carries no cost. The scores obtained on these interventions may thus indicate that teachers are not fully knowledgeable of the type of interventions that can be implemented within the classroom.

The results also indicate that a significant number (38, 6%) of teachers, refers children to doctors for treatment. This referral rate is a source of concern, because the percentage of learners diagnosed is increasing past the generally accepted mark of 3% of the general population. This coincides with the findings in literature that there is a high rate of parental referrals by teachers to doctors for children who display symptoms of Attention Deficit Hyperactivity Disorder that is inattentiveness, impulse control, concentration problems and learning disabilities (Perold, et al., 2008). These referral frequency rates are echoed in earlier studies, which found that teachers initiated 40 % to 60 % of children's ADHD referrals. This is because the structured school environment means that children with problems of inattention, hyperactivity and impulsivity exhibit behaviours with which the other children and their teachers cannot cope (Malen, 2008). Educators are often the first to recognize symptoms of ADHD and then report their concerns to their student's parents. Based upon such concerns a parent may seek advice from their medical or mental health provider who can diagnose and treat the disorder.

Identifying ADHD may have considerable implications for the child's experience at school. In particular, a child who is identified as having ADHD may become eligible for additional resources from the school, such as one-on-one time with a teacher aide or support from a special education teacher, whereas children with other difficulties may not. Thus, accurate assessment of ADHD in school settings is a critical step in effectively treating ADHD in schools (Atkins & Pelham, 1991 as cited in Garcia, 2009). Previous research suggests that the challenge facing many South African educators is that they have not been trained to cope with the diversity of learners entering mainstream schools (Bothma, Gravett and Swart, 2000 as cited in Garcia, 2009).

Consequently, and because of the structured school environment, just over half of the sample of teachers in this study is in agreement that the other learners in the classroom should rather ignore the disruptive behaviours of children diagnosed with ADHD, when it comes to classroom management techniques. This can impede on the rights of learners without ADHD in the classroom as instead of teachers applying behaviour modification techniques or some other intervention, the child is left to disrupt the classroom.

The new education system stipulates that all learners, regardless of their impairments, should be accommodated in the mainstream schools. The South African Schools Act, Act No. 84 of 1996 (DoE, 1996:10) categorically states, "a mainstream school must admit all learners and serve their educational requirements without unfair discrimination in anyway." This implies that based on the rights of all learners and their parents, no learners may be turned away from any mainstream school if it is at all possible to accommodate the learner. However, this does not mean that learners should be left to disrupt the classroom and so impede on the rights of the other learners in the class when it comes to learning/ proper education.

Although the effectiveness of parent-teacher communication and token reinforcement for managing the behaviour of these children are effective (Jurbergs et al., 2007), the teachers in the current study agreed but were less supportive of adopting this practice. Teachers were mostly supportive of assistive technology such as, computed assisted instruction setting behavioural and learning expectations (such as classroom rules and setting learning goals, providing clear instructions)) and repetition of directions to use with children with ADHD.

Snider et al., 2003 found in their study that the primary methods teachers used to address ADHD were punishment and communication with their parents. Other research also found that there are three types of classroom interventions commonly used for children with ADHD, these types include a) behaviour management (token reinforcement, teacher mediated task modifications, self-management, self-monitoring); (DuPaul & Stoner, 2003; DuPaul & Weyandt, 2006; Raggi et al., 2006), b) academic support (peer tutoring, computed assisted instruction), and c) social skills development (social skills training) (DuPaul & Weyandt, 2006). The results of the current study indicate that token reinforcement (the student receiving immediate rewards for appropriate behaviour for example points, stickers) in the classroom) and educational interventions were the third and fourth most supported. The least supported of the classroom interventions designed to help children with ADHD, were seating of children in the classroom and time given for tests.

5.3 Erikson's Theory and training of teachers in terms of classroom management

According to Erikson (1968) human development is divided into eight stages. Each stage has a particular conflict that has to be resolved before the individual moves on to the next stage. Once the conflict in each stage has been successfully resolved, an ego-strength outcome is achieved, which build towards the development of a healthy self-concept. It also prepares the

individual for crises that emerge later in life (Mussen, et al., 1994; Phares, 1984; Shaffer, 1993; Soenens, 2006 as cited in Allen, 2006). Failure to resolve the conflict of a particular stage may markedly affect the person's capacity to cope successfully with the next stage (Phares, 1984 in Grootboom, 1999). Usually children between the ages of 6 to 12 are diagnosed with symptoms of ADHD (Gray, 2008). According to Erikson's theory this occurs in the fourth psychosocial stage of development namely *Industry versus Inferiority* which occurs from the age of 6 years until the onset of puberty. During this stage the repertoire of motor and mental abilities greatly expands. Children are eager to learn and accomplish more complex skills like reading, writing and telling time. Thus, the favorable outcome of this stage is for the child to learn to acquire direction, purpose and competence in activities.

Ideally, the primary school provides many opportunities for children to achieve the recognition of teachers, parents and peers by drawing pictures, solving mathematical problems, writing sentences, and so on. Additionally if children are encouraged to make and do things and are praised for their accomplishments, they begin to demonstrate industry by being diligent, persevering at tasks until completed and by putting work before pleasure. If children are instead ridiculed or punished for their efforts or if they find they are incapable of meeting their teachers' and parents' expectations, they develop feelings of inferiority about their capabilities (Allen, Eileen; Marotz & Lynn, 2003). Children with ADHD are at increased risk for academic underachievement, grade retention, suspension or expulsion from school, special education placement, and socialization deficiencies. Ultimately, the individual's self is affected either positively or negatively. Children, who have a 'negative' self, will exhibit low self-esteem. The self-esteem of an individual has a profound effect on progress at school and experience of the school environment. Erikson (1963) viewed the primary school years as critical for the development of self-confidence.

It is therefore of utmost importance for educators to have a good understanding of these learners' needs in their unique and relevant contexts (Engelbrecht & Jansen 2003). Running a classroom so that it becomes an optimally healthy and inclusive learning environment for all the learners is extremely important. It involves the teacher in a number of different roles each of which needs to be constantly adjusted and co-ordinated into a harmonious and productive whole (Donald, Lazarus & Lolwana, 2002). According to Kapp (2002) remediation of the problems of learning disabled children, that is ADHD is a highly specialized subject area which demands specific knowledge and skills from practitioners/teachers. The educator needs to do constant research, attend workshops/seminars and perhaps also, consider doing in-service courses to uplift their knowledge and understanding of learners with ADHD. Educators will also have to be adequately prepared to assess special educational needs, to adapt curriculum content to the needs of learners in the classroom, and to **utilize special assistive devices and instructional aids** (such as word processors, digital personal organisers, multi-media such as film clips and assistive devices, such as microphones and Braille translators) required by some of the ADHD learners. Token reinforcement will also assist in reinforcing positive behaviour and rewarding/ praising the learner for his/ her accomplishments. Additionally, instruction has to be planned to ensure that all learners will benefit. In particular, co-operative learning and teaching that accommodates a variety of learning and cognitive styles, are instructional techniques shown to be well suited to inclusive classrooms.

In addition to using teaching strategies that benefit all learners in an inclusive classroom, teachers have to acknowledge that certain learners will still need planned and specific interventions to address the barriers to learning that they experience. Significant attention in the international literature on inclusion is given to strategies that ensure individual access and

participation in the curriculum. This access is often achieved through making accommodations and adaptations to teaching, learning and assessment. Assessment is a significant area where modifications can be made to minimise the impact of any barriers to learning. Modifications may be made in the way the learner performs a task, like having a task read to the learner, or allowing oral response, or, the most frequently used modification, by providing additional time that reduces test anxiety and allows for the efficient use of test strategies (Elliot & Marquart, 2004). In grading or marking learner performance, learners who experience certain barriers to learning would not be penalised on criteria like spelling or handwriting and other assessment criteria may be modified (Bradley & Calvin, 1998). If modifications have been made to assessments in the light of individual needs, standardised reports would then have to be modified in some way (Bradley & Calvin, 1998; Bursuck, Plante, Epstein, Jayanthi & McConeghy, 1996).

5.4 Limitations of the study

In this study, data was collected only in the Kimberley area (Frances Baard region) which might not be truly representative of the population (urban and rural) of South Africa. The results may only apply to this study population and not to a generalization across the country. The racial categories in the study were: Coloured (40, 9%; n=82), Black African (33, 8% %; n=68), White (23, 7%; n= 47) and Indian (1, 5%; n= 3) teachers. A small male sample (11%; n=22) participated in the study as compared to the larger female sample (89%; n= 178) which could have implications should comparisons have been conducted for this study. Permission to conduct research at the schools was generally a challenge as principals felt that there was not sufficient time to allow for the data collection process. School rosters were a challenge and time for data collection had to be continually negotiated so that minimal disruption occurred at the school.

Due to a low response rate from the schools that were initially identified for the study, the study had to be extended to twenty eight schools, which included the special need schools. The data collection process became longer than expected and also some of the schools were not open for research to be done in their schools. Another possibility of a limitation could be that some respondents may not have answered correctly or guessed the correct answer on the KADDS questionnaire. Maybe some participants tend to give some information that they feel the researcher wants to hear, and some participants also do not want to disclose their personal information for fear that this can be used against them. Explaining in detail to the participants that the information will be confidential, and clarification of the main purpose, was done to try and minimize this. Another possible source of error could be in the way the participants understood the questions and their interpretation of the questions. This was minimized by clarification and availability of the researcher for questions. Despite these possible limitations in the data collection, the researcher has confidence that the results produced in this study will be a true reflection of the real situation. It is also hoped that it serves to recommend further research and advanced study on this particular issue, especially in terms of resources at schools and school based support teams for children with special needs.

5.5 Strengths of the study

The strengths of the study is the fact that the information gathered can be used for further research in terms of resources at schools, policy implementation or adaptation and school-based support structures in terms of inclusive education. A general interest was shown by teachers for additional training in terms of special needs and classroom management techniques. Teachers were vocal about their concerns about inclusive education and the minimal support they have when implementing policy.

5.6 Conclusion

The purpose of the study was to investigate primary school teachers' knowledge of ADHD, and its management within the classroom. The study also investigated the teachers' demographic variables. The demographics were age, gender, ethnicity, marital status, religion, number of years teaching and current grade level. Results indicated that teachers have an average knowledge base of ADHD, scoring just over forty percent on the total KADDS score. Teachers scored statistically significantly higher on the Symptoms/Diagnosis subscale compared to the General and Treatment subscales. They were also more in agreement with 7 of the 13 classroom management techniques that were proven effective for use with children diagnosed with ADHD. The objectives of the study have been proven and the hypothesis "Primary school teachers have limited knowledge of the symptoms of ADHD" has been proven wrong as they scored remarkably high on the symptoms and diagnosis subscale.

5.7 Recommendations

It may be helpful to investigate undergraduate teacher education programs and in-service training about ADHD to determine what information teachers actually receive about this disorder. Asking teachers what steps they take when a child is exhibiting specific inappropriate behaviours may also provide information regarding teachers' knowledge, training, and application of interventions/management techniques.

It would therefore be advantageous to have school psychologists work as consultants to teachers where they can observe teachers working with a child with ADHD, help them implement interventions and interview them about their techniques and barriers.

Furthermore, since research suggests a multidisciplinary approach to working with children with ADHD, the amount of support provided to teachers would be beneficial to include in future studies.

It would be helpful if the Department can either revise their decision of doing away with “special needs classes”, or put in place District Support Teams to assist the teachers who have to work with children with special needs.

Strive to have a 50/50 split of gender participants.

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Appendix A

INFORMATION SHEET

Title of Research Project: An examination of primary school teachers' knowledge of the symptoms and management of children diagnosed with ADHD in their classrooms

What is this study about?

This is a research project being conducted by Beryl Topkin at the University of the Western Cape. We are inviting you to voluntarily participate in this research project because you are primary school teachers. The purpose of this research project is to examine primary school teachers' knowledge of the symptoms and management of children diagnosed with ADHD in their classrooms.

What will I be asked to do if I agree to participate?

You will be asked to complete a questionnaire. This questionnaire will ask you questions about:

- your understanding of ADHD, its diagnosis and classroom management interventions. This questionnaire will be completed at school, with permission of your principal at a time which is not disruptive to your school schedule. Completion of the questionnaire will be less than 30 minutes.

Would my participation in this study be kept confidential?

We will do our best to keep your personal information confidential. To help protect your confidentiality, the information you provide will be totally private; no names will be used so there is no way that you can be identified as a participant in this study. The information will be treated with anonymity and confidentiality. Your name will not be reflected on the questionnaire. The information obtained from the survey will be collated with the information from other completed surveys. Therefore there will be no way to connect you to the survey questionnaire.

What are the risks of this research?

There are no known risks in participating in the study.

What are the benefits of this research?

Information about this topic is limited. This research is not designed to help you personally, but the results can be useful in terms of areas of development for teachers. Since information about this particular research in South Africa is relatively limited, the information resulting from the study can add to the current information available about ADHD and the rates of referrals due to misperceptions or lack of knowledge about the disorder. Management techniques within the classroom with regard to ADHD can also be explored and implemented in the school setting.

Do I have to be in this research and may I stop participating at any time?

Your participation in this research is completely voluntary. You may choose not to take part in the study. If you decide to participate in this research study, you may stop participating at any time.If you decide not to participate in this study or if you stop participating at any time, you will not be penalized or lose any benefits to which you otherwise qualify.

Is any assistance available if I am negatively affected by participating in this study?

Every effort has been taken to protect you from any harm in this study. If however, you may feel affected you can be referred to your nearest community resource for assistance.

What if I have questions?

This research is being conducted by Beryl Topkin in the Social Work Department at the University of the Western Cape. If you have any questions about the research study itself, please contact Beryl Topkin at: 084 5156165 or email: beryl.topkin@gmail.com
Should you have any questions regarding this study and your rights as a research participant or if you wish to report any problems you have experienced related to the study, please contact:

Dr. Nicolette Roman – Study co-ordinator / Head of the Social Work Department
Tel No: 021 9592277/2970
Email address: nroman@uwc.ac.za

Appendix B

CONSENT FORM FOR TEACHERS

Title of Research Project: An examination of primary school teachers' knowledge of the symptoms and management of children diagnosed with ADHD in their classrooms

The study has been described to me in a language that I understand and I freely and voluntarily agree to participate in the study. My questions about the study have been answered. I understand that my identity will not be disclosed and that I may withdraw from the study without giving a reason at any time and this will not negatively affect me in any way.

Teacher's name……..

Teacher's signature……

Witness……

Date……

Should you have any questions regarding this study or wish to report any problems you have experienced related to the study, please contact the study coordinator:

Study Coordinator's Name: Dr N Roman

University of the Western Cape

Private Bag X17, Belville 7535

Telephone: 021 959 2277/2970

Email: nroman@uwc.ac.za

Appendix C

Demographic information:

Gender: Male Female

Age:

Number of years teaching:

Ethnicity:

White ☐
Black ☐
Indian ☐
Coloured ☐

Marital status:

Widowed	Divorced	Cohabiting	Married	Never married

Religion:

Christian	Muslim	Hindu	Jewish	Buddhist	Other

Home Language:

English	Afrikaans	Setswana	Other

Grade currently teaching:

School fees payable: Yes ☐ No ☐

If yes, amount per annum: R

School: **A /D**

Knowledge of Attention Deficit Disorders Scale (KADDS)

Please answer the following questions regarding Attention-Deficit/Hyperactivity Disorders (ADHD) by ticking your response. If you are unsure of an answer, respond Don't Know (DK), DO NOT GUESS. Please try not to leave any items blank. It is for this reason that you have **DON'T KNOW**.

True (T), False (F), or Don't Know (DK) (tick one):

Questions	T	F	DK
1. Most estimates suggest that ADHD occurs in approximately 15% of school age children			
2. Current research suggests that ADHD is largely the result of ineffective parenting skills			
3. Children with ADHD are frequently distracted by extraneous stimuli			
4. Children with ADHD are typically more compliant with their fathers than with their mothers			
5. In order to be diagnosed with ADHD, the child's symptoms must have been present before age seven			
6. ADHD is more common in the 1st degree biological relatives (i.e. mother, father) of children with ADHD than in the general population			
7. One symptom of children with ADHD is that they have been physically cruel to other people			
8. Antidepressant drugs have been effective in reducing symptoms for many children with ADHD.			
9. Children with ADHD often fidget or squirm in their seats.			
10. Parent and teacher training in managing a child with ADHD are generally effective when combined with medication treatment.			
11. It is common for children with ADHD to have an inflated sense of self-esteem or grandiosity.			
12. When treatment of a child with ADHD is terminated, it is rare for the child's symptoms to return.			
13. It is possible for an adult to be diagnosed with ADHD.			
14. Children with ADHD often have a history of stealing or destroying other people's things.			
15. Side effects of stimulant drugs used for treatment of ADHD may include mild insomnia and appetite reduction.			
16. Current wisdom about ADHD suggests two clusters of symptoms: One of inattention and another consisting of hyperactivity/impulsivity.			
17. Symptoms of depression are found more frequently in children with ADHD than in children without ADHD.			
18. Individual psychotherapy is usually sufficient for the treatment of most children with ADHD.			
19. Most children with ADHD "outgrow" their symptoms by the onset of puberty and subsequently function normally in adulthood.			
20. In severe cases of ADHD, medication is often used before other			

Questions	T	F	DK
behaviour modification techniques are attempted.			
21. In order to be diagnosed as ADHD, a child must exhibit relevant symptoms in two or more settings (e.g., home, school).			
22. If a child with ADHD is able to demonstrate sustained attention to video games or TV for over an hour, that child is also able to sustain attention for at least an hour of class or homework.			
23. Reducing dietary intake of sugar or food additives is generally effective in reducing the symptoms of ADHD.			
24. A diagnosis of ADHD by itself makes a child eligible for placement in special education.			
25. Stimulant drugs are the most common type of drug used to treat children with ADHD			
26. Children with ADHD often have difficulties organizing tasks and activities.			
27. Children with ADHD generally experience more problems in novel situations than in familiar situations.			
28. There are specific physical features which can be identified by medical doctors (e.g., paediatrician) in making a definitive diagnosis of ADHD.			
29. In school age children, the prevalence of ADHD in males and females is equivalent.			
30. In very young children (less than 4 years old), the problem behaviours of ADHD children (e.g. hyperactivity, inattention) are distinctly different from age appropriate behaviours of children without ADHD.			
31. Children with ADHD are more distinguishable from children without ADHD in a classroom setting than in a free play situation.			
32. The majority of children with ADHD evidence some degree of poor school performance in the primary school years.			
33. Symptoms of ADHD are often seen in children without ADHD who come from inadequate and chaotic home environments.			
34. Behavioural/Psychological interventions for children with ADHD focus primarily on the child's problems with inattention.			
35. Electroconvulsive Therapy (i.e. shock treatment) has been found to be an effective treatment for severe cases of ADHD.			
36. Management for ADHD which focus primarily on punishment have been found to be the most effective in reducing the symptoms of ADHD.			

Section 3

Have you received any training with regard to ADHD? YES / NO

Have you ever taught a child who was diagnosed with ADHD or displayed symptoms thereof? YES / NO

Have you ever referred a student/ parents of students who display symptoms of ADHD for diagnosis and treatment? YES / NO

Do you have access to research material on ADHD at school or elsewhere? YES / NO

Classroom Interventions for Children with ADHD Please provide your opinion as to what type of interventions can be used for children with ADHD. Please try not to leave any items blank.

Classroom Interventions	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Agree	Strongly Agree
A child with ADHD should be seated in the front of the classroom so as not to disturb other children.				
The first step for providing an educational intervention for a child with ADHD is by evaluating the child's individual needs and strengths.				
Students with ADHD benefit from the use of visual forms of assistive technology (i.e. projector screens or computers) in the classroom.				
Usually children with ADHD need to be treated with more than one classroom intervention to demonstrate academic and social improvement.				
Behavioral expectation should be set verbally or by written contract for children with ADHD.				
Children with ADHD should not be given the same amount of time for tests as other children.				
Learning expectations should verbally be set daily before each lesson for children with ADHD.				
Children with ADHD need to be actively taught classroom rules by reminding them on a regular basis.				
Directions should be repeated to a child with ADHD individually in addition to the directions given to the entire class.				
Class work must be broken down into smaller units for children with ADHD.				
Token reinforcements (i.e. stickers, points) help children with ADHD to manage their behavioral expectations.				
Communicating with parents on a daily basis is a useful intervention when teaching children with ADHD.				
Other children in the classroom should be instructed to ignore disruptive behavior Demonstrated by a child with ADHD.				

Appendix D

Letter to Northern Cape Department of Education: Permission to do a study.

Title: *An examination of primary school teachers' knowledge of the symptoms and management of children diagnosed with ADHD in their classrooms*

My name is Beryl Topkin. I'm doing a Master's Degree in Child and Family Studies at the Social Work Department at the University of the Western Cape. I am currently involved in research that examines primary school teachers' knowledge of the symptoms and management of children diagnosed with ADHD in their classrooms. ADHD is one the most widely researched and yet poorly understood childhood conditions. It's also one of the most common child conditions. I'm interested in what this condition means to teachers based on their experiences.

There is a high rate of parental referrals by teachers to doctors for children who display symptoms of Attention Deficit- Hyperactivity disorder (ADHD). The symptoms are inattentiveness, impulse control, concentration problems and learning disabilities. Studies suggest that often a learning disability is mistaken for ADHD. ADHD is usually diagnosed from the age of 7, when children start their schooling. In some cases it is identified much earlier in the form of over-activity in children during the pre-school years. Teachers are responsible for creating an environment that is conducive to academic, social and emotional success for children with ADHD. More often than not a learning disability is mistaken for ADHD because it often co-exists with other clinical conditions. This could mean that a child would have difficulties with mastering languages or certain skills, such as reading, mathematics or handwriting. Learning Disabilities (LD) and ADHD are distinctive

neurologically-based disorders that are diagnosed and treated differently (Perold, et al., 2008). The teacher is most often the first person to make a referral for assessment for ADHD (Malen, 2008). This happens because the structured school environment means children with problems of inattention, hyperactivity and impulsivity exhibit behaviors with which the other children and their teachers cannot cope (Malen, 2008). It is important for teachers to organize their environments according to the diversity of needs of the learners in the classroom. Having a better understanding may prevent them from developing negative views of these learners or labeling them (Holz& Lessing, 2002. Only one known study has been conducted in this area of research in South Africa (Malen, 2008). The current study therefore adds to existing research as it will determine primary school teachers' knowledge of the symptoms and management of children diagnosed with ADHD in their classrooms, thereby strengthening the understanding of the disorder. Management techniques within the classroom with regard to ADHD can also be explored and implemented in the school setting.

Permission is therefore sought to conduct this study at identified schools in Kimberley.

The sample of the study will be drawn from a list of educators from 26 schools, 10 in previously advantaged areas and 16 in a previously disadvantaged area. The schools are located in areas according to the previous apartheid dispensation with areas geographically located according to socio-economic status. Thus 10 schools will be randomly selected, 5 advantaged schools and 5 disadvantaged schools, for teachers to participate in the study. Participation will be on a voluntary basis and teachers can withdraw at any time. Informed consent will be ensured, details of the researcher will be provided in the informed consent form so that the participants are able to contact the researcher when they need clarity about the issues of confidentiality. The individuals' right to anonymity will be respected as the survey will be coded and a number instead the participant's name will be assigned to the

questionnaire for the purpose of identification during the analysis of the data. Thus no names or any identification of participants or schools will be reported the results of the study. Protection of the data will be secured as only the researcher and research supervisor will have access to the data set. A resource list with the numbers of support services will be compiled in the event that any of the participants are inadvertently emotionally affected during any part of the data collection process.

Your anticipated support is highly appreciated.

Thanking you

Beryl Topkin

TABLES

Table 4.1: Demographic descriptions of primary school teachers

Total sample	**Variables**					
N= 200	Gender (%)	Age (average)	Ethnicity	Marital Status	Language	Religion
	Male: 11% Female: 89%	43	White: 23,7% Black: 33,8 % Coloured: 40,9% Indian: 1,5%	Married: 57,6 % Divorced: 11,6 % Widowed: 7,6 % Never married: 23,2 %	Afrikaans: 50% English: 19,2% Setswana: 26,8% Other: 4%	Christian: 96% Muslim: 3,5 % Other: 0,5%

Table 4.2: Demographic statistics of primary school teachers

Total sample	**Variables**				
N= 200	Grade teaching	Years teaching	Advantage/ disadvantage	School fees payable	Amount payable
	Gr 1: 22,8% Gr 2: 20% Gr 3: 19,4% Gr 5: 16,7%	0-12: 29,5% 13-20: 28,9% 21 or more: 41%	30% advantaged 70% disadvantaged	Yes: 59,3% No: 46,1%	0-100: 42% 300-500: 36% 600-800: 18% 800 or more: 4%

Table 4.3: Internal consistencies of KADDS

Descriptive Statistics and Alpha Coefficients

Scale		Sample				
		Elementary Teachers (NY)a N= 149	Elementary Teachers (OH) b N=199	College Students c N=273	School Personnel d N=51	Elementary Education Students e N=63
Total (36 items)	M	46. 57	53.80	45.24	56.80	42.11
	SD	17.91	16.49	16.13	20.68	14.96
	Alpha	.87	.84	.82	.90	.80
Associated Features (15 items)						
	M	40.36	44.32	35.92	47.86	33.66
	SD	18.17	18.15	16.09	20.34	16.57
	Alpha	.69	.67	.56	.74	.60
Symptom/ Diagnosis (9 items)						
	M	62.86	66.44	59.14	66.47	58.60
	SD	23.53	19.76	21.15	23.83	18.78
	Alpha	.71	.61	.61	.75	.52
Treatment (12 items)						
	M	42.11	56.16	46.46	60.71	40.32
	SD	20.57	19.84	21.39	23.83	17.93
	Alpha	.69	.63	.66	.75	.61

Note: Mean scores represent the percentage of correct responses.
aSciutto, Terjesen& Bender-Frank (2000)
bSciutto, Nolfi&Bluhm (2004)
cSciutto&Terjesen (2004)
d Herbert, Krittenden, &Dalrymple (2004)
e Bender (1996)

Total scores on KADDS

KADDS subscales

Total Sample: N= 196

Scale	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. deviation	Total score possible
General Associated Features	0	13	5.37 (41, 3%)	2.56	15
Symptoms and Diagnosis	0	9	5.86 (65, 11%)	1.92	9
Treatment	0	10	4.92 (49, 2%)	2.29	12

Table 4.4: Primary school teachers' knowledge of symptoms of ADHD

Total Sample: N= 196

Item	Min	Max	Mean	Std. deviation
7) One symptom of children with ADHD is that they have been physically cruel to other people	0	1	.57	.497
32)The majority of children with ADHD evidence some degree of poor school performance in the primary school years.	0	1	.74	.438
26)Children with ADHD often have difficulties organizing tasks and activities	0	1	.82	.386
21) In order to be diagnosed as ADHD, a child must exhibit relevant symptoms in two or more settings (e.g., home, school).	0	1	.85	.354
17) Symptoms of depression are found more frequently in children with ADHD than in children without ADHD.	0	1	.37	.484
16) Current wisdom about ADHD suggests two clusters of symptoms: One of inattention and another consisting of hyperactivity/impulsivity.	0	1	.82	.385
9) Children with ADHD often fidget or squirm in their seats.	0	1	.86	.348
5) In order to be diagnosed with ADHD, the child's symptoms must have been present before age seven	0	1	.49	.501

3) Children with ADHD are frequently distracted by extraneous stimuli	0	1	.85	.363

Total score of teachers on symptoms and diagnosis of ADHD:

Scale	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. deviation	Total score possible
Symptoms and Diagnosis	0	9	5.86 (65, 11%)	1.92	9

Table 4.5: Primary school teachers' knowledge of general associated features of ADHD

Total Sample: N= 196

Item	Min	Max	Mean	Std. deviation
2) Most estimates suggest that ADHD occurs in approximately 15% of school age children	0	1	.08	.264
2) Current research suggests that ADHD is largely the result of ineffective parenting skills	0	1	.56	.498
11) It is common for children with ADHD to have an inflated sense of self-esteem or grandiosity.	0	1	.26	.437
14) Children with ADHD often have a history of stealing or destroying other people's things.	0	1	0.37	.484
19) Most children with ADHD "outgrow" their symptoms by the onset of puberty and subsequently function normally in adulthood.	0	1	.26	.437
22) If a child with ADHD is able to demonstrate sustained attention to video games or TV for over an hour, that child is also able to sustain attention for at least an hour of class or homework.	0	1	.46	.499
27) Children with ADHD generally experience more problems in novel situations than in familiar situations.	0	1	.10	.301
28) There are specific physical features which can be identified by medical	0	1	.36	.482

doctors (e.g., paediatrician) in making a definitive diagnosis of ADHD.				
29) In school age children, the prevalence of ADHD in males and females is equivalent.	0	1	.40	.492
30) In very young children (less than 4 years old), the problem behaviours of ADHD children (e.g. hyperactivity, inattention) are distinctly different from age appropriate behaviours of children without ADHD.	0	1	.06	.239
33) Symptoms of ADHD are often seen in children without ADHD who come from inadequate and chaotic home environments.	0	1	.38	.486
31) Children with ADHD are more distinguishable from children without ADHD in a classroom setting than in a free play situation.	0	1	.76	.426
13) It is possible for an adult to be diagnosed with ADHD.	0	1	.58	.496
6) ADHD is more common in the 1st degree biological relatives (i.e. mother, father) of children with ADHD than in the general population	0	1	.23	.419
4) Children with ADHD are typically more compliant with their fathers than with their mothers	0	1	.14	.348

Total score of teachers on the general associated features of ADHD

Scale	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. deviation	Total score possible
General Associated Features	0	13	5.37 (41, 3%)	2.56	15

Table 4.6: Primary school teachers' knowledge of the treatment of ADHD

Total Sample: N= 196

Item	Min	Max	Mean	Std. deviation
12) When treatment of a child with ADHD is terminated, it is rare for the child's symptoms to return.	0	1	.46	.500
18) Individual psychotherapy is usually sufficient for the treatment of most children with ADHD.	0	1	.24	.428
23) Reducing dietary intake of sugar or food additives is generally effective in reducing the symptoms of ADHD.	0	1	.12	.326
34) Behavioural/Psychological interventions for children with ADHD focus primarily on the child's problems with inattention.	0	1	.17	.377
35) Electroconvulsive Therapy (i.e. shock treatment) has been found to be an effective treatment for severe cases of ADHD.	0	1	.18	.386
36) Management for ADHD which focus primarily on punishment have been found to be the most effective in reducing the symptoms of ADHD.	0	1	.53	.500
25) Stimulant drugs are the most common type of drug used to treat children with ADHD	0	1	.37	.483
20) In severe cases of ADHD, medication is often used before other behaviour modification techniques are attempted.	0	1	.56	.498
15) Side effects of stimulant drugs used for treatment of ADHD may include mild insomnia and appetite reduction.	0	1	.57	.497
10) Parent and teacher training in managing a child with ADHD are generally effective when combined with medication treatment.	0	1	.80	.405
8) Antidepressant drugs have been effective in reducing symptoms for many children with ADHD.	0	1	.41	.492
24) A diagnosis of ADHD by itself makes a child eligible for placement in special education.			.48	.501

Total score of teachers on the treatment of ADHD

Scale	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. deviation	Total score possible
Treatment	0	10	4.92 (49, 2%)	2.29	12

Table 4.7 Frequencies in terms of training received

Total sample	Variables							
N= 197	Training received		Taught child with ADHD		Referred child with ADHD		Access to research material	
	Yes	No	Yes	No	Yes	No	Yes	No
	82,2 %	17,8%	61,9%	38,1%	38,6%	61,4%	49,2%	50,8%

Table 4.8: Frequency of support for classroom management techniques

Variables	Total sample	Agree	Disagree
Seating in classroom	N= 199	51,8%	15,5%
Educational interventions	N= 199	62,3%	0,5%
Assistive technology	N= 199	68,3%	15,1%
Academic & social improvements	N= 199	61,8%	13,1%
Setting of behavioural expectations	N= 198	67,7%	16,2%
Time given for tests	N= 197	41,6%	35%
Learning expectations	N= 198	67,7%	12,6%
Classroom rules	N= 199	59,8%	6,5%

Repetition of directions	N= 198	67,7%	14,1%
Classwork broken into units	N= 198	58,1%	14,1%
Token reinforcement	N= 198	65,2%	10,1%
Communication as intervention	N= 198	57,6%	11,6%
Ignore disruptive behaviour	N= 198	53%	28,8%