An Assessment of Teachers’ Attitudes and Their Commitment to Inclusive Educational Settings in Bahati Sub-County, Kenya

Priscilla Gathoni WANDERI
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ABSTRACT

Education of children with disabilities has shifted from segregated special schools to inclusion in mainstream education schools and classrooms. As people with disabilities challenged the stigmatizing and limiting nature of segregated education, and gave voice to their anger and dissatisfaction, issues of equality of access and educational opportunity gained impetus and integration became center stage. Children with or without disabilities have the same rights to educational opportunities under the United Nation Convention on the rights of the child. The commitment of teachers to inclusivity depends entirely on their attitudes towards inclusion. This formed the basis of this study. The study aimed at establishing the attitudes of teachers towards inclusion, their commitment to inclusion and the relationship between teachers’ attitude and their commitment towards inclusion. A survey design was employed to acquire both qualitative and quantitative data using census approach, where all the 82 teachers of the four public schools that offer inclusive education in Bahati Sub-County were used as respondents. A questionnaire was employed as the main research instrument containing short structured questions which were on a Likert scale. Data was analyzed using the statistical package for social sciences (SPSS) version 21 software. Data was presented in form of descriptive (frequencies, means and standard deviations) and inferential statistics. The study found out that teacher’s attitude had high positive and significant relationship with affective commitment of teachers. Thus, enhancing teachers’ attitude improves teachers’ commitment in inclusive schools. It was thus concluded that teacher’s attitude is important in determining teachers’ affective commitment in inclusive schools. The study recommended that the school management teams should put in place mechanisms that improve teachers’ attitude towards inclusive learning. Additionally, it was recommended that teachers should attend short term courses relating to inclusive learning to enhance their knowledge on inclusive education.
DECLARATION

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

PRISCILLA G. WANDERI

______________________________    ______________________________
Signature                      Date

This thesis has been submitted for examination with our approval as university supervisors

Prof. Steinar Theie

______________________________    ______________________________
Signature                      Date

Prof. Anne Lise Rygvold

______________________________    ______________________________
Signature                      Date
DEDICATION

This work is dedicated to my Mother who laid the foundation upon which I build, to my dear husband George, and my sons Dan and Mark.
ACKNOWLEDGEMENT

My gratitude goes to my supervisor Professor Steinar and Anne Lise for their patience and expert input that helped to shape this thesis. I thank my family who believed in me and encouraged me to keep going. God bless you all.
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1 CHAPTER 1: Background to the study

1.1 Introduction

This thesis dealt with attitudes and commitment of Kenyan teachers towards inclusion and inclusive education in the mainstream classrooms in Bahati sub-county, Kenya. Teachers’ attitudes and commitment towards inclusive educational setting were brought to the fore. After all, the rationale of having inclusive education is to value children with special needs so that they can participate equally in all educational activities alongside their peers without special needs (Adoyo; 2005). There should be no form of discrimination, segregation or isolation of children with special needs in provision of education services. They must be given equal opportunity to participate alongside children without special needs (Manzi, 2011). Therefore, it is with such initial premise that this thesis attempted to explore the attitudes and commitment of teachers in Kenya on inclusive educational setting.

1.2 Background of the study

The debate about inclusive education has generated a lot of interest in the education sector throughout the world. Education of children with disabilities has shifted from segregated special schools to inclusion in general education schools and classrooms (Odongo, 2012). The drive to achieve Education for All (EFA) by 2015 has led to a focus on the barriers to participation in basic education for marginalized groups (United Nations Education, Science and Cultural Organization, 2010). The United Nations Convention on the Rights of Persons with Disabilities came into force in May 2008 and signatories (142 states by September 2009) were charged in article 24 with ensuring an inclusive education system at all levels. The convention recognizes that educational provision varies around the world, and so requires states to provide an inclusive, quality, and free primary and secondary education on an equal basis with others in the communities in which they live (United Nations Organization, 2006). According to World Health Organization (2005), approximately 10% of the world’s population has a disability, and 80% of those with disabilities live in the developing world. Since the mid-twentieth century, there has been a growing international disability movement that has advocated for the inclusion of people with disabilities within society (Odongo, 2012).
Norah and Tony (2002) note that Inclusive education gathered momentum as early as mid 1960s as a result of a broader rights movement in society towards normalization.

The most compelling rationale for inclusive education is based on the fundamental human rights (Dagnew, 2013). As people with disabilities challenged the stigmatizing and limiting nature of segregated education, and gave voice to their anger and dissatisfaction, issues of equality of access and educational opportunity gained impetus and integration became center stage. Political pressure from disability and parental advocacy groups began to change society’s values and would ultimately bring legislative changes to reform education. Educators were increasingly exploring ways of supporting previously segregated groups so that they could find a place in mainstream schools. Researchers also began to highlight the fact that the special school system selected children disproportionately from racial minorities and socially disadvantaged groups (Mercer, 1970; Tomlinson, 1981).

According to Dagnew (2013), the center for studies in inclusive education presents a further view of inclusive education. This is because all children with or without disabilities or difficulties learn together in ordinary school provisions with appropriate networks of support. Inclusion means enabling all students to participate fully in the life and work of mainstream settings, whatever their needs. There are many different ways of achieving this and an inclusive time table might look different for each student (Csie, 2002). Teachers’ practices are central to effective inclusion and a number of studies have explored this theme. Elements of practice identified as supporting effective inclusion of students with special educational needs include scaffolding, modeling, contingency management and other effective instructional methods such as feedback (Dagnew, 2013). An important factor in determining the success of inclusion is the attitude of the teacher. According to O’Brien (2000), the real key resource for successful inclusion lies inside the teacher’s head. Some mainstream teachers have considerable reservations about the feasibility of inclusion in reality.

In the USA PL94-142 education for all handicapped act of 1975 established the principle of ‘Zero reject’ or entitlement for all in public education advocating for Least Restrictive Environment (LRE). PL 94-142 demanded for provision of a free appropriate public education for all children with disabilities regardless of the severity of their disabilities. Later, parents of children with significant cognitive disabilities began to express dissatisfaction at the separateness of their children education. Their children were now entitled to access public schools but they were housed in schools that had typical learners or were in separate wing of a
school and not treated as though they were part of the rest of the school community. Parents took legal procedures to push for the right for their children to be included with other children. The US department of education through regular education initiative (REI) urged general education and special education teachers to work together to educate all children. This initiative gave birth to inclusive education movement (Friend, 2008, UNESCO, 1994). In Britain, the Education for Handicapped Children Act of 1970 removed legal distinction between those who were and were not educable in school. This enactment saw an increment in enrollment for children with disabilities (Manzi, 2011).

Inclusive education policies are a new phenomenon in the field of education in African nations. Emphasis has been given on policy options from integration to inclusive schools that serve all children within a community. According to Manzi (2011), Uganda is leading the way in its commitment to integrate children with disabilities into mainstream schooling as a step in the process towards inclusion. Although the concept of inclusive education has been around for more than a decade, special education in Kenya had not embraced the philosophy until recently (Abeiter & Hartley, 2002, Wamae & Kangethe2004).

In Kenyan education context, all children have the right to be educated together regardless of any special need or disability. Originally, the inclusive education movement was focused primarily on people with disabilities and learning difficulties. This assumption can be seen across the literature and across a number of legislative documents (Aniscow et al. 2006). They pointed out that inclusive education looks at both the rights of pupils, and how education systems can be transformed to respond to diverse group of learners. It emphasizes the need for opportunities of equal participation for any pupil with disabilities or special needs in the education system, preferably in a mainstream environment.

The Kenya government has documented inclusive education in its policy framework and has provisionally projected availability of at least one special needs education (SNE) unit in every school by the year 2015. Implementation of inclusive education requires consideration of policy matters, legislation reform, financial resources, human resources infrastructural resources and intellectual resources (Manzi, 2011). The question is whether this will be possible in a country where material resources required for this undertaking are limited, given that inclusion requires adaptations of the structures to fit the learners needs (Adoyo, 2005).
Even though the concept of inclusion is a central theme in the government policy, debate has emerged on the viability of inclusive education due to varying categories of disabilities and the range in severity (Wamae and Kangethe 2004). Increased enormous challenges such as inadequate resources, negative attitude, believes towards children with disabilities and rigid school curriculum hinder effective implementation of inclusive education (Adoyo, 2005). It is worth noting that the rationale of inclusion has its base from its apparent benefits to both disabled and non-disabled persons (Manzi, 2011). In fact inclusion is an equity issue, it postulates that regular schools with inclusive orientation are most effective means of combating discriminatory attitudes, creating welcoming communities, building an inclusive society and achieving Education for All (EFA). Despite this realization and well formulated policy framework a situational analysis is necessary to give the realistic picture on the ground.

In an attempt to ensure effectiveness in implementation of inclusive education in Bahati sub-county, various indicators are important. They include: quality of teachers with training in Special Needs Education(SNE), adequate teaching and learning materials, equipment, and teachers’ perceptions towards inclusive education. It is with such initial premise that forms the motivation of this thesis in attempting to assess the attitudes and commitment of teachers in Kenya on inclusive educational setting.

1.3 Statement of the Problem

A major goal of education in Kenya is to provide equal opportunities for all including those with special needs (MoEST, 2005). A policy on special education demands that children with special needs be incorporated in regular schools. This commitment was evident in 2004 when the then Ministry of Education, Science and Technology under Kenya Sector Support Programme (KESSP) gave to each public primary school Kenya shillings. 10, 000 to modify the school environment in readiness of inclusive education (MoEST, 2005). Despite the progress in providing quality inclusive education to children with special needs, challenges among them inadequate resources, negative attitude and believes towards children with disabilities together with rigid school curriculum hinder effective implementation of inclusive education.

Effective implementation of inclusive education in Bahati sub-county is a matter of concern. There is need to determine the status of implementation of Inclusive Education in terms of the
general attitudes of teachers towards inclusive education, and their commitment to the inclusive educational setting. Although research related to inclusive education has been conducted, there are limited studies on attitudes of teachers towards inclusive education, and the commitment of teacher to the inclusive educational setting in Kenya. For example, the most common issues have been factors affecting the implementation of inclusive education in primary schools (Dagnew, 2013), effectiveness of the implementation of inclusive education in primary schools (Manzi, 2011) and challenges experienced by educators in the implementation of inclusive education in primary schools (ladbrook, 2009). However empirical data on attitudes and commitment of teachers towards inclusive education is limited in the context of Sub-Saharan Africa in general and Kenya in particular. The same problem remains in Bahati Sub-county. In an attempt to fill this gap this study sought to assess the attitudes of teachers towards inclusive education and possible relationship of the teachers’ attitude to their commitment to inclusive educational setting in the Kenyan context.

1.4 Objective of the Study

The main objective of the study was to assess teachers’ attitudes and their commitment to inclusive educational settings in Bahati Sub-County

1.5 Research Questions

To achieve the above objective the study was guided by the following research questions

i. What are the attitudes of teachers towards inclusive education in Bahati Sub- County?

ii. What is the level of teachers’ commitment towards inclusive educational setting in Bahati Sub- County?

iii. Is there a relationship between teacher attitude and the commitment of teachers towards inclusive educational setting in Bahati Sub- County?

1.6 Significance of the Study

The findings of this study could help create awareness among policy makers, practitioners and other stakeholders of the actual picture on inclusion of children with disabilities in general
education classrooms. The study shall help planners to identify gaps in the implementation of inclusive education policy in order to make necessary policy changes. The results obtained from this study may also contribute to the knowledge bank of inclusive education. Finally this study may inspire teachers in the research setting to revisit their understanding of the notion of inclusive education and those interested to proceed in a similar line of study. The study was limited to teachers’ attitudes on inclusion in primary schools in Bahati sub-county in Kenya. Because of time, resources and space, other important stakeholders like parents, pupils and other school officials who could have been very resourceful for the topic were not included.

1.7 Operational definition of terms

Attitudes: Learned and stable predisposition to react to a given situation, person or other set of cues in a consistent way that guide and influence people’s behaviors in their daily lives (Corsini, 1991).

Commitment: Refers to the relative strength of an individual’s identification with, and involvement in, a particular organization (an inclusive school in this case). It involves a strong belief in, and acceptance of the institution’s goals and values (Kanter, 1968).

Disability: This is lack or restriction of ability to perform an activity in the manner within the range considered normal within the cultural context of the human being (MoEST, 2005).

Head teacher: Person in charge of a primary school (MoEST, 2005).

Inclusive education: This is an approach through which learners with disabilities and special needs, regardless of age and disability, are provided with appropriate education within regular schools (Green, 2001).

Regular school: This is a learning institution that normally admits learners who are not disabled (MoEST, 2005).

Special Needs Education: This is education which provides appropriate modification in curriculum delivery methods, educational resources, medium of communication or the learning environment in order to cater for individual differences in learning (Manzi, 2011).
**Special school:** This is a learning institution that normally admits learners with special needs only (MoEST, 2005).

**Inclusive school:** This is a learning institution that normally admits learners with special needs and those without any disability (MoEST, 2005).

### 1.8 Organization of the thesis

The first chapter of this research report will provide a general overview of the intention, research questions, scope and significance of the study. The second chapter will cover the history of inclusive education. The role of teachers in the discussion and practice of inclusive education will be argued in detail. Lastly but not least the context of inclusive education in Kenya will be shown under various subtopics that deal with the development of inclusive education. Particular national policies, curriculum reforms and numerous empirical evidences will be taken into consideration to enrich this component of the chapter. The third chapter will present the reasons for choosing the research approach, the research setting, the informants, and the instrument of data collection. Also included in this chapter are the tasks done to achieve trustworthiness, the piloting process, and the role of the researcher in the study. Finally, a highlight on how the data for this research will be organized and analyzed will be provided, before the chapter concludes by showing the ethical considerations during the research process. The fourth chapter will show the results and the discussions of the analyzed data while the last chapter will present a conclusion of the findings including recommendations and suggestions of further research.
2 CHAPTER 2: THEORETICAL FOCUS AND LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1 Introduction

This chapter reviewed the relevant literature to the study. The chapter dealt with the theoretical framework, inclusive education, components of attitude, and teacher commitment. The conceptual framework of the study was also shown.

2.2 Theoretical framework

This study used a number of theories, namely Bandura’s self-efficacy theory, the Social-Cultural theory and the Cognitive consistency approach. Self-efficacy pertains to a sense of control over one’s environment and behavior, thus it is important, for the purpose of this study, to understand how teacher’s sense of control over the environment and behavior relates to their commitment to their calling. Teachers with a strong locus-of-control are more likely to maintain a higher sense of self-efficacy (Bandura, 1977). This means they are more likely to put forth more effort in order to change behavior, commit to challenges, and persistence despite obstacles that may undermine motivation. Vygotsky (1993) in his socio-cultural theory proposed that changing social attitudes should be one of the first goals of special educators (Gindis, 2003). This theory will be relevant in this study because the right attitudes of teachers towards inclusive education are vital for the goals of special education to be realized. Feldman (1985) cognitive consistency approach was relevant in this study in understanding the relationship between the teachers’ attitude and inclusion in schools and also the commitment of teachers towards inclusion. According to the theory, increased consonance in attitude will lead to increased teacher commitment towards inclusion in schools.

2.2.1 Self efficacy theory

Bandura’s self-efficacy theory originates from social cognitive theory (Bandura, 1977). The theory evolved when Bandura became aware that there was a missing element in social learning theory. According to Bandura (1977), self-efficacy beliefs are fundamental to human
functioning. Artino (2006) posits that a person must possess the necessary knowledge and skills, as well as the motivation and perception, required for successful exhibition of the required behavior under difficult circumstances. Bandura (1977), theorized that perceived self-efficacy makes a difference in how people think, feel, and behave. His theory states that people faced with constant rejection must possess high self-efficacy, or self-worth, in order to persist. His theory further states that self-efficacy is based on one’s judgment of one’s capacity to execute on a given responsibility (Skaalvik & Skaalvik, 2007). It is important to note that people’s beliefs in their efficacy can have diverse effects. Johnson (2010) argues that these beliefs influence the courses of action people choose to pursue, how much effort they put forth in given endeavors, how long they will persevere in the face of obstacles and failures, their resilience to adversity, whether their thought patterns are self-hindering or self-aiding.

Educational research has examined the truth in the correlation where one’s efficacy beliefs dictate performance and performance determines outcome (Bandura, 1997). According to Bandura (1997), self-efficacy is the belief in one’s capabilities to organize and execute the courses of action required to manage prospective situations. These beliefs affect behaviors and ultimately performance outcomes (Bandura, 1977). Bandura (1977) described four sources of self-efficacy: mastery experiences, vicarious experiences, verbal persuasion, and physiological and affective responses. Bandura (1982, 1986) maintained that mastery experiences (performance accomplishments) are the most effective way to develop a strong sense of efficacy. Successful performances serve as positive examples that may shape perceptions about future capability to perform the same or a similar task again (Bandura, 1977). This positive shaping of perceptions is what Bandura considered improving self-efficacy. On the other hand, failing at a task can weaken self-efficacy by serving as a negative past performance that may negatively shape perceptions about capability (Bandura, 1977).

Another way to develop self-efficacy is through vicarious experiences, which are generated through social models (Bandura, 1977). Bandura and Barab (1973) noted that observing others perform intimidating responses without adverse consequences can reduce fears and inhibitions, thus motivating action. As a result, people who observe others performing intimidating responses without adverse consequences are more apt to believe their attempts at the same action would be successful. A third way to develop self-efficacy is through verbal persuasion, commonly used to influence behavior because it is easy to use and readily
accessible (Bandura, 1977). Through other people’s suggestions, people are prompted to believe that they have the capability to accomplish a task that they previously felt ill-equipped to accomplish (Bandura, 1977). However, verbal persuasion alone will not prompt effective performance; people also must receive the appropriate tools needed to perform a given task (Bandura, 1977).

The last way to develop self-efficacy is through physiological and affective states. Bandura (1997) suggested that one’s physical and mental states can impact one’s perception about performance, thus affecting self-efficacy and ultimately performance outcomes. Emotional arousal to stressful situations may promote fear and anxiety, which negatively influences performance (Bandura, 1977). In a reciprocal manner, those negative performance outcomes affect a person’s physiological and affective states (Bandura, 1977). In addition to the four sources of self-efficacy Bandura also distinguished between efficacy expectation and outcome expectation. An outcome expectation is a person’s estimate that a given behavior will lead to certain outcomes. An efficacy expectation is the conviction that one can successfully execute the behavior required to produce the outcomes (Bandura, 1977). Thus, a person can believe that a certain behavior will have a certain outcome, but if the person seriously doubts his or her ability to be successful performing the activity, outcome expectancy will not influence his or her behavior (Bandura, 1977). This is particularly applicable to verbal persuasion, which will not be successful in influencing behavior unless a person’s efficacy expectations match his or her outcome expectations.

Tschannen-Moran et al. (1998) notes that Bandura's self-efficacy theory is one of the few conceptualizations of human control that describe a distinction between competence and contingency. These theoretical connections between one's perception of teacher efficacy and one’s organizational commitment are relevant in investigating the problem of practice since they highlight a cognitive link in dissatisfaction-quit sequence (Hom and Kinicki 2001). Because a teacher’s affective reaction to work and subsequent feelings of commitment are major theme in attrition (Billingsley, 2004), and the dissatisfaction-quit sequence (Hom & Kinicki, 2001), developing practical insight into the thought process preceding actions, such as lack of commitment, can support the development of effective teacher commitment. Perceived self-efficacy refers to beliefs in one's capabilities to organize and execute the course of action required to produce given attainment (Bandura, 1997).
Once people develop a perception of a given situation, their expectation of that situation is processed into a given behavior that leads to an outcome. Bandura (1997) continues to note that an outcome expectation is defined as one’s estimate that a given action will lead to a desired outcome. This means that how a person feels about a circumstance will determine not only the behavior, but also the outcome, once a person evaluates what kind of outcome to expect. One’s perceived self-efficacy and the subsequent expectations about a given situation determine how much effort to put forth and how long to persist in challenging situations.

Bandura (1999) further argues that one’s perceived self-efficacy, or one’s sense of control of an environment and behavior, will determine the amount of effort, if any, to put forth and how long to persist through challenges and negative experiences. The reason why Bandura's (1977) theory of self-efficacy was relevant for this study was on the main assumption that people's beliefs in their efficacy have varied effects on behavior such as commitment. A person's efficacy beliefs influence their course of action, efforts toward a given goal, how long they will persevere through adverse situations, levels of stress and depression in coping with some external demands, and the level of success they are able to attain.

### 2.2.2 Social-Cultural Theory

Over the past three decades Vygotsky’s (1993) socio-cultural theory has become a powerful influence in educational psychology, developmental psychology and early childhood education in English speaking countries. Some of the most influential theoretical concept of Vygotsky’s theory that relate to the central tenet of social-cultural theory is co-construction of knowledge between the individual and social processes (John-Steiner & Mahn, 1996), the function of social interaction in the development of the human brain and the concept of the zone of proximal development to explain learning and teaching (Mahn, 1999). Gindis (2003) analysed Vygotsky’s theories and suggested that the main aspects that apply to special education are the theory of socio-cultural activity and the theory of distorted development. The major contributions that Vygotskian theory makes to special education practice include the fact that understanding the nature of disability and the means to compensate for it are the core of any system of special education (Vygotsky, 1993; Gindis, 2003).

According to Vygotsky, primary disability may limit the acquisition and the use of some social skills making children acquire knowledge at a slower rate. However, it is the child’s social milieu that may severely limit the course of development and lead to the delays or
differences that are characteristic of many people with disabilities. Vygotsky explained that the many behavioral traits such as passivity, dependence and lack of social skills that are thought to characterize people with intellectual disabilities are in fact the product of poor access to socio-cultural knowledge, lack of social interaction and opportunity to acquire psychological tools. As a result of the primary disability, expectations and attitudes change access to social experiences leading to the development of the secondary disability. In order to prevent or remediate the development of secondary disability, Vygotsky proposed that changing social attitudes should be one of the first goals of special educators (Gindis, 2003). This theory will be relevant in this study because the right attitudes of teachers towards inclusive education are vital for the goals of special education to be realized.

2.2.3 Cognitive consistency approach

Feldman (1985) described cognitive consistency approach as an approach that starts with the existing attitudes as opposed to the way attitudes are acquired; the approach tries to explain how the components fit together with one another and with attitudes. Feldman posits that cognitive consistency theories view human beings as active in information processing trying to make sense out of what they think, feel and do, and actively constructing and interpreting the world to bring congruence to inconsistencies that may occur between and within attitudes. Consistent with this idea, Sears, Freedman, & Peplau (1985) assert that cognitive consistency approach grows out of the cognitive tradition and it portrays people as striving for coherence and meaning in their cognitive structure. Both Feldman (1985) and Sears et al. (1985) share the same view that as much as this approach includes a number of related theories they all share one basic principle, that is, inconsistency is a psychologically unpleasant state and it makes the person to seek consistency by decreasing inconsistency. Inconsistency may occur between cognition about and affect towards an attitudinal object, between affect towards a person and his position on an issue, or between a person's cognitions; affect and behaviour towards an attitudinal object (Feldman, 1985). There are three main theories that fall under the cognitive consistency approach: Balance theory, cognitive-affective consistency and dissonance theory.

2.2.3.1 Balance theory

In balance theory, balance is defined as a stable cognitive state which is comfortable to the perceiver (Feldman, 1985). Sears et al. (1985) argue that the motive that pushes people
towards balance is trying to achieve harmonious, simple, coherent, and meaningful view of social relationships. They also maintain that imbalance systems give a pressure towards attitude change. According to this theory, people experience discomfort and pressure if there is an imbalance in their attitudinal systems that will lead them to try to change their attitudinal systems in order to achieve a balance.

2.2.3.2 Cognitive-affective consistency

According to Sears et al. (1985), Cognitive-affective consistency, views people as trying to make their cognition consistent with their affects. In this view beliefs about the facts of the object are to a certain extent determined by affective preferences. It is also argued that the evaluations that people make influence their beliefs, that is, people acquire cognitions necessary to support their evaluation.

2.2.3.3 Cognitive dissonance theory

Cognitive dissonance is defined as the uncomfortable feeling that arises when a person experiences conflicting thoughts, beliefs or feelings (Feldman, 1985, Gornly, 1992, & Sears et al., 1985). This provides a state of psychological tension which motivates a person to reduce the dissonance. Consequently attitude changes in order to maintain consistency with overt behaviour. Feldman (1985) posits that the main idea is that when a person holds two cognitions simultaneously that contradicts one another, that person will experience dissonance. In an attempt to reduce dissonance, it becomes necessary to change one or both of the conflicting attitudes. Gornly (1992) postulates that the process of dissonance reduction does not always take place consciously. Furthermore, Festinger (1957) suggests that individuals may change behavioral cognitive elements, environmental cognitive elements or add new cognitive elements to reduce dissonance.

The theory is built upon the notion that individuals strive toward consistency. If there are inconsistencies, they try to rationalize them to reduce psychological discomfort (Festinger, 1957). Festinger uses the term “consonance” in terms of consistency and uses the term “dissonance” in terms of inconsistency. He is proposing that dissonance might arise from logical inconsistencies, cultural mores, inconsistency between cognition and a more encompassing cognition and past experiences. There is at least one cognitive element dissonant with behavioral elements. In the existence of dissonance, individuals are motivated to reduce the dissonance and avoid situations that increase it.
The magnitude of dissonance depends on the importance or value of the elements (e.g. knowledge, belief, attitudes) that are dissonant. If a person gives importance to these elements, the magnitude of the dissonant relation between elements would be greater (Festinger, 1957). Accordingly, the magnitude of the dissonance would influence pressures to reduce or eliminate the dissonance (Festinger, 1957). As the magnitude increases, pressures to reduce dissonance and avoidance from situations that generate dissonance increases. Furthermore, Festinger (1957) suggests that individuals may change behavioral cognitive elements, environmental cognitive elements or add new cognitive elements to reduce dissonance.

The theory has wide implications and applications to a variety of contexts. For instance, in the process of decision making, people should handle the unpleasantness of having rejected an attractive alternative (Festinger, 1957). According to Lewin (1935, as cited in Festinger, 1957), once a decision has been made, individuals tends to stick to their decisions. This process namely, *the freezing effect of decision*” results from establishing consonant relations with the decision (e.g. chosen alternative seems to be more attractive) and eliminating dissonant relations (e.g. unchosen alternatives seem to be less attractive). Similarly, Brehm (1956, as cited in Aronson, 1969) found that after a decision has been made, subjects enhanced their liking for the chosen alternative and downgraded the unchosen alternative.

However, Festinger (1957) proposes that dissonance arises after a choice has been made. The magnitude of the post decision dissonance depends on the importance of the decision, relative attractiveness of the unchosen alternative and the degree of cognitive overlap of the alternatives. In other words, if the decision is important, unchosen alternatives are attractive and the degree of overlap is low, the post decision dissonance is stronger. In order to reduce post decision dissonance, an individual may change or revoke the decision, change the attractiveness of the alternatives (e.g. by magnifying the importance of chosen alternative and minimizing attractiveness of unchosen alternative) or establish cognitive overlap (e.g. by creating similarities among chosen and unchosen alternatives).

### 2.3 Conceptual Framework

The above theoretical framework based on the Bandura’s self-efficacy theory, the Social-Cultural theory and the Cognitive consistency approach assisted in developing a conceptual
framework of this study in assessing the attitude of teachers and their commitment to inclusive educational setting. Teachers in inclusive schools spend more time with learners providing them with direction, guidance, providing needed resources, assessing, observing and evaluating their performance. As a result, the teacher’s attitudes could affect their commitment to their place of work. In this study, the effects of teacher’s attitudes on the teachers’ commitment to their place of work was investigated. In doing this, the conceptual framework presented in Figure 2.1 below was developed. It shows the relationship between independent variables, intervening variables and dependent variables.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Independent variable</th>
<th>Intervening variable</th>
<th>Dependent variables</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Teachers’ attitude</td>
<td>Reward system</td>
<td>Affective Commitment</td>
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<td></td>
<td>Recognition</td>
<td>emotional attachment</td>
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<td>Motivation</td>
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**Figure 2.1: Teachers Attitude and Commitment**

The figure conceptualizes a structure in which teachers’ attitude is the independent variable and affective commitment the dependent variable. Teachers’ attitude is measured in terms of cognitive, affective and behavioural attitudes while affective commitment is in terms of emotional attachment, involvement and identification. The study conceptualized that reward system, recognition, motivation and educational policies were the intervening variables.

Inclusion largely depends on teachers’ attitudes towards pupils with special needs and on the resources available to them. In quite a number of studies, the attitude of teachers towards educating pupils with special needs has been put forward as a decisive factor in making schools more inclusive. If mainstream teachers do not accept the education of these pupils as an integral part of their job, they will try to ensure that someone else (often the special
education teacher) takes responsibility for these pupils and will organize covert segregation in the school (e.g. the special class) (Mutasa, Goronga, & Tafangombe, 2013).

2.4 Review of related literature

In the past, a great deal of scholarly research focused on the attitudes of teachers regarding educating students with disabilities. These studies suggest that special education teachers have conflicting opinions regarding educating students with special needs. However, it has been unknown whether the differences in teachers’ opinions were significant (Campbell, Gilmore & Cuskelly, 2003). Are the concerns of general education teachers significantly different from those of special education teachers? Alternatively, do teachers’ opinions simply differ regardless of their training and experience? According to Al Abuljabber (2006) as cited in Dapudong (2013) cross-national studies are important as they might reveal differences, which perhaps will in turn motivate and challenge researchers to re-examine the entrenched practices and theories that prevail in their own countries.

Inclusion, or organized placement of children with disabilities in mainstream classrooms, has certainly been one of the major topics in education for the last two decades. However, it was not until quite recently that teacher’ attitudes towards inclusion of children with special educational needs (SENs) became the focus of extensive research (Dapudong, 2013).

The major reason for this change in research interest could perhaps be traced to more contemporary approaches to education, which claim that in order to gain valuable insight into the practice as well as the dynamics of the inclusive classroom, there is perhaps no better method than to evaluate the attitudes of those who form an important part of that dynamic system namely, the teachers (Dapudong, 2013; Rose, 2001). Indeed, teachers’ attitudes have been found to affect the process and the outcome of inclusion to a great extent.

2.3.1 Inclusive Education

Inclusion is the provision of services to children with disabilities including those with severe impairments in the neighborhood school in age appropriate general education class with the necessary support services and supplementary aids to ensure child’s success- academic, behavioural and social, and to prepare the child to participate as a full and contributing member of the society (Manzi, 2011). Inclusive education is used to describe educational
policies that uphold the rights of students with disabilities to belong within mainstream education (Green 2001). Lewis and Doorlag (1995), on other hand, postulate that inclusion is sometimes used to describe the mainstreaming process, and they highlight that the advocates of full inclusion maintain that the general education classroom is the most appropriate full-time placement for all students with disabilities including those with severe disabilities. They further postulate that support, in this model, is provided within regular classroom setting.

They are also aware that other special education professionals do not concur with the assumption that full-time inclusion is the appropriate placement for students with disabilities. Their strong contention is that professionals who are opposed to full-time inclusion advocate that other options, like resource rooms, should be available so that educational programmes could be tailored down to the specific needs of individual students. Inclusion, in their view, tend to be biased towards students with disabilities that negatively affect their school performance and they are of the view that that the concept should be expanded to include other groups whose learning needs are more important in such a way that they warrant special consideration. In their illustration, for instance, they included gifted and talented students from culturally and linguistically diverse backgrounds and students at risk for school failure that have special needs that could be accommodated within the regular classroom. They are also of the opinion that special students differ, some may learn faster and easily while others may learn with difficulty. Another important issue they highlight is that students' behaviour may be beyond reproach and frequently inappropriate, while others may have problems stemming from their speech, language or culture.

The concept of inclusive educational programming is based on the premise that children of exceptional abilities and backgrounds benefit both academically and socially in a learning environment where they are served alongside normally achieving learners as opposed to being segregated from them (BaneJi & Dailey, 1995). In this regard they defined the full inclusion programme as a model of service delivery characterized by six criteria: All students attend schools to which they would go if they had no disability; A natural proportion of learners with disabilities occurs at each school site; A zero rejection philosophy exists so that typically no student would be excluded on the basis of type and extent of disability; School and general education placement are age and grade appropriate with no self-contained special education classes operative at school site; Cooperative learning and peer instructional methods receive
significant use in general instructional practice; Special education supports are provided within the context of the general education class.

Inclusive education is about educating all children so that they reach their potential. Although the physical location of students in schools and classrooms is not about where children sit as much as about how adults and classmates welcome all children to access learning and recognize that the diversity of learners in today’s schools dictates that no single approach is appropriate for all. Inclusive education is based on the principle that school should accommodate all children regardless of their physical, intellectual, social, emotional linguistic and other conditions (Friend, 2008).

Based on a quality perspective, Farrell (2000) described inclusion as a more accurate way of describing the quality of education offered to students with special needs within an integrated setting. He argued that to be regarded as fully included learners with special needs should take a full and active part in the life of the mainstream school and they need to be valued as members of the community and be perceived as internal part the school. The frame of equality, according to Corbet (1999), is about a genuine commitment to inclusion which includes among other things, changing culture of the institution to make it more responsive to differences, receptive to change and sensitive to language imagery and the presentation of ideas. She further asserts that inclusion is about creating culture which welcomes supports and nurtures diverse needs as well as accepting people as they are, not expecting them to struggle to be normal. This view agrees with that of Leeman & Volman (2001) who believe that education is inclusive if schooling is organized in such a way that all learners can be educated together even when they are different.

Inclusive education is an educational reform program, and not an advocacy of good school/classroom practice. The eventual purpose of the reform is supposed to be the reorganization and restructuring of educational system (Armstrong et al, 2010). The authors also point out the need to see the interconnection between inclusive education and the wider variety of issues such as social and economic goal of education. Lorella Terzi (2008) sees inclusive education as primarily political. Based on Terzi’s argument, the political dimension of inclusive education arises from two major points, namely: from its determination to avoid exclusionary policies and practices; and from its political convergence with the social model of disability and the political struggle and movement of people with disabilities. She also
asserts that inclusive education could be political because it tries to take care of all citizens in a participatory democracy.

Inclusive education is considered as a means to an end (Armstrong & Barton 2007). For them, it is the fundamental instrument which contributes to the realization of an inclusive society. The demand of inclusion is essentially the issue of human right, equity, social justice, and the fight for non-segregating society. That is why these values and notions are the hubs of inclusive educational policy and practice. There have been also endeavors in framing the meaning of inclusive education in terms of the developed world and the developing world. One such attempt is meaning given by Armstrong et al, (2010). According to these authors, the idea of inclusive education in the developed world was an immediate challenge to the customary view and role of special education. The initiative is said to be pushed substantially by the movement of people with disability in the UK, USA, and other parts of Europe.

Several researchers have suggested that the concept of inclusive education is more involved than providing education for all children within the classroom, and is related to the much larger concept of social inclusion and valued status for all people in society irrespective of differences or disability (Forbes, 2007; Forlin, 2006; Mastropieri & Scruggs, 2001; Thomazet, 2009; Zoniou-Sideri & Vlachou, 2006). It has also been suggested that an inclusive approach to education is beneficial for all children, and the rewards of an inclusive environment are not limited to children with special education needs (Nind & Wearmouth, 2006). This then points to the fact that with inclusion, all teachers in schools will be involved hence knowing their attitudes towards inclusive education will be important hence the relevance of this study.

Inclusion has academic and social benefits for both students with and without disabilities and their teachers and families as well (Grenot-Scheyer, Jubala, Bishop & Coots, 1996). This entails increased communication and social interaction opportunities, age appropriate models of behaviour skills, more active participation in the life of school community, individualized education goals as well as access to the rich core curriculum. Grenot-Scheyer et al. (1996) continue to note that inclusive model of education requires the establishment of a collaborative ethic as well as shared ownership of all students. They maintain that through collaborative team effort, specialized support can follow learners to general education classrooms and allow all learners to develop and learn. For them such kind of support may include assistance from a specialist to adapt activities from the core curriculum to meet the individual needs of the diverse learners in the general education classroom.
Inclusion therefore, should be regarded as a shared responsibility for both generalist and specialist teachers in providing a full continuum of services delivery options to all students with special educational needs within the school context as well as responding to diversity and being open to new ideas, empowering all members of community and celebrating differences in a dignified way (Carrington, 1999, Monahan et al., 1996). Carrington (1999) identified four factors that are embodying inclusive education. These factors are: Non-discriminatory education in terms of disability, culture and gender; Involvement of all students in a community with no expectations; Equal rights for students to access culturally valued curriculum as full-time members of age appropriate regular classroom; Emphasis on diversity rather than assimilation.

The origin of inclusive education can be traced back as far as 1960s when the struggle for civil rights and equity for emancipation was taking place in several countries of the world. The early attempts for inclusion and inclusive education are believed to have originated in diverse groups who have diverse practices and diverse understandings (Armstrong et al, 2010). The collective effort in critiquing the then existing and emerging issues of education is believed to have helped in shaping the conception of inclusion and inclusive education. According to Yeibyo (2012) the critique is said to be noticeable in contexts where mainstreaiming and integration were already recognized. The North America, England, Australia, and Newzealand were some of those contexts mentioned. In the process of the critique, teachers, parents, and advocates of students with disabilities are said to have began questioning the barriers to access and participation. The explicit international developments including the Jomtien declaration, 1990; the Salamanca Statement, 1994; and the Dakar framework, 2000 are indicators of the effort that was growing across the globe in developing the notions of inclusive education.

2.5 Inclusive Education in Kenya

Inclusive education is based on the principle that school should accommodate all children regardless of their physical, intellectual, social, emotional linguistic and other conditions (Manzi, 2011). In 1994 The UNESCO report came up with the Salamanca statement and framework for action on Special Needs Education (SNE). The policy framework was to be in line with the United Nations universal declaration of education as a basic human right of
1948. It also reviewed the pledge made by the world community at the Jomtien conference to ensure the right for Education for All regardless of individual difference (UNESCO 1994).

The Dakar framework for action adopted by World Declaration on Education in 2000, which established the goal to provide every child with primary school education by 2015 clearly identified Inclusive Education (IE) as a key strategy for the development of EFA (Education for All). The Salamanca Statement and Framework for Action endorsed by 92 governments and 25 international organizations at the World Conference on SNE, June 1994 in Salamanca, Spain proclaims that every child has unique characteristics, interests, abilities and learning needs. Members in the conference observed that education is the most effective means of combating discriminatory attitudes, creating welcoming communities, building an inclusive society and achieving Education for All.

In the Kenyan case, the National Special Needs Education Policy Framework 2009 clearly states the governments’ commitment in providing education for all. According to MoEST (2005), the policy statement stipulates that the ministry of education shall recognize and reinforce inclusive education as one of the means for children with special education to access education. The main areas of focus include development and promotion of Kenyan sign language, providing funds for adaptation of infrastructure, equipment and facilities in learning institutions, review of curriculum as well as training of teachers in SNE. This follows government’s commitment in 2004 to ensure education for all children including those with disabilities, (MoEST, 2005).

### 2.6 Special Needs Education (SNE) in Kenya.

Special education is that education which provides appropriate modification in curriculum, teaching methods, educational resources, medium of communication or the teaching environment in order to cater for individual differences in learning (Manzi 2011). According to Odongo (2012), special needs education started in Kenya after 1945 and has since been offered mainly to four categories of children with disabilities namely, children with hearing impairments, mental handicap, visual impairment and those with physical handicap. Education for these children was offered in special schools until the 1970’s when units and integrated programs were initiated. Special needs education has since expanded. However, educational opportunities for learners with special needs and disabilities in Kenya pose a
major challenge to the education sector. Majority of learners with special needs and disabilities in Kenya do not access educational services (Republic of Kenya, 2009).

The population of people with special education needs in Kenya is estimated at 10% of the total population. About 25% of these are of school age. Enrolment in special education is low given that out of a total population of 750,000 children with special needs who have reached school going age, only an estimated 90,000 have been assessed to establish the nature of their special needs (Odongo, 2012). Of this number about 26,885 are enrolled in education programmes. This implies that over 90% of children with special needs are at without any schooling. On average these children go to school when they are 8 years and above. Consequently they become adults before they complete their education programme.

In Kenya, annually, children with special needs are allocated 3,020 Kenyan shillings by the government. This is 2000 shillings more than what other children without disabilities get. However, children with special education needs require at least 18,000 shillings to give them an education that is at par with the mainstream classmates. This is because their education requires specialized equipment, trained teachers and institutions that have facilities which make learning easier. According to Wamae and Kang’ethe (2004), there is a growing realization that children with special needs far from becoming burdens in the society, can with skilful teaching often develop into happy and productive citizens. To actualize this noble task the policy on inclusive education becomes the better option. Assessing the attitudes and commitment of teachers towards inclusive education is also important since they will play a big part in actualizing inclusive education in Bahati Sub-county.

2.7 Inclusive Education needs in Bahati Sub County

According to data from Bahati Sub-County Education Office, 2013, the sub – county has four public schools that offer inclusive education. These schools include Muriondo primary school, with twenty four teachers, Our Lady of Mercy primary school which has twenty three teachers, Mugwathi primary school with seventeen teachers and Our Lady of Fatuma with eighteen teachers. These schools suffer from lack of adequate special needs teachers, for instance Muriondo school which is the best placed in terms of SNE teachers has five (20.8 %) trained special needs teachers, Mugwathi has only one (5.9 %) trained special needs teacher while our lady of Fatuma and our Lady of Mercy each has three (16.7 %) trained special
needs teachers. All the other teachers in these schools are ordinary teachers not trained in special needs education. The necessary teaching and learning materials needed by the special needs learners are also not enough according to the information from the sub-county office. Teachers’ perceptions towards inclusive education in the sub-county are also not known hence the need for this study.

2.8 Teachers’ Attitudes

Studies carried out among principals, teachers, and teacher education students have revealed that they possess a positive attitude towards the notion of inclusion (Avramidis, Bayliss & Burden, 2000). However, they become reluctant when it comes to the actual implementation (Campbell, Gilmore & Cuskelley, 2003). Several studies previously pointed out in this review suggest that teacher attitude has a significant impact on the implementation of the inclusive program but such a program will be challenging if educators and schools are not supportive and committed to implementing the policy (Moran, 2007).

Therefore, there is a need to intervene to change the attitudes of teachers, so that they view inclusion positively (Campbell et al., 2003). Their attitudes as mentioned in numerous studies may be influenced by factors such as teacher training, teachers’ experience, gender, type of disability, physical environment, materials and resources, and class size (Singal, 2011; Coşkun et al., 2009; Ernst & Rogers, 2006).

2.8.1 Female and Male Teachers Attitude

Female prospective teachers were reported to have a greater tolerance for having children with special needs in their class (Avramidis et al. 2000). However, Forlin's research (2001) found that female teachers reported significantly greater stress and difficulties in perceived professional competency-than their male counterparts. Studies have indicated that female teachers have a positive attitude for inclusion of disabled children in mainstream schools, unlike male teachers (Avramidis & Norwich, 2002). This is perhaps because females as mothers are more sympathetic to disabled children (Alghazo & Gaad, 2004). Studies by Alghazo & Gaad (2004), Avramidis et al., (2000) and Leyser and Tappendorf (2001) all had similar findings.
However, several past and recent studies have also shown mixed findings, with male teachers showing more positive attitudes than females (Ernst & Rogers, 2006; Rakap & Kaczmarek, 2010). According to Batsiou, Bebetsos and Antoniou (2008) male teachers from Cyprus had positive attitudes, unlike the female teachers. Moreover, Forlin et al., (2009), in a study of pre-service students found that male students reported positive attitudes after their experience. On the contrary, a study in seven colleges and universities by Hodge (1998) in the US found that male teachers, even experienced, did not have positive attitudes towards inclusion.

Other studies, however, did not find much difference between the genders (Carroll, Forlin & Jobling, 2003; Opdal et al., 2001; Memisevic & Hodzic, 2011; Chireshe, 2011), and one, a study by Alghazo et al.,(2003), found that neither female nor male teachers had positive attitudes towards inclusion. Studies seem to show, then, that there is no consistent relationship between gender and teacher attitude to working with disabled children.

Oskamp (1991) argues that the concept of attitude is probably the most distinctive and indispensable concept in social psychology. An attitude is a learned and stable predisposition to react to a given situation, person or other set of cues in a consistent way (Corsini, 1991). Parasuram (2006) posits that attitudes guide and influence people’s behaviors in their daily lives. Since it is believed that teachers and their attitudes toward inclusion are very important variables in the implementation of successful inclusive practices (Avramidis & Norwich, 2002; Larrivee & Cook, 1979; Parasuram, 2006), a lot of research has been conducted on teachers’ attitudes towards inclusive education and their beliefs about their ability to teach children with disabilities in regular education classrooms. Effective inclusion teachers hold positive attitudes regarding inclusion, including a willingness to teach children with disabilities and take responsibility for their learning (Titone, 2005).

Parents confirm that negative attitudes toward students with disabilities are hurtful, an obviously detrimental condition to establishing and maintaining a successful inclusion program (Pivik, McComas, & Laflamme, 2002). Trent & Dixon (2004), note that whether teachers enter their teacher preparation program with these attitudes already formed and intact, or whether they acquire them during their programs of study it is important that teachers hold attitudes and beliefs supportive of inclusive instructional models. Studies investigating the attitudes of inclusive teachers point to the necessity of a positive attitude toward inclusion and toward children with disabilities (Ross-Hill, 2009). O’Rourke and Houghton (2009) found that although general education teachers in their study recognized
challenges associated with inclusion, they accepted the practice as part of the school culture and reported maintaining positive attitudes toward inclusive education. Similarly, Ross-Hill (2009) on overall, did not find significant differences in teacher attitude toward inclusion: All teachers in general were positive about inclusion and confident in their ability to teach students with special needs in the general education classroom.

Results from Hwang and Evans’s (2011) study showed mixed results (positive attitudes = 41.37%, negative attitudes = 34.47%, neutral attitudes = 24.13%), never the less more teachers had positive attitudes than negative or neutral attitudes. Regardless of varying perspectives pertaining to inclusion, most teachers have reported believing that inclusion is beneficial for learners with disabilities because it provides a means for equal educational opportunities (Allison, 2011) and provide social benefits (Hwang & Evans, 2011; Parker, 2009). Parker (2009) found that 42% of general education teachers and 58% of special education teachers agreed that all students benefit from the practice of inclusion.

2.8.2 General Education Teacher and Attitude

Some teachers may have negative attitudes toward inclusion and inclusive instructional practices. The focus of teachers’ negativity toward inclusive education varies. Orr (2009) asked pre-service special education teachers to share their experiences with general education teachers in the field; the special education teachers described the general education teachers as negative. General education teachers appeared to exhibit more negative attitudes toward teaching learners who required modified instruction, such as students with vision and hearing impairments, but the most negative attitudes toward learners with severe disabilities, such as behavioral and emotional disorders. General education teachers were most positive about teaching learners with language deficits and physical disabilities (Orr, 2009). In addition, to the special education teachers, it appeared that the general education teachers expected that the special education teachers be liable for students with disabilities (Orr, 2009). Cassady (2011) found that general education teachers held negative attitudes toward students with emotional and behavioral disabilities but also toward students with autism. However, the teachers were more receptive to teaching learners with autism than to teaching learners with emotional or behavioral disabilities. Despite teachers’ confidence in their ability to implement IEPs, adapt lessons, and provide accommodations for students with autism, negative teacher attitudes toward learners with autism and emotional and behavioral disabilities had an impact.
on their overall willingness to have any learner with the disabilities in their regular education classrooms (Cassady, 2011).

In a study of general education teachers and students with and without mild disabilities, many general education teachers reported that specialized instruction is disruptive to the instructional routine of the general education classroom (O’Rourke & Houghton, 2009). Specifically, teachers cited fundamental changes to curriculum requirements, instructional and grading methods, and related expectations of student performance (O’Rourke & Houghton, 2009) as reasons for perceiving specialized instruction as disruptive. Other teachers indicated that, in cases of partial inclusion, inclusion keeps learners from feeling a sense of cohesion between their instructional settings and among their courses but also that it keeps students from developing relationships that could benefit them socially (O’Rourke & Houghton, 2009).

Horne and Timmons’s (2009) found that teachers had negative attitudes toward inclusion because they felt that continually having to make modifications and accommodations to meet IEP requirements made teaching students with disabilities time consuming. Consistently, general and special education teachers in Cipkin and Rizza’s (2010) study agreed that not all children benefit from inclusive practices. In some cases, negative teacher attitudes affect teacher behavior in the classroom. For instance, Hwang and Evans (2011) found that 55% of teachers were unwilling to participate in inclusive practices, a condition the researchers attributed to negative teacher attitudes.

Traditionally, according to Ross-Hill, (2009), regular education teachers have been apprehensive towards inclusive practices, either because of their inability to accommodate children with special needs in their classrooms, because they feel inadequate, or because they simply do not favor inclusive practices in general. The significance of attitude should not be underestimated. Favorable attitudes toward inclusion are necessary. Attitudes are important insofar as they predict behavior (Odongo, 2012). According to Berry (2010) a teacher who believes that inclusion is unfair to typically achieving students may act in some ways that negatively affect students with disabilities in that classroom. Berry continues to note that the presence or absence of positive attitudes and a sense of commitment to principles of inclusion can tip teachers toward making or avoiding efforts to effectively teach students with disabilities. Teachers who have favorable attitudes toward inclusion generally believe that students with disabilities belong in general education classrooms, that they can learn there,
and that the teachers have confidence in their abilities to teach students with disabilities (Berry, 2010). Howell and Johnson (2009) suggest that attitudes may be seen to have three related components: cognitive (i.e. the idea or assumptions upon which the attitude is based), affective (i.e. the feelings about the issue), and behavioral (i.e. the predisposition toward an action that corresponds with the assumption or belief). Attitudes toward disabilities reflect beliefs about people with disabilities and as such guide behavior towards individuals with disabilities (Roberts & Smith, 1999).

Research has shown that one of the most important predictors of successful inclusion of pupils with disabilities into general education classrooms is the attitude of teachers (Bacon & Schultz, 1991; Semmel, Abernathy, Butera, & Lesar, 1991). Studies by Barton (1992), Scruggs and Mastropieri (1996), and Avramidis et al. (2000), cite the attitudes of teachers towards pupils with special educational needs as a major factor in determining the success or failure of inclusive education. Silverman (2007) suggested that teachers’ attitudes and beliefs directly affect their behavior with students and so have a great influence on classroom climate and student outcomes.

Teacher attitudes have been found to be highly related to successful inclusive education (Avramidis & Norwich, 2002). Teachers who hold positive and open attitudes towards creating an environment of inclusion for all students in the classroom, irrespective of differences or disabilities, were found to have been more successful in implementing inclusive practices (Avramidis, Bayliss, & Burden, 2000). Maintaining a positive attitude towards inclusive education was even more important than either knowledge or skills Pearce (2009a, 2009b). This was supported in a review conducted by Boyle, Scriven, Durning and Downes (2011), who added that a positive attitude towards inclusive education was even more important than school resourcing, as it was the teacher who had to implement the inclusive practices. Pearce (2009a) also highlighted the importance of pre-service teacher training, noting that more positive attitudes were held by those teachers who had been prepared in their pre-service teacher training to teach all children, compared with those that had not been prepared and trained to teach a diverse classroom.

Having a more crystallized understanding of what is needed to make inclusion work; school administrators may find it necessary to review the supports and services offered to regular education teachers and implement necessary changes (i.e., providing resources in the area of staff development). Semmel et al. (1991) carried out a study entitled, "Teacher Perceptions of
the Regular Education Initiative”, where they after having surveyed 381 elementary educators in Illinois and California (both general and special), concluded that those educators were not dissatisfied with a special education system that operated pullout special educational programs. Dickens and Smith (1995) conducted a study on the attitudes of both regular and special educators towards inclusion. Here both groups of respondents reveal more favorable attitudes towards inclusion after their in-service training. They concluded that staff development is the key to the success of inclusion. Johnson (1996) in a study described and analyzed the perceptions held by regular education teachers toward the placement of students with learning disabilities in their classrooms. Key findings of this study were that class size should be reduced to support inclusion and that teachers are basically enthusiastic about participating in inclusion. Teachers were also concerned about their level of training regarding modification and received effective teaching strategies for student with disabilities.

2.8.3 Teachers Professional Qualification and Attitude

A study by Lambe and Bones (2006) found that attitudes of pre-service teachers towards the philosophy of inclusive education were generally positive, with more than 80% of participants believing that all teachers should experience teaching children with special education needs. However there was a marked concern about training and preparation. Specifically, almost half of the participants felt that they did not have adequate experience to work effectively with students with special education needs, and more than half felt that they did not have the skills to teach in an inclusive setting. The attitudes of pre-service teachers towards inclusive education have been shown to be a significant predictor for future implementation of inclusive education (Sze, 2009) and an effective method for improving attitudes towards inclusive education (Forlin, 2010a, Loreman, Forlin and Sharma (2007). However, research comparing methods of training between several Australian and international universities was unable to determine whether a specific training module was more effective at improving attitudes and knowledge about inclusive education than an infusion approach, which incorporated elements of inclusive education into several modules (Sharma, Forlin, & Loreman, 2008). Not all researchers agree that attitudes towards inclusive education are improved through training. Hastings and Oakford (2003) found that training was not a significant factor for attitudes towards inclusive education, and that attitudes were determined by types of disabilities, with less inclusive attitudes held towards children with behavioural and emotional difficulties than those with learning disabilities. A limitation to categorizing
disabilities in this manner was that many pre-service teachers may not have had any personal experiences or specific training with children in either or both categories, and attitudes may be indicative of stereotypes in the absence of personal experience or specific training. A recent study by Forlin and Chambers (2011) found that while attitudes towards inclusive education were improved through training and knowledge, pre-service teachers’ concerns and perceived stress about the implementation of inclusive education were not improved.

Forlin, Keen, and Barrett (2008) examined teacher concerns on inclusion of students with intellectual disabilities in regular settings. Teachers who had a student with intellectual disability in their class were asked to complete a questionnaire that assessed their concerns on aspects such as behavior of the student, student social competency, parental interaction, and teacher professional competency. Of the 228 respondents, 93% stated that they felt they had received insufficient training to cater to the needs of a student with an intellectual disability in an inclusive setting. The authors concluded that the lack of pre-service teacher training for inclusive settings, as cited by the teachers, is an important consideration for training providers. There was also a study that has conducted research on the impact of training on the attitudes of pre-service teachers and their sentiments on students with disabilities (Sharma, Forlin, & Loreman, 2008)

Ali, Mustapha and Jelas (2006) examined the attitude and perceived knowledge of mainstream and special education teachers of primary and secondary schools towards inclusive education in Malaysia. The main finding shows that, in general, teachers have positive attitudes towards inclusive education. They agreed that inclusive education enhances social interaction and inclusion among the students and thus, it minimizes negative stereotypes on special needs students. The findings also show that collaboration between the mainstream and the special education teachers is important and that there should be a clear guideline on the implementation of inclusive education. The findings of the study have significant implications to the school administrators, teachers, and other stakeholders who directly and indirectly involved in implementing inclusive education. Thus, this study was based on the premise that the attitude of teachers towards inclusive education was of significant importance for the success of inclusive education in Bahati sub-county. It was important to assess how teacher’s attitude in Bahati sub-county was influencing inclusive education.
Attitudes are influenced by information and knowledge about the disability, and the skills teachers possess in working with disabled children in mainstream schools (de Boer et al., 2011). Professionally qualified teacher tends to have a more favorable attitude towards the inclusion of special need students than their non-professional qualified teachers. Florian, Young and Rouse (2010) also state that rather than defend the need to accommodate learner differences, they argued that a more just and equitable approach to meeting the needs of all learners can be supported by preparing newly qualified teachers to focus on improving the quality of what is generally available.

2.8.4 Teaching Experience and Attitude

Research findings have however been conflicting. Some studies have suggested that teachers with more experience show less positive attitudes toward inclusion (Forlin et al., 1996), while other studies found that as teachers’ experience with pupils with special educational needs or SEN increased so did their confidence (LeRoy & Simpson, 1996). Years of teaching experience is found to be a significant contributing factor towards teachers’ attitudes regarding inclusion (Parasuram, 2006). Teachers with less experience tend to have a positive view on inclusion while on the other hand those with much experience have negative views towards it. Studies have shown that regular teachers who have had previous experience in teaching disabled children, including the special education teachers, hold positive attitudes (de Boer et al., 2011). However, other studies contradict these findings; for example, Cook, Semmel and Gerber (1999) found that the special education teachers in their study had negative attitudes towards inclusion. Other studies have found no significant difference in teacher attitudes in relation to the teachers’ work experience in mainstream schools (Memisevic & Hodzic, 2011).

Beare (1985) cautions that attitudes once set are in fact very difficult to change and that it might therefore be more effective to focus closely on the preparation of pre-service teachers. The suggestion is that if student teachers complete their pre-service education without having developed positive attitudes towards inclusion this will adversely affect the successful accommodation of learners with special educational needs into mainstream settings (Tait & Purdie, 2000). Blair (1983) concluded that improved provision at pre-service together with a more aggressive approach towards training for inclusion-based practices would be the best point to begin in teacher education. Lambe and Bones (2006) found that positive attitudes did
exist in student teachers at the start of their pre-service training, concluding that this stage of teacher education was the most affective time to nurture these attitudes by the provision of high quality training. If attitudes can be formed by the quality of pre-service provision, then it seems reasonable to conclude that the school-based placement experience may be a key time when attitudes towards inclusion may be influenced. Further training of teachers in inclusive practices will be beneficial for them

2.9 Teachers’ commitment

Kanter (1968) defined commitment as the process through which individual interests become attached to the carrying out of socially organized patterns of behaviour. Cohen et.al. (2007) identified three aspects of commitment: cathectic, control and continuance commitment. Cathectic commitment was defined as attachment to social relationships, without any moral imperatives attached to it. Control commitment was attributed as the commitment to norms, values and inner convictions which morally obligate the individual. Continuance commitment was explained as commitment to social roles/positions, with no affectivity or evaluation attached to the role. The role merely has positive valence, acting in terms of rewards and punishments; profits and costs.

Commitment is a term that teachers frequently use in describing themselves (Nias, 1981). It is a word they use to distinguish those who are caring, dedicated and take their job seriously from those who put their interest first. Some teachers see their commitment as part of their professional identity (Elliot & Crosswell, 2001). Lack of commitment by employees is behind much of the behaviour blamed for high costs and poor services (Sherwin, 1972). According to Steers & Porter (1979), organizational commitment reflects the extent to which employees identify themselves with organizational goals, value organizational membership, and intent to work hard to attain the overall organizational mission (Steers & Porter, 1979). Mbwiria (2010) argues that more dependable and psychologically participative behaviour on the part of teachers on one hand, and educational outcomes and the students’ intellectual and personality development on the other depend largely on the commitment of the teachers. Mbwiria continues to note that committed teachers serve as a model of values, attitudes and behaviour to pupils and others. Pupils learn more rapidly from the invisible curriculum – the lives of teachers, principals and institutions - than from the visible curriculum. The teacher is an example of perseverance, loyalty, integrity and other qualities which an all round education
should encourage in each pupil. It is commitment which fosters a combination of teaching, example and influence in the teacher Mbwiria (2010).

Organizational commitment reflects the extent to which employees identify themselves with organizational goals, value organizational membership, and intent to work hard to attain the overall organizational mission (Steers & Porter, 1979). Organizational commitment is the adoption of organizational objectives, values, and goals by the followers, volunteer efforts, and desire for the continuous presence in the organization. Existing literature on education indicates a motion towards educational excellence (Isahak, 2007). Sahney et al., (2008) uphold the notion that commitment from the academic staff in the education sector to the overall organizational goal such as in the delivery of high service quality is a better strategy in the case of customer retention and satisfaction. They further argued that the employees’ strong commitment to good service quality has a strong link to the organizational benefits such as low cost effectiveness and also in producing excellent graduates. One of the classifications related to organizational commitment was realized by Allen and Meyer (1990), and it was determined that it had three elements as affective, continuance, and normative.

Affective commitment is described as the identification of employees with their organization with sympathy (Allen et al. 1990). In this context, affective commitment reflects the identification and commitment situation where the employees stay in the organization with their own will (Cheng, Jiang & Riley 2003). Affective commitment has been defined as the emotional attachment, identification, and involvement that an employee has with his or her organization. (Mowday, Steers & Porter, 1979). It is the positive emotional attachment employee feels for the organization because they see their goals and values to be congruent with that of the organization. Porter, Steers & Mowday (1974) further characterize affective commitment by three factors (1) “belief in and acceptance of the organization’s goals and values, (2) a willingness to focus effort on helping the organization achieve its goals, and (3) a desire to maintain organizational membership”. Mowday et al (1979) further state that affective commitment is “when the employee identifies with a particular organization and its goals in order to maintain membership to facilitate the goal”. Meyer and Allen (1997) continue to say that employees retain membership out of choice. An employee who is affectively committed strongly identifies with the goals of the organization and desires to remain a part of the organization. This employee commits to the organization because he/she "wants to". The concept of affective commitment is linked to the idea that strongly committed
persons identify with, are involved in, and enjoy membership in an organization. The most widely accepted measure of affective commitment assesses a one-dimensional construct of the phenomenon (Mowday et al., 1982; Porter et al., 1974). This is applicable in Bahati Sub-county and the country as a whole as poorly committed teacher would harm the success of inclusive education. This study will be limited to the affective component of commitment as a one dimensional construct.

In attempting to fulfill the vision of inclusion, school personnel must realize that “regular and special educator will need to share responsibility of educating all of their students”. The first step in implementing this type of program involves assessing the needs of the school and those involved, mainly the teachers. Once the specific needs are determined, the next step is to make the needs a reality. Both the general and special education teachers must function as a team. The team or partnership should be such that special education and general education cooperatively assess the educational needs of the students with learning problems and cooperatively develop educational strategies for meeting the needs (Mayhew, 1994). One way to achieve the cohesive joining of the two disciplines is through training. This training must be systematic, promoting collegial interaction and fostering teacher support system (Bernal & Torres; 1990).

It has been empirically demonstrated that teacher acceptance (Whinnery et al., 1991) and positive attitudes (Biklen, Brogan, Ferguson, & Searl, 1985; Garvar-Pinhas & Schmelkin, 1989) are necessary if integration into the general education classroom and the implementation of educational intervention is to be effective and successful. The empirical evidence reported to date fails to support several major assertions of spokespersons for full inclusion and, in fact, some evidence contraindicates the recommendation of regular class placement for all children with disabilities. Halvorsen and Sailor (1990) exemplified that even faithful proponents of inclusion have come to realize the inappropriate nature of the general education curriculum for certain students with disabilities. Moreover, it has been established repeatedly that for some types of students, special education instruction is superior to mainstream instruction (Carlberg & Kavale, 1980; Leinhardt & Pallay, 1982; Madden & Slavin, 1983; Sindelar & Deno, 1979).

Nevertheless, there is a growing body of research that demonstrates positive effects for children with disabilities in classes alongside children without disabilities in areas such as reaching individualized education program goals (Hunt, Goetz, & Anderson, 1986),
improving social skills and communication (Jenkins, J. R., Odom, & Spletz, 1989), improved reading achievement (Jenkins et al., 1994) positive academic and social outcomes (Baker, E. T., Wang, & Walberg, 1995; Lipsky & Gartner, 1995) increasing positive peer interactions (Lord & Hopkins, 1986), enhanced friendships (Helmstetter, Peck, & Giangreco, 1994) heightened social competence (Cole & Meyer, 1991) and postschool adjustment (Piuma, 1989).
3  CHAPTER 3: RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

This chapter discussed the research design and methodology that was used in the study. Research has a very important place in education (Bell; 2005; Cohen, Lawrence & Keith, 2007) and educational research is based on some ways of thinking and certain methods of establishing beliefs and knowledge (Drew, Hardman & Hosp, 2008).

3.1  Research Design and Methodology

The was carried out following a quantitative approach based on a survey design with the use of self administered questionnaire as the sole research instrument. A survey involves the administering of questionnaires to gather information on variables of interest (McMillan & Schumacher, 1993). This allows the researcher to be able to reach as many respondents as possible and to generalize the research findings to a representative population (Gall et al, 2003). The survey respondents comprised of 82 teachers from 4 primary schools in Bahati sub-county. These four schools were selected for participation not only for the accessibility, availability, and familiarity of the researcher, but also because they are known to have inclusion practices in effect for more than 2 years. All the teachers in these schools are trained. Further, the schools were found to be a good representation of inclusive education schools population where the sample was taken. The survey design was found to be appropriate to help answer the research questions and accomplish the purpose of this. It has been acknowledged that the survey method of data collection can stand alone as a design (LeCompte & Preisse, 1993). In a survey design, information is collected from respondents about their experiences and opinions about a particular topic under study in order to generalize the findings to the population represented by the sample (Gall, Borg & Gall, 1996). This design was the most appropriate for obtaining factual and attitudinal information for research questions with regards to self-reported beliefs, opinions, and present or past behaviors (David & Sutton, 2004).

Quantitative research is often considered more objective since results from quantitative studies also may be generalized to other populations (Creswell, 2003). This is because quantitative designs attempt to maximize objectivity, replicability, and generalizibility of
findings, and are typically interested in prediction. Researchers use a quantitative design when they want to employ strategies of inquiry such as experiments and surveys, and collect data on predetermined instruments that yield statistical data. In addition, quantitative research is appropriate when researchers want to use specific measurements to examine particular variables and cause and effect relationships (Creswell, 2003). Because I sought to measure differences between teachers’ attitudes using a predetermined instrument that will yield statistical data and because I planned to examine particular variables and predictive relationships between those variables, a quantitative research design was appropriate for this study.

Structured and systematic data collection and analysis that are distinct characteristics of quantitative survey design (DeVaus 2002) helped me in the quest of drawing inferences of teachers’ attitudes towards inclusion of students with disabilities. As such, quantitative survey research design was the most appropriate for this study. The choice of this research design is seen to be a good approach in answering the research questions which were studied. Also the choice of using this research design enabled me to analyze the relationships among a large number of variables in a single study.

### 3.2 Population

This was a census survey as the target population was all the 82 teachers from the 4 public schools that offer inclusive education in Bahati Sub-County (Bahati Sub-County Education Office, 2013). A census is a complete enumeration of all persons in the population. The advantage of using a census survey is that it eliminates errors associated with sampling. These errors can lead to biased survey results. Gall, Gall and Borg (2007) pointed out that the larger the sample, the more likely the research participants’ scores on the measured variables will be representative of population scores. There isn’t any larger sample than the whole population and as such a census is the best to explain the situation of the whole population. This consequently enabled me make a generalization of the study findings on the whole population under study.

The study established the demographic characteristics of the respondents. The description is considered important in providing a better understanding of the respondents involved in this study. The demographic characteristics included gender, professional status and teaching
experience. First and foremost, the study sought to establish the gender distribution of the respondents. Gender differences have also been reported in terms of teachers' tolerance and stress levels when working with children with special needs. The findings of the analysis were as in the table below.  

**Table 3.1: Distribution of Teachers by Gender**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Gender</th>
<th>N (N)</th>
<th>Percent (%)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>male</td>
<td>35</td>
<td>49.3%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>female</td>
<td>36</td>
<td>50.7%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>71</td>
<td>100.0%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

From the table, it was observed that there was no significant difference in the number of male and female respondents in the study.

The study also sought to establish the professional qualification of the respondents to find out whether they had any influence on attitude and commitment of teachers towards inclusive education. The findings were as in the table 3.2

**Table 3.2: Professional Status of the Respondents**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Qualification</th>
<th>(N)</th>
<th>Percent (%)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Primary 1 teacher</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>25.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>diploma</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>34.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Approved Teacher Status</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>24.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bachelors</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>12.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>masters</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>2.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>70</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The table indicates that cumulatively, 84.3% of the respondents had acquired Primary 1 teacher certificate, diploma and Approved teacher status certificate. Thus most of the respondents had no university education at all but had been trained as teachers. This implies that all the teachers had some and/or adequate professional qualifications as teachers to undertake their teaching responsibilities and hence the educational needs of pupils at that level.

Finally, the study sought to establish the teachers’ experiences and the number of years they had served in their current schools. This helped in comparing how differences in teachers
experience relate with their attitude and commitment towards inclusive education. The findings were as in the table 3.3

### Table 3.3: Teaching Experience of the Respondents

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>(N)</th>
<th>Percent (%)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1-10</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>17.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11-20</td>
<td>23</td>
<td>33.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>21-30</td>
<td>29</td>
<td>42.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>above 30</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>68</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The table indicated that a majority of the teachers had served for a period of about 11 to 30 years amounting to cumulatively 76.4% of the respondents. 17.6% had served between 1-10 years while 5.9% had served for more than 30 years.

### 3.3 Response rate

Permission was sought from the head teachers of the 4 schools involved in the study. I then visited the selected schools before actual data collection for familiarization and acquaintance with the head teachers. During this visit, I explained to the head teachers about the purpose of the intended study and booked appointments for data collection. After presentation of study aims and purposes, data was collected from the teachers using the instruments. I personally administered the questionnaire to the selected respondents and collected it on the same day. 82 questionnaires were distributed to the respondents and a total of 74 questionnaires were filled and returned. This represented 90.24% response rate. A response rate below 51% is considered inadequate in social sciences (Pinsonneault & Kraemer, 1993). Babbie (1990) suggested that a response rate of 60% is good; 70% is very good.

### 3.4 Instruments for the study

The study instrument was a questionnaire with two main sections. One section measured the attitudes of teachers towards inclusive education while the other section measured the affective commitment of teachers in inclusive education. To measure the teachers’ attitudes towards inclusive education, this study used a scale designed by Pearman, Huang & Mellblom.
(1997), called the School and the Education of All Students (SEAS). The SEAS was developed in Colorado (USA) for use in a study that investigated the attitudes of teachers in relation to inclusive education in a mid-size Colorado school district. The scale was found to be applicable in the Kenyan context and in particular this study as it was found to be good in assessing the teachers’ attitude on inclusive education.

The attitude questionnaire had 13 items. The items were on a likert scale using a scale of 1 to 5 (1-strongly disagree, 2-disagree, 3-undecided, 4-agree and 5-strongly agree). The questionnaire was pilot tested to test for reliability of the instrument. The calculated Cronbach alpha coefficient was .71. The value was consistent with the recommended value of above .70 (Field, 2006). Four items on teachers’ attitude were reverse coded during the analysis process to avoid a specific answer pattern and enhance their reliability and consequently improve the overall reliability of the data.

Affective commitment was assessed on a likert scale adapted from Mowday et al (1979). The scale was initially developed to measure the various dimensions of commitment that is affective, normative and continuance commitments. The three-component model of commitment developed by Meyer and Allen (1997) arguably dominates organizational commitment research (Meyer et al., 2002). This model proposes that organizational commitment is experienced by the employee as three simultaneous mindsets encompassing affective organizational commitment. Affective Commitment reflects commitment based on emotional ties the employee develops with the organization primarily via positive work experiences.

This model of commitment has been used by researchers to predict important employee outcomes, including turnover and citizenship behaviors, job performance, absenteeism, and tardiness (Meyer et al., 2002). This study adopted the scale for the affective commitment to establish the affective commitment of teachers towards inclusive education. The questionnaire also used a scale of 1 to 5 similar to the attitude scale. Ten items made up the commitment scale and had a Cronbach alpha of .75 and was also consistent with the recommended value of above .70 (Field, 2006). This scale was found to be adaptable in Kenya and specifically in this study since it portrayed high reliability (α=.75) in measuring the affective commitment of teachers towards inclusive education.
3.5 Piloting of the instrument

A pilot study is a mini-version of a full-scale study or a trial run done in preparation of the complete study. The latter is also called a ‘feasibility’ study. It can also be a specific pre-testing of research instruments, including questionnaires or interview schedules. (Van Teijlingen & Hundley, 2001) The pilot study was done after a clear vision of the research topic and questions was established, the techniques and methods to be applied, and how the research schedule looked like. This was done to try out all research techniques and methods, which were used in this research to see how well they would work in practice. If necessary the instrument could then be adapted and modified according to (Blaxter, Hughes & Tight, 1996). The pilot study in the current research can be defined as mainly a try-out of research techniques and methods, but also of questionnaires.

The instruments were tested in a pilot scale on a population that was as similar as possible to the target population. One primary school from the neighboring Laikipia County was used for the pilot study. The piloting included 5 teachers from the school selected. The objective of piloting was to establish whether there would be problems in administering the instruments, test data collection instructions, establish the feasibility of the study, anticipate and amend any logical and procedural difficulties regarding the study, and allows preliminary (dummy) data analysis.

3.6 Data Analysis and Presentation

Collected data was processed, punched and analyzed using Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS). This was done using both descriptive and inferential statistics. Descriptive statistics in form of frequencies and percentages were presented in respect to bio-data while mean and standard deviation were analyzed in respect to the study variables. In the analysis, I computed the composite means of responses with respect to teachers’ attitude and affective commitment. I further constructed two subscales. One subscale categorized data into negative mixed and positive perception. In this subscale, a mean of 1-2.5 was categorized as negative, 2.5-3.5 mixed while 3.5-5 was categorized as positive. This enabled the establishment of frequencies of respondents’ perceptions as negative, mixed or positive. The second subscale categorized the means as Low, Mixed or High. In this subscale, 1-2.5 was Low, 2.5-3.5 mixed and 3.5-5 was high. As such, I was able to categorize the frequencies of the responses as either having high means, mixed or low means.
Item total correlation was established to determine the contribution of each aspect responses towards the whole scale. This was to help determine the most important aspect in measuring either the attitude of teachers or their affective commitment towards inclusive education. Inferential statistics were analyzed using first the cross tables and symmetric measures to analyze influence of the background information on respondents attitude towards inclusive education. Further I established Pearson product moment correlation coefficient of the dependent and the independent variables. Inferential statistics enabled the establishment of the relationship between teachers’ attitude and their commitment towards inclusive education. Both the descriptive and inferential statistics were presented in form of tables.

### 3.7 Reliability of Research Instrument

Quality of research is important in any piece of scientific study. In this study, validity and reliability as a means of quality assurance had been taken into consideration. Cohen, Lawrence and Keith (2007) pointed out that piloting of instrument has a paramount importance in maintaining validity, reliability and practicability of instruments and therefore the validity and reliability of the results. The study used a three step measure of reliability; (1) Revision of questionnaires and pre-testing during data collection. (2) Drawing from literature those items that have been tested for reliability by other researchers, and adopting them. (3) Cronbach alpha coefficient was used to assess reliability of scale items. Results from this analysis are as presented in the table below.

**Table 3.4: Reliability Analysis**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variables</th>
<th>No of items</th>
<th>Cronbach alpha (α)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Teachers attitude</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>.713</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Affective commitment</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>.753</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The Cronbach alpha coefficient for all the items were above .7 which is considered reliable and sufficient (Hair et al, 2006). Further, item total correlation was established to filter out information that did not significantly contribute to the variables under study.
3.8 Validity of the Research Instrument

Validity has to do with an instrument’s appropriateness for accomplishing research’s purposes (Henerson et al 1987). De Vaus (2002) argued that it was not the measure that was valid or invalid but the use to which the measure was put. The validity of a measure then depended on how we defined the concept it is designed to measure. The process of constructing a questionnaire starts with clarifying concept for theory, developing indicators and evaluating indicators (Devaus, 2002). A questionnaire is valid if it measures what it is supposed to measure and it is reliable if the responses are consistent and stable” (Frazer et al 2000). The concepts of this proposal were defined as used in the previous chapters. Concept validity of the research instruments was established in order to make sure that they reflected the content of the concepts (Attitude and Commitment) in question. First, I conducted intensive literature review on the variables under investigation to establish the different indicators of the variables. Then, I went ahead to adopt a questionnaire developed form past studies whose validity had been proven.

I also had to go through the instruments and compare them with the set objectives and ensure that they contained all the information that addresses the objectives. Expert opinion was sought to scrutinize the relevance of the questionnaire items against the set objectives of the study. The recommendations were incorporated in the final questionnaire. Construct validity was ensured by adopting a questionnaire used on prior studies. Construct validity is the experimental demonstration that a test is measuring the construct it claims to be measuring. Item total correlation analysis further established the construct validity of the instrument.

3.9 Ethical Considerations

Every researcher needs to consider carefully – before, during, and after the conduct of a research study the ethical concerns that can affect their research participants. By understanding and addressing such ethical concerns, some of which are embedded in governmental regulations, Educational researchers show respect for research participants, protect them from avoidable harm, and honor their contributions to research knowledge (Gall, Gall & Borg, 2007). Robson (1993) holds the view that a research should ensure that relevant persons and authorities are consulted and informed. With this view in mind, permission was sought from the head teachers of the four schools where data was collected.
Participants of this study were informed of their rights to withdraw or not participate. The anonymity of the participants of the study was protected by not asking questions that can identify respondents. The results of this study were kept strictly confidential. The participants were assured that the data collected was to be purposely used for this study and not any other purpose. I also sought for authorization to collect the data from the education ministry in Kenya.

3.9.1 Limitation of the Study

The study employed the use of a questionnaire with scales to measure the attitude of teachers and their commitment towards inclusive education in schools. The scale assisted the researcher to gather relevant data that was useful to establish the relationship between teachers and their commitment towards inclusive education in schools. However, items for the two scales used had some redundancies that made them contribute less to the scale. Three of the attitude scale items namely leadership of the head teacher is necessary for inclusion, inclusion depends solely on the staff/teacher involved, school staff members are adequately prepared for inclusion and one of commitment scale; I think I could easily become attached to another school as I am to this one were found to have very low corrected total correlation coefficient of less than .25. Finally, the questionnaire provided data that portrayed higher level of reliability (.82) thus the data can enable the generalization of the result in the Kenyan situation. The item total correlation findings were as in table 3.5 and table 3.6

Table 3.5: ITC On mean of the attitude scale

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Item</th>
<th>Item-Total Correlation (ITC)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>inclusion is the best way to meet the needs of all the students</td>
<td>.494</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>diversity in the classroom enriches learning</td>
<td>.349</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>leadership of the head teacher is necessary for inclusion</td>
<td>.166</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>inclusion would work well in your school</td>
<td>.599</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>head teachers enable regular and special education staff to communicate with each other</td>
<td>.337</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>inclusion depends solely on staff/teacher involed</td>
<td>.062</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
i currently need training in inclusive practise  .138
school staff members are adequately prepared for inclusion  .003
my colleagues support full inclusion of the students with special needs  .360
inclusion of students with special needs is detrimental to the education of other students  .417
inclusion creates too much additional work for teachers  .532
inclusion causes more problems than it solves  .573
inclusion of students with special needs into regular classrooms creates tension in their schools  .281

The table indicated that four items indicated ITC values less than .25. Thus this items did not significantly contribute to attitude variable.
Table 3.6: ITC on mean of the commitment scale

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Item</th>
<th>Item-Total Correlation</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>working at this school has a great deal of personal meaning for me</td>
<td>.567</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>i feel a strong sense of belonging to this school</td>
<td>.727</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>i enjoy discussing my school with people outside it</td>
<td>.334</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>i am proud to tell others that i work at this school</td>
<td>.669</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>i owe a great deal to this school</td>
<td>.686</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>i really feel as if this school's problems are my own</td>
<td>.488</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>i think i could easily become attached to another school as i am to this one</td>
<td>-.355</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>this school does not deserve my loyalty</td>
<td>.551</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>i do not feel like a member of the family at this school</td>
<td>.419</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>i do not feel emotionally attached to this school</td>
<td>.402</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

From the commitment scale, one item recorded an ITC value of -.355 indicating a negative contribution on overall score of attitude scale.

Item total correlation responds to the question” How do responses to an item relate to the total test score?” If an item is uncorrelated with the rest of the items, it does not contribute to the internal-consistency of the total score. This means, if an individual item is in good conformity with the rest of the items in the area, its corrected item total correlation should be a high positive number (Twisk, 2006) The value ranges from +1to -1. In this study a few of the items exhibited values less than .25 indicating that they basically were not significantly contributing to the overall score.
CHAPTER 4: RESULTS AND DISCUSSION OF STUDY FINDINGS

4.1 Introduction

This chapter presents the results and discussion of the research findings on the assessment of attitudes and commitment of Kenyan teachers towards inclusive education in the mainstream classrooms in Bahati sub-county. The results and discussion addresses the research questions of the study which included:

i. What are the attitudes of teachers towards inclusive education in Bahati Sub-County?

ii. What is the level of teachers’ commitment towards inclusive educational setting in Bahati Sub-County?

iii. Is there a relationship between teacher attitude and the commitment of teachers towards inclusive educational setting in Bahati Sub-County?

Data was collected in reference to research questions and analyzed using a computer statistical program known as statistical package for social sciences (SPSS) version 21.0 for windows.

4.2 Teacher Attitudes towards Inclusive Education

The first part of the research question of this study sought to establish the attitudes of teachers towards inclusive education in primary schools. Parasuram (2006) posits that attitudes guide and influence people’s behaviors in their daily lives. In this study, attitude was regarded as the feeling or state of mind of teachers regarding the situation in their school. Attitude was therefore assessed from a series of 13 statements seeking respondents’ disagreement or agreement with various attributes of their job as teachers in schools. The mean score of each attribute was computed so as to assess the variations in the respondents feeling. The scale was classified as Low, Mixed or High depending on the scoring. As such scores below 2.5 were classified as low, between 2.5 and 3.5 were classified as mixed while above 3.5 were classified as high scores. Table 4.1 depicts the distribution of their responses.
Table 4.1: Mean and Standard Deviations of Teachers Attitude on Inclusion

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>Std. Dev</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>inclusion is the best way to meet the needs of all the students</td>
<td>74</td>
<td>3.57</td>
<td>1.195</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>inclusion causes more problems than it solves</td>
<td>74</td>
<td>3.42</td>
<td>1.314</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>diversity in the classroom enriches learning</td>
<td>73</td>
<td>3.96</td>
<td>0.934</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>leadership of the head teacher is necessary for inclusion</td>
<td>71</td>
<td>4.17</td>
<td>1.014</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>head teachers enable regular and special education staff to</td>
<td>72</td>
<td>3.96</td>
<td>0.985</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>communicate with each other</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>inclusion would work well in your school</td>
<td>70</td>
<td>3.70</td>
<td>1.172</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>inclusion of students with special needs is detrimental to the</td>
<td>70</td>
<td>3.20</td>
<td>1.400</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>education of other students</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>inclusion creates too much additional work for teachers</td>
<td>74</td>
<td>2.46</td>
<td>1.230</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>inclusion depends solely on staff/teacher involved</td>
<td>73</td>
<td>3.73</td>
<td>1.044</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>inclusion of students with special needs into regular</td>
<td>72</td>
<td>3.25</td>
<td>1.330</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>classrooms creates tension in their schools</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>i currently need training in inclusive practice</td>
<td>73</td>
<td>3.95</td>
<td>1.141</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>school staff members are adequately prepared for inclusion</td>
<td>74</td>
<td>2.39</td>
<td>1.096</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>my colleagues support full inclusion of the students with</td>
<td>74</td>
<td>2.77</td>
<td>1.211</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>special needs</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Valid N (listwise)</td>
<td>60</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

From the table it is clear that the respondents recorded high values on seven aspects. The respondents agreed that inclusion is the best way to meet the needs of all the students and that inclusion would work well in their school. The respondents were indifferent on other four aspects; inclusion causes more problems than it solves, inclusion of students with special needs is detrimental to the education of other students, inclusion of students with special needs into regular classrooms creates tension in the school and that colleague’s support full inclusion of the students with special needs. These aspects recorded a mixed scores indicating they were indifferent about these aspects.
However, the respondents disagreed that inclusion creates too much additional work for teachers and that the school members are adequately prepared for inclusion. The two aspects recorded low means in their responses indicated the disagreement with the aspects. All the responses had standard deviations greater than one indicating how diverse the respondents were in their responses. This depicted lack of agreement among the respondents on the issues pertaining to teachers’ attitude towards inclusion.

The study further established the distribution of the respondents in terms of whether they were negative, indifferent (mixed feelings) or positive in their view about the subject matter. This was done by computing the composite scores of their means and then classifying them as either positive, Mixed or negative. Means below 2.5 were classified as negative, between 2.5 and 3.5 were classified as mixed while above 3.5 were classified as positive. The findings from the analysis were as in table 4.2.

**Table 4.2: Teachers Perception on Attitude**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Attitudes grouped</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Percent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>mixed</td>
<td>51</td>
<td>85.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>positive</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>15.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>60</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The table indicated that majority of the respondents had mixed feelings as regards the teachers attitude towards inclusive education. As such the findings indicated very low level of agreement with the aspects of teachers’ attitude on inclusion.

I further sought to establish the relationship between background information and teachers attitude on inclusive education. As such, I computed the chi square ($X^2$) statistics for all background variables and teachers’ attitude. The results from the analysis were as explained below.

**Table 4.3: Gender Perception Cross tab**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Expected Count</th>
<th>Attitudes grouped</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>mixed</td>
<td>positive</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>gender</td>
<td>Male</td>
<td>24</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>% within gender</td>
<td>88.9%</td>
<td>11.1%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
The table indicated that there was not much difference in the attitude of teachers on inclusive education between the two genders. Both portrayed positive attitudes towards inclusive education. The Pearson Chi-square statistics is statistically significant at 0.05 levels. Since the p value 0.58>0.05, we conclude that the attitude of teachers towards inclusive education is not different among the male and female teachers. The symmetric measures indicated a very weak positive relationship between gender and attitude towards inclusive education. The p-value 0.58>0.05 indicated that the gender of the respondents is not significant in explaining the attitude of teachers towards inclusive education. This showed that teachers attitude towards inclusive education does not vary depending on gender.

I further resorted to establish the influence of teachers’ professional status on their attitude towards inclusive education. Thus I computed their perception; negative, mixed or positive towards their attitude on inclusive education. The findings from the analysis are as in the table below.

**Table 4.4: Attitude Perception Based on Professional Status**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>professional status</th>
<th>p1</th>
<th>Expected Count</th>
<th>mixed</th>
<th>positive</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>female</td>
<td>27</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>31.0</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>% within gender</td>
<td>87.1%</td>
<td>12.9%</td>
<td></td>
<td>100%</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>51</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>58.0</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>% within gender</td>
<td>87.9%</td>
<td>12.1%</td>
<td></td>
<td>100%</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Chi Square ($X^2$) = .306, Phi = .073 p = .580
The findings indicated that 86% of all the respondents had mixed feelings as regards their attitude towards inclusive education. Therefore the respondents were indifferent on their attitude towards inclusive education and as such it was not clear whether they had positive or negative attitude. To establish the influence of the professional status on teachers’ attitude on inclusive education, I computed the Chi-Square statistic test. The Chi-square value of .89 with a p-value of .926 > 0.05 was established. Thus, I concluded that professional status does not determine the attitude of teachers towards inclusive education. Symmetric measures indicated a weak positive relationship between professional status and teachers’ attitude. However the p-value of .926 was greater than the level of significance of 0.05 indicating that the relationship was not significant. Therefore I observed that professional status has no significant relationship with teachers’ attitude towards inclusive education.

Finally I established the influence of teaching experience on the attitude of teachers towards inclusive education. The findings from the analysis were as described hereafter starting with teachers’ attitude.

**Table 4.5: Perception of Attitude Based on Teaching Experience**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>teaching experience</th>
<th>mixed</th>
<th>positive</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1-10</td>
<td>10.3</td>
<td>1.7</td>
<td>12.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11-20</td>
<td>15.4</td>
<td>2.6</td>
<td>18.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>21-30</td>
<td>18.9</td>
<td>3.1</td>
<td>22.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>above 30</td>
<td>3.4</td>
<td>.6</td>
<td>4.0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Chi Square ($X^2$) = .89, Phi = .125, p = .926
Chi Square ($X^2$) = 1.947, Phi = .186, p = .583
The table showed that 85.7% of the respondents had mixed feelings as regards their attitude towards inclusive education. A majority of the respondents thus could not express either positive or negative perception of their attitude towards inclusive education. The Chi Square statistics indicated that teaching experience does not influence teachers’ attitude on inclusive education. P-value of .583>0.05 indicated that the influence of teaching experience on teachers attitude on inclusive education was not statistically significant. The Phi value indicated a weak positive relationship between teaching experience and teachers’ attitude on inclusive education. The relationship was found to be insignificant at 0.05 level of significance.

### 4.3 Perception of teachers on affective commitment

To establish teachers perception on their commitment towards inclusive education, the mean score of the responses were computed and classified as High, Mixed or Low similar to the attitude scale. Table 4.6 depict the results of their responses.

**Table 4.6: Teacher’s perception on affective commitment**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Description</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>Std. Dev</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>working at this school has a great deal of personal meaning for me</td>
<td>69</td>
<td>3.68</td>
<td>1.182</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>i feel a strong sense of belonging to this school</td>
<td>68</td>
<td>3.79</td>
<td>.971</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>i enjoy discussing my school with people outside it</td>
<td>70</td>
<td>3.00</td>
<td>1.263</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>this school does not deserve my loyalty</td>
<td>70</td>
<td>3.97</td>
<td>1.204</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>i am proud to tell others that I work at this school</td>
<td>70</td>
<td>4.03</td>
<td>.992</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>i owe a great deal to this school</td>
<td>70</td>
<td>3.84</td>
<td>1.030</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
The table indicated that the respondents agreed with eight of the aspects of teachers commitment towards inclusion registering high means in those aspects. The respondents agreed that working at the school had a great deal of personal meaning to them, that they feel a strong sense of belonging to their schools. However the respondents agreed that the schools they serve in do not deserve their loyalty. The respondents also expressed their indebtedness to the school and that they felt that the schools problems were part of their own problems. They further agreed with the assertions that they did feel as though they were members of the family at the school and that they did not feel emotionally attached to their schools.

Respondents were indifferent on two aspects regarding teachers’ commitment towards inclusion recording mixed feelings on these aspects. They were indifferent on whether they enjoy discussing their school with people outside it and on whether they think they could easily become attached to another school as they are to their current school. All the responses with the exemption of two had standard deviation greater than 1 indicating greater disparities in the responses.

Further the study established the distribution of the responses as categorized from negative perceptions, mixed responses to positive responses. The findings were as in the table 4.7

Table 4.7: Distribution of Teachers Perception on Affective Commitment

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Valid</th>
<th>Percent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>negative</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4.8</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>mixed</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>27.0</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>positive</td>
<td>43</td>
<td>68.3</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>63</td>
<td>100</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
From the table, it was observed that a majority of the respondents had positive perception of their commitment towards inclusive education. As such, it was observed that the teachers were highly committed towards inclusion in the schools.

Further, I sought to establish whether gender of the respondents influenced their commitment on inclusive education. The findings from the analysis were as follows.

**Table 4.8: Perception of Affective Commitment Based on Gender**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Commitment grouped</th>
<th>negative</th>
<th>mixed</th>
<th>positive</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>gender</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>male</td>
<td>Expected Count</td>
<td>1.6</td>
<td>8.5</td>
<td>21.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>% within gender</td>
<td>3.1%</td>
<td>25.0%</td>
<td>71.9%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>female</td>
<td>Expected Count</td>
<td>1.4</td>
<td>7.5</td>
<td>19.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>% within gender</td>
<td>7.1%</td>
<td>28.6%</td>
<td>64.3%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>Expected Count</td>
<td>3.0</td>
<td>16.0</td>
<td>41.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>% within gender</td>
<td>5.0%</td>
<td>26.7%</td>
<td>68.3%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Chi Square (X²) = .679, Phi = .106, p = .712

From the table, I observed that male respondents were more positive in their commitment towards inclusive education as compared to their female counterparts. This is because male respondents recorded higher percentage than women as far as positive commitment is concerned. To establish whether the difference was significant in influencing affective commitment of teachers towards inclusive education, I run the chi square test on gender and affective commitment. I established that there is no significant difference on the influence of gender on teachers affective commitment. This is because the p-value 0.712>0.05. Therefore, gender is not significant in determining teacher’s affective commitment. Further, I established the symmetric measures to find out the relationship between gender and teachers affective commitment. A weak positive relationship exists between gender and teachers affective commitment. However the p-value 0.712>0.05 indicated that the relationship was not significant. As such, I concluded that gender difference is not significant in explaining teacher’s affective commitment.

The perception of the respondents on their commitment towards inclusive education based on their professional status was also assessed
Findings indicated that all the respondents had positive perception on teacher’s commitment to inclusive education. This was regardless of the professional status suggesting that differences in professional status did not bring about a difference in perception on teachers commitment to inclusive education. The Chi Square statistic indicated that differences in professional status did influence teachers’ affective commitment towards inclusive education. The chi square value of 20.216 was found to be statistically significant with p-value 0.01<0.05. This indicated that the professional status of teacher influenced his/her affective commitment to inclusive education. Symmetric measures helped determine the degree of association between professional status and teachers’ commitment to inclusive education. The Phi value of .585 indicated an average positive relationship between professional status and teachers’ affective commitment on inclusive education. The relationship was found to be significant at 0.05 level of significant.
In regard to the influence of teaching experience on teachers’ commitment to inclusive education, I first sought to establish their perception on the aspect. The findings from the analysis were as presented in the table below.

**Table 4.10: Perception of Affective Commitment Based on Teaching Experience**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>teaching experience</th>
<th>Expected Count</th>
<th>Commitment grouped negative</th>
<th>mixed</th>
<th>positive</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1-10</td>
<td>.5</td>
<td>.5</td>
<td>2.6</td>
<td>6.9</td>
<td>10.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>% within teaching experience</td>
<td>10.0%</td>
<td>40.0%</td>
<td>50.0%</td>
<td>100.0%</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11-20</td>
<td>1.0</td>
<td>.5</td>
<td>5.2</td>
<td>13.8</td>
<td>20.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>% within teaching experience</td>
<td>10.0%</td>
<td>10.0%</td>
<td>80.0%</td>
<td>100.0%</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>21-30</td>
<td>1.3</td>
<td>.1</td>
<td>6.7</td>
<td>17.9</td>
<td>26.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>% within teaching experience</td>
<td>.0%</td>
<td>34.6%</td>
<td>65.4%</td>
<td>100.0%</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>above 30</td>
<td>.1</td>
<td>.5</td>
<td>1.4</td>
<td></td>
<td>2.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>% within teaching experience</td>
<td>.0%</td>
<td>.0%</td>
<td>100.0%</td>
<td>100.0%</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>3.0</td>
<td>15.0</td>
<td>40.0</td>
<td>58.0</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>% within teaching experience</td>
<td>5.2%</td>
<td>25.9%</td>
<td>69.0%</td>
<td>100.0%</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Chi Square ($X^2$) = 8.008, Phi = .372, P = .237

From the table, most of the respondents regardless of their teaching experience demonstrated positive perceptions on their commitment towards inclusive education. Therefore, I observed that many of these respondents had affective commitment towards inclusive education. However, the table further showed that the affective commitment perception tend to increase as one gains more experience. Those respondents who had worked for less than ten years demonstrated low levels of affective commitment on inclusive education. Only 50% of this category indicated positive perception on their commitment to inclusive education. Positive perceptions were higher for those who had worked for between 10-20 years bracket but declined henceforth. As such, the perception on teacher’s commitment varied depending on their teaching experience.

Chi square statistic indicated that there was no significant influence of teaching experience on teachers’ affective commitment. The Chi-Square statistic value of 8.008 was found to be statistically insignificant at 5% level of significance. The Phi value indicated a weak positive
relationship between teaching experience and teachers’ affective commitment. However the relationship was found to be statistically insignificant at 5% level of significance.

4.4 Relationship Between Teachers Attitude and Affective Commitment

Pearson product moment correlation coefficient was established to show the relationship between teachers’ attitude and their commitment to inclusion. The findings for the analysis were as in table 4.11

Table 4.11: Relationship between Teachers’ Attitude and Affective Commitment

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Teachers attitude</th>
<th>Pearson Correlation</th>
<th>Teachers commitment</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Sig. (2-tailed)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>N</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**. Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).
The findings indicated a high positive significant relationship (r = .63, p < 0.01) between teachers attitude and affective commitment. It was observed that teacher’s attitude positively influenced affective commitment within the schools. It was concluded that enhancing teacher’s attitude, affective commitment is subsequently enhanced in the school.

4.5 Summary of Important Findings

The independent variable for this study was teachers’ attitude in inclusive school setting while the dependent variable was affective commitment in the inclusive school setting. Results were in accordance with these variables. The summary of the findings were as presented below.

4.5.1 Teachers Attitude in Inclusive School Setting

Descriptive statistics showed that respondents agreed on the assertions that inclusion is the best way to meet the needs of all the students and that Inclusion would work well in their school. Each of these assertions high values of their means showing acceptance on these aspects. However, the respondents were indifferent on three aspects of teachers’ attitudes. They disagreed with the assertion that Inclusion creates too much additional work for
teachers. The respondents expressed diverse opinions on teachers’ attitude items with a majority of them having a standard deviation greater than 1.000. Overall, all the respondents expressed mixed feelings in regard to their attitude towards inclusive education. The orientation along gender did not influence respondents’ perception towards their attitude on inclusive education. Additionally, professional status, and teaching experience were also found not to be significant in influencing teachers attitude on inclusive education.

### 4.5.2 Affective Commitment in Inclusive School Setting

The findings on the affective commitment indicated that most of the respondents agreed with almost all the aspects of affective commitment. However, the respondents were indifferent on one aspect; that they enjoy discussing their school with people outside it. Greater deviation was still observed in the responses with a majority of the responses registering a standard deviation greater than 1.000. Findings indicated that generally, all the respondents had positive feelings towards affective commitment regardless of the respondent’s gender. Based on gender, professional status and years of teaching experience did not appear to change the perception of the respondents towards affective commitment of teachers towards inclusive education. All the respondents regardless of their inclinations along these demographics, recorded positive perceptions on teachers commitment on inclusive education. as such teachers affective commitment did not appear to be influenced by their inclination on gender, professional status and years of teaching experience.

### 4.5.3 Relationship between Teachers Attitude and Affective Commitment in Inclusive School Setting

Inferential statistics showed that gender, professional status and teaching experience were not significant in influencing teachers’ attitude towards inclusive education. Very weak positive insignificant relationships were established between these demographics and the attitude of teachers towards inclusion. Further the study established that gender, and teaching experience did not have any significant influence on teachers’ affective commitment. However, professional status was seen to be significant in influencing affective commitment of teachers recording an average positive significant relationship. Further, the study established that there exists a positive correlation between teachers attitude and affective commitment \( r = 0.63, p < \)
This implied that as teachers’ attitude is enhanced in those schools, affective commitment in inclusive school setting is also enhanced.

4.6 Discussions of Findings

i. What are the attitudes of teachers towards inclusive education in Bahati sub-county?

This study examined the attitude of teachers towards the inclusion of children with special needs in the mainstream education in Kenya. From the table of findings, it is clear that the respondents agreed on seven aspects. The aspects registered high value means indicating high agreements with the attitude scores. The respondents agreed that inclusion is the best way to meet the needs of all the students and that inclusion would work well in their school. This is in agreement with the observation that effective inclusion teachers hold positive attitudes regarding inclusion, including a willingness to teach children with disabilities and take responsibility for their learning (Titone, 2005). The respondents were indifferent on other four aspects; inclusion causes more problems than it solves, inclusion of students with special needs is detrimental to the education of other students, inclusion of students with special needs into regular classrooms creates tension in the school and that colleague’s support full inclusion of the students with special needs. This aspects recorded mixed perception as regards their attitudes. This could be interpreted to mean that the respondents could neither agree neither disagree with these aspects regarding their attitude on inclusive education.

This can be attributed to a study by Ross-Hill, (2009), who observed that regular education teachers have been apprehensive towards inclusive practices, either because of their inability to accommodate children with special needs in their classrooms, because they feel inadequate, or because they simply do not favor inclusive practices in general. However, the respondents disagreed that inclusion creates too much additional work for teachers and that school staff members are adequately prepared for inclusion. The two aspects recorded Low means interpreted to indicate a disagreement with the two assertions. Pearce (2009a) observed the importance of pre-service teacher training noting that more positive attitudes were held by those teachers who had been prepared in their pre-service teacher training to teach all children, compared to those that had not been prepared and trained to teach a diverse classroom. All the responses, with the exception of two, had standard deviations greater than 0.01. This implied that as teachers’ attitude is enhanced in those schools, affective commitment in inclusive school setting is also enhanced.
one indicating how diverse the respondents were in their responses. This depicted lack of agreement among the respondents on the issues pertaining to teachers’ attitude towards inclusion.

The findings could further be construed to indicate low level of positive attitude towards inclusive education. According to the cognitive dissonance theory, attitude influences the actions one undertakes. As such negative attitudes towards inclusion explain the challenges of inclusion in the Kenyan schools. Changes need to be undertaken in policy implementation to reduce or eliminate the dissonance and consequently build positive attitudes towards inclusion. Attitude dissonance impacts on the affective and cognitive attitudes of teachers towards inclusion (Al Abuljabber (2006).

From the frequency table, Findings indicated that 85% of the respondents had mixed feelings about their attitude towards inclusive education. This meant that a majority of the respondents were ambivalent as to whether they had negative or positive perception on inclusion. According to Pivik, McComas, & Laflamme (2002), Parents confirm that negative attitudes toward students with disabilities are hurtful, and obviously a detrimental condition to establishing and maintaining a successful inclusion program. Trent & Dixon (2004), note that whether teachers enter their teacher preparation program with these attitudes already formed and intact, or whether they acquire them during their programs of study it is important that teachers hold attitudes and beliefs supportive of inclusive instructional models.

Studies investigating the attitudes of inclusive teachers point to the necessity of a positive attitude toward inclusion and toward children with disabilities (Ross-Hill, 2009). Through research it has been shown that one of the most important predictors of successful inclusion of pupils with disabilities into the regular education classrooms is the attitude of teachers (Bacon & Schultz, 1991). According to Silverman (2007), teacher’s attitudes and beliefs directly affect their behaviour with students and so have a great influence on classroom climate and student outcomes. Teachers who hold positive and open attitudes towards creating an environment of inclusion for all students in the classroom, irrespective of differences or disabilities, were found to have been more successful in implementing inclusive practices (Avramidis, Bayliss, & Burden, 2000).

Halvorsen and Neary (2009) emphasized the instruction of special needs students must embrace human diversity as an expected and valued characteristic among students. To achieve
this goal, a growing number of schools are practicing “inclusion” education in which students with disabilities are placed in a “regular” classroom and participate in all school activities. Inclusion has proved to be successful when it concentrates on several key factors: ongoing professional development for regular and special education teachers, knowledgeable teachers about special education terms, law, and issues; positive teacher attitudes toward inclusion; effective collaborations between special and regular educators; individualized support for students with disabilities; and instruction that recognizes each student’s chronological age, personal preferences, and individual potential structured around a curriculum to accommodate learning styles of a diverse student population. The research of Boscadrin (2005) showed that negative attitudes of teachers involved in inclusion programs can undermine the efforts of administrators to implement inclusion.

In Kenya, most of the school head teachers are reluctant to practice inclusive education. This can be attributed to lack of sufficient training and experience on inclusive education. Further, the negative attitude prevailing in most of the schools towards inclusive education has been a key impediment in achieving inclusive education.

ii. What is the level of teachers' commitment towards inclusive educational setting in Bahati sub-county?

The second part of the research question of this study sought to establish the perceptions of teacher’s affective commitment to inclusion in their schools. This was based on the fact that a committed teacher is more likely to have positive attitudes towards inclusive education and is more likely to record higher levels of job performance compared to one who is not committed (Feinstein & Vondrasek, 2001). Affective commitment was assessed from a series of 10 statements seeking respondents’ agreement or disagreement with the various attribute of their job as teachers in schools.

The table of findings indicated high means in regard to teachers’ commitment to inclusive education. Thus, it was observed that respondents portrayed high level of commitment towards inclusive education. This is supported by Sharma and Bajpai (2010), who observed that the high levels of effort exerted by employees with high levels of organizational commitment would lead to higher levels of performance and effectiveness of both the individual and the organizational level. However, they were indifferent on two aspects; enjoying discussing their school with people outside it and that I could easily become attached
to another school as I am to this one. The aspects registered mixed perception. The aspects recorded the highest standard deviations of 1.263 and 1.211 respectively. This showed that the respondents were in lesser agreement in their responses. The assertion that teachers feel a strong sense of belonging to this school recorded the least standard deviation of .971 indicating strong agreement in the responses. Apart from two aspects, all the other aspects had standard deviations greater than one which shows the disparities in the responses.

The frequency table indicated that a majority of teachers had positive perception on their commitment towards inclusion. Thus it was observed that most of the responses were in agreement with the various assertions as regards to commitment of teachers towards inclusive education. This goes to affirm Mbwiria (2010) assertions that more dependable and psychologically participative behavior on the part of teachers on one hand, and educational outcomes and the students’ intellectual and personality development on the other depend largely on the commitment of the teachers. Mbwiria continues to note that committed teachers serve as a model of values, attitudes and behavior to pupils and others. Sahney et al, (2008) uphold the notion that commitment from the academic staff in the education sector to the overall organizational goal such as in the delivery of high service quality is a better strategy in the case of customer retention and satisfaction. They further argued that the employees’ strong commitment to good service quality has a strong link to the organizational benefits such as low cost effectiveness and also in producing excellent graduates.

iii. Is there a relationship between teacher attitude and the commitment of teachers towards inclusive educational setting in Bahati sub-county?

The study examined the influence of demographic characteristics on attitude and commitment of teachers towards inclusive education. The study established that there was no much difference in the attitude of teachers on inclusive education between the two genders. The findings were consistent with a study by Chireshe (2011) who also did not find much difference between genders in regard to their attitude on inclusive education. A study by Alghazo et al (2003), found that neither female nor male teachers had positive attitudes towards inclusion. Generally both male and female teachers recorded mixed feelings on their attitudes towards inclusive education. As such, neither of the two genders had positive attitudes towards inclusive education. Chi-Square statistics indicated that gender is not a significant predictor of teacher’s attitude on inclusive education. Further analysis of the statistical measures indicated a very weak insignificant relationship between gender and
teachers attitude on inclusive education. Similar to this study’s findings, a study by Alghazo et al.,(2003), found that neither female nor male teachers had positive attitudes towards inclusion. Studies seem to show, then, that there is no consistent relationship between gender and teacher attitude to working with disabled children

Both male and female teachers were found to posses’ positive perception on their commitment towards inclusive education. There was not much difference in their perception and as such I concluded that differences in gender do not influence their commitment on inclusive education. The Chi-Square statistic confirmed these findings indicating that there exists no difference on teachers commitment towards inclusive education based on gender. Symmetric measures indicated a weak positive insignificant relationship between gender and teachers commitment to inclusive education. The findings were contrary to Dukmak (2013) findings that teachers showed supportive attitudes towards inclusion, and male teachers had more supportive attitudes towards inclusion than females did. Female prospective teachers were reported to have a greater tolerance for having children with special needs in their class (Avramidis et al. 2000). However, Forlin's research (2001) found that female teachers reported significantly greater stress and difficulties in perceived professional competency-than their male counterparts. Studies have indicated that female teachers have a positive attitude for inclusion of disabled children in mainstream schools, unlike male teachers (Avramidis & Norwich, 2002). This is perhaps because females as mothers are more sympathetic to disabled children (Alghazo & Gaad, 2004). Studies by Alghazo & Gaad (2004), Avramidis et al., (2000) and Leyser and Tappendorf (2001) all had similar findings.

However, several past and recent studies have found the opposite, with male teachers showing more positive attitudes than females (Ernst & Rogers, 2006; Rakap & Kaczmarek, 2010). According to Batsiou, Bebetsos and Antoniou (2008) male teachers from Cyprus had positive attitudes, unlike the female teachers. Moreover, Forlin et al., (2009), in a study of pre-service students found that male students reported positive attitudes after their experience. On the contrary, a study in seven colleges and universities by Hodge (1998) in the US found that male teachers, even experienced, did not have positive attitudes towards inclusion.

Further, the analysis indicated that professional status was not a determinant of teachers’ attitude on inclusive education. Symmetric measures indicated a weak positive insignificant relationship between professional status and teachers’ attitude on inclusive education.

However, Chi-Square statistic analysis indicated that teachers’ professional status influenced
their affective commitment towards inclusive education. An average positive significant relationship was further established between the professional status and teachers’ affective commitment. These findings indicate that the professional status of individual teachers influences their affective commitment on inclusive education. Studies carried out among principals, teachers, and teacher education students have revealed that they possess a positive attitude towards the notion of inclusion (Avramidis, Bayliss & Burden, 2000). However, they become reluctant when it comes to the actual implementation (Campbell, Gilmore & Cuskelley, 2003). Several studies previously pointed out in this review suggest that teacher attitude has a significant impact on the implementation of the inclusive program but such a program will be challenging if educators and schools are not supportive and committed to implementing the policy (Moran, 2007).

Traditionally, according to Ross-Hill, (2009), regular education teachers have been apprehensive towards inclusive practices, either because of their inability to accommodate children with special needs in their classrooms, because they feel inadequate, or because they simply do not favor inclusive practices in general. Attitudes are influenced by information and knowledge about the disability, and the skills teachers possess in working with disabled children in mainstream schools (de Boer et al., 2011). Professionally qualified teacher tends to have a more favorable attitude towards the inclusion of special need students than their non-professional qualified teachers. Florian, Young and Rouse (2010) also state that rather than defend the need to accommodate learner differences, they argued that a more just and equitable approach to meeting the needs of all learners can be supported by preparing newly qualified teachers to focus on improving the quality of what is generally available.

Respondents generally indicated mixed perceptions on their attitude regardless of their teaching experience. Chi-Square indicated that difference in teaching experience does not significantly influence the attitudes of teachers towards inclusive education. A weak positive relationship between teaching experience and attitude of teachers on inclusive education was observed. Some studies have suggested that teachers with more experience show less positive attitudes toward inclusion (Forlin et al., 1996), while other studies found that as teachers’ experience with pupils with special educational needs or SEN increased so did their confidence (LeRoy & Simpson, 1996). Years of teaching experience is found to be a significant contributing factor towards teachers’ attitudes regarding inclusion (Parasuram, 2006). Teachers with less experience tend to have a positive view on inclusion while on the
other hand those with much experience have negative views towards it. Studies have shown that regular teachers who have had previous experience in teaching disabled children, including the special education teachers, hold positive attitudes (de Boer et al., 2011). However, other studies contradict these findings; for example, Cook, Semmel and Gerber (1999) found that the special education teachers in their study had negative attitudes towards inclusion. Other studies have found no significant difference in teacher attitudes in relation to the teachers’ work experience in mainstream schools (Memisevic & Hodzic, 2011).

Further, teaching experience did not appear to influence perception of teachers in regard to their commitment on inclusive education. Respondents regardless of their experience demonstrated positive perception in regard to teachers’ affective commitment on inclusive education. Chi-Square statistics indicated that there is no difference on teachers affective commitment based on teaching experience. A relatively weak positive insignificant relationship was established between the teaching experience and affective commitment of teachers towards inclusive education. This indicated that number of years of teaching experience among teachers does tend to alter their affective commitment towards inclusive education.

Finally the study established the Pearson product moment correlation coefficient to establish the relationship between teachers’ attitude towards inclusion and affective commitment. All the responses as regards to these aspects were on a Likert scale thus could be transformed into a composite score. A composite mean was established for all the responses. Pearson correlation coefficient was established to show the relationship between the independent and dependent variable. The findings indicated a high positive significant relationship ($r = .63, p < 0.01$) between teachers attitude and affective commitment. It was observed that teacher’s attitude positively influenced affective commitment within the schools. It was concluded that enhancing teacher’s attitude, affective commitment is subsequently enhanced in the school.

Contrary to these findings, Horne and Timmons’s (2009) found that teachers had negative attitudes toward inclusion because they felt that continually having to make modifications and accommodations to meet IEP requirements made teaching students with disabilities time consuming. Consistently, general and special education teachers in Cipkin and Rizza’s (2010) study agreed that not all children benefit from inclusive practices. In some cases, negative teacher attitudes affect teacher behavior in the classroom. For instance, Hwang and Evans
(2011) found that 55% of teachers were unwilling to participate in inclusive practices, a condition the researchers attributed to negative teacher attitudes.

Favorable attitudes toward inclusion are necessary. Attitudes are important insofar as they predict behavior (Odongo, 2012). According to Berry (2010) a teacher who believes that inclusion is unfair to typically achieving students may act in some ways that negatively affect students with disabilities in that classroom. Berry continues to note that the presence or absence of positive attitudes and a sense of commitment to principles of inclusion can tip teachers toward making or avoiding efforts to effectively teach students with disabilities. Teachers who have favorable attitudes toward inclusion generally believe that students with disabilities belong in general education classrooms, that they can learn there, and that the teachers have confidence in their abilities to teach students with disabilities (Berry, 2010). Howell and Johnson (2009) suggest that attitudes may be seen to have three related components: cognitive (i.e. the idea or assumptions upon which the attitude is based), affective (i.e. the feelings about the issue), and behavioral (i.e. the predisposition toward an action that corresponds with the assumption or belief). Attitudes toward disabilities reflect beliefs about people with disabilities and as such guide behavior towards individuals with disabilities (Roberts & Smith, 1999).

Parents confirm that negative attitudes toward students with disabilities are hurtful, an obviously detrimental condition to establishing and maintaining a successful inclusion program (Pivik, McComas, & Laflamme, 2002). Trent & Dixon (2004), note that whether teachers enter their teacher preparation program with these attitudes already formed and intact, or whether they acquire them during their programs of study it is important that teachers hold attitudes and beliefs supportive of inclusive instructional models. Studies investigating the attitudes of inclusive teachers point to the necessity of a positive attitude toward inclusion and toward children with disabilities (Ross-Hill, 2009). O’Rourke and Houghton (2009) found that although general education teachers in their study recognized challenges associated with inclusion, they accepted the practice as part of the school culture and reported maintaining positive attitudes toward inclusive education. Similarly, Ross-Hill (2009) on overall, did not find significant differences in teacher attitude toward inclusion: All teachers in general were positive about inclusion and confident in their ability to teach students with special needs in the general education classroom.
Results from Hwang and Evans’s (2011) study showed mixed results (positive attitudes = 41.37%, negative attitudes = 34.47%, neutral attitudes = 24.13%), never the less more teachers had positive attitudes than negative or neutral attitudes. Regardless of varying perspectives pertaining to inclusion, most teachers have reported believing that inclusion is beneficial for learners with disabilities because it provides a means for equal educational opportunities (Allison, 2011) and provide social benefits (Hwang & Evans, 2011; Parker, 2009). Parker (2009) found that 42% of general education teachers and 58% of special education teachers agreed that all students benefit from the practice of inclusion.

Some teachers may have negative attitudes toward inclusion and inclusive instructional practices. The focus of teachers’ negativity toward inclusive education varies. Orr (2009) asked pre-service special education teachers to share their experiences with general education teachers in the field; the special education teachers described the general education teachers as negative. General education teachers appeared to exhibit more negative attitudes toward teaching learners who required modified instruction, such as students with vision and hearing impairments, but the most negative attitudes toward learners with severe disabilities, such as behavioral and emotional disorders. General education teachers were most positive about teaching learners with language deficits and physical disabilities (Orr, 2009). In addition, to the special education teachers, it appeared that the general education teachers expected that the special education teachers be liable for students with disabilities (Orr, 2009). Cassady (2011) found that general education teachers held negative attitudes toward students with emotional and behavioral disabilities but also toward students with autism. However, the teachers were more receptive to teaching learners with autism than to teaching learners with emotional or behavioral disabilities. Despite teachers’ confidence in their ability to implement IEPs, adapt lessons, and provide accommodations for students with autism, negative teacher attitudes toward learners with autism and emotional and behavioral disabilities had an impact on their overall willingness to have any learner with the disabilities in their regular education classrooms (Cassady, 2011).

In a study of general education teachers and students with and without mild disabilities, many general education teachers reported that specialized instruction is disruptive to the instructional routine of the general education classroom (O’Rourke & Houghton, 2009). Specifically, teachers cited fundamental changes to curriculum requirements, instructional and grading methods, and related expectations of student performance (O’Rourke & Houghton,
as reasons for perceiving specialized instruction as disruptive. Other teachers indicated that, in cases of partial inclusion, inclusion keeps learners from feeling a sense of cohesion between their instructional settings and among their courses but also that it keeps students from developing relationships that could benefit them socially (O’Rourke & Houghton, 2009).

Research has shown that one of the most important predictors of successful inclusion of pupils with disabilities into general education classrooms is the attitude of teachers (Bacon & Schultz, 1991; Semmel, Abernathy, Butera, & Lesar, 1991). Studies by Barton (1992), Scruggs and Mastropieri (1996), and Avramidis et al. (2000), cite the attitudes of teachers towards pupils with special educational needs as a major factor in determining the success or failure of inclusive education. Silverman (2007) suggested that teachers’ attitudes and beliefs directly affect their behavior with students and so have a great influence on classroom climate and student outcomes.

Teacher attitudes have been found to be highly related to successful inclusive education (Avramidis & Norwich, 2002). Teachers who hold positive and open attitudes towards creating an environment of inclusion for all students in the classroom, irrespective of differences or disabilities, were found to have been more successful in implementing inclusive practices (Avramidis, Bayliss, & Burden, 2000). Research by Pearce (2009a, 2009b) suggested that maintaining a positive attitude towards inclusive education was even more important than either knowledge or skills. This was supported in a review conducted by Boyle, Scriven, Durning and Downes (2011), who added that a positive attitude towards inclusive education was even more important than school resourcing, as it was the teacher who had to implement the inclusive practices. Pearce (2009a) also highlighted the importance of pre-service teacher training, noting that more positive attitudes were held by those teachers who had been prepared in their pre-service teacher training to teach all children, compared with those that had not been prepared and trained to teach a diverse classroom.

Having a more crystallized understanding of what is needed to make inclusion work; school administrators may find it necessary to review the supports and services offered to regular education teachers and implement necessary changes (i.e., providing resources in the area of staff development). Semmel et al. (1991) carried out a study entitled, "Teacher Perceptions of the Regular Education Initiative", where they after having surveyed 381 elementary educators in Illinois and California (both general and special), concluded that those educators were not
dissatisfied with a special education system that operated pullout special educational programs. Dickens and Smith (1995) conducted a study on the attitudes of both regular and special educators towards inclusion. Here both groups of respondents reveal more favorable attitudes towards inclusion after their in-service training. They concluded that staff development is the key to the success of inclusion. Johnson (1996) in a study described and analyzed the perceptions held by regular education teachers toward the placement of students with learning disabilities in their classrooms. Key findings of this study were that class size should be reduced to support inclusion and that teachers are basically enthusiastic about participating in inclusion. Teachers were also concerned about their level of training regarding modification and received effective teaching strategies for student with disabilities.

A study by Lambe and Bones (2006) found that attitudes of pre-service teachers towards the philosophy of inclusive education were generally positive, with more than 80% of participants believing that all teachers should experience teaching children with special education needs. However there was a marked concern about training and preparation. Specifically, almost half of the participants felt that they did not have adequate experience to work effectively with students with special education needs, and more than half felt that they did not have the skills to teach in an inclusive setting. The attitudes of pre-service teachers towards inclusive education have been shown to be a significant predictor for future implementation of inclusive education (Sze, 2009).

Pre-service teacher training for inclusive education has been shown to be an effective method for improving attitudes towards inclusive education (Forlin, 2010a). A study conducted by Loreman, Forlin and Sharma (2007) into attitudes before and after training for inclusive education found that training was successful in improving attitudes. Further research compared methods of training between several Australian and international universities was unable to determine whether a specific training module was more effective at improving attitudes and knowledge about inclusive education than an infusion approach, which incorporated elements of inclusive education into several modules (Sharma, Forlin, & Loreman, 2008). Not all researchers agree that attitudes towards inclusive education are improved through training. Hastings and Oakford (2003) found that training was not a significant factor for attitudes towards inclusive education, and that attitudes were determined by types of disabilities, with less inclusive attitudes held towards children with behavioural and emotional difficulties than those with learning disabilities. A limitation to categorizing
disabilities in this manner was that many pre-service teachers may not have had any personal experiences or specific training with children in either or both categories, and attitudes may be indicative of stereotypes in the absence of personal experience or specific training. A recent study by Forlin and Chambers (2011) found that while attitudes towards inclusive education were improved through training and knowledge, pre-service teachers’ concerns and perceived stress about the implementation of inclusive education were not improved.

Forlin, Keen, and Barrett (2008) examined teacher concerns on inclusion of students with intellectual disabilities in regular settings. Teachers who had a student with intellectual disability in their class were asked to complete a questionnaire that assessed their concerns on aspects such as behavior of the student, student social competency, parental interaction, and teacher professional competency. Of the 228 respondents, 93% stated that they felt they had received insufficient training to cater to the needs of a student with an intellectual disability in an inclusive setting. The authors concluded that the lack of pre-service teacher training for inclusive settings, as cited by the teachers, is an important consideration for training providers. There was also a study that has conducted research on the impact of training on the attitudes of pre-service teachers and their sentiments on students with disabilities (Sharma, Forlin, & Loreman, 2008).

Ali, Mustapha and Jelas (2006) examined the attitude and perceived knowledge of mainstream and special education teachers of primary and secondary schools towards inclusive education in Malaysia. The main finding shows that, in general, teachers have positive attitudes towards inclusive education. They agreed that inclusive education enhances social interaction and inclusion among the students and thus, it minimizes negative stereotypes on special needs students. The findings also show that collaboration between the mainstream and the special education teachers is important and that there should be a clear guideline on the implementation of inclusive education. The findings of the study have significant implications to the school administrators, teachers, and other stakeholders who directly and indirectly involved in implementing inclusive education. Thus, this study was based on the premise that the attitude of teachers towards inclusive education was of significant importance for the success of inclusive education in Bahati sub-county. It was important to assess how teacher’s attitude in Bahati sub-county was influencing inclusive education.
Beare (1985) cautions that attitudes once set are in fact very difficult to change and that it might therefore be more effective to focus closely on the preparation of pre-service teachers. The suggestion is that if student teachers complete their pre-service education without having developed positive attitudes towards inclusion this will adversely affect the successful accommodation of learners with special educational needs into mainstream settings (Tait & Purdie, 2000). Blair (1983) concluded that improved provision at pre-service together with a more aggressive approach towards training for inclusion-based practices would be the best point to begin in teacher education. Lambe and Bones (2006) found that positive attitudes did exist in student teachers at the start of their pre-service training, concluding that this stage of teacher education was the most affective time to nurture these attitudes by the provision of high quality training. If attitudes can be formed by the quality of pre-service provision, then it seems reasonable to conclude that the school-based placement experience may be a key time when attitudes towards inclusion may be influenced. Further training of teachers in inclusive practices will be beneficial for them.
5 CHAPTER 5: CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

5.1 Introduction

After the data collected was analyzed in form of both descriptive and inferential statistics, a summary of the major research findings was compiled. Conclusions were drawn from the summary of the study findings. Finally, I put across pertinent recommendations in line with teachers attitudes and affective commitment towards inclusive school setting in Kenya. The chapter ends with suggestions for further studies in the area of inclusive school settings.

5.2 Main Conclusions

From the above findings, it was concluded that gender is not important in determining the attitude of teachers towards inclusive education. Further I observed that there is no significant relationship between gender and teachers attitude towards inclusive education. Thus I concluded that being male or female does not matter as far as attitude towards inclusive education is concerned. In addition, I concluded that teachers’ affective commitment is not determined by the gender orientation of the teacher. The study found no significant relationship between gender and affective commitment leading to the conclusion that affective commitment of teachers towards inclusive education is not influenced by gender.

It was further concluded that professional status does not influence teachers’ attitude towards inclusive education nor does it have any significant relationship with teachers’ attitude. However, I concluded that professional status is important in determining teachers’ affective commitment towards inclusive education. an average positive significant relationship exists between teachers professional status and affective commitment indicating that professional status of the teacher influences their affective commitment on inclusive education.

Teaching experience was found not to influence teachers’ attitude towards inclusive education. There was no significant relationship between teachers teaching experience and their attitude towards inclusive education. Therefore I concluded that the years of teaching experience are not important determinants of teachers’ attitude towards inclusive education.
Additionally, teaching experience does not influence teachers’ affective commitment towards inclusive education. There was no significant relationship between experience and affective commitment of teachers.

From correlation analysis I concluded that teacher’s attitude significantly and positively influences affective commitment of the school towards inclusive learning. This is in tandem with studies by scholars in previous researches. Parasuresam (2006) posits that attitudes guide and influence people’s behaviors in their daily lives. According to Berry (2010) a teacher who believes that inclusion is unfair to typically achieving students may act in some ways that negatively affect students with disabilities in that classroom. A direct proportional relationship between teachers’ attitude and affective commitment means that enhancing one aspect directly enhances the other. Thus, the schools have to put a lot of efforts to improve on teachers’ attitude for them to improve their commitment towards inclusive learning.

Further from the findings of this study, it is paramount to conclude that teachers training on issues to do with inclusion would have a great impact on the inclusive education in Kenya. Thus to enhance the positive attitudes of teachers and their commitment to inclusive education, training cannot be wished away. Improving teachers’ attitude also avoids the possibilities of teachers considering inclusion as a burden for them. It will go a long way in enhancing the students experience in the regular classroom.

Most of the teachers generally appeared to have mixed feelings about their attitudes towards inclusive setting. For effectiveness of inclusion, it is important that the teachers be sure about their attitudes towards inclusion. The study therefore concluded that it isn’t clear from this study whether teachers have positive attitudes or not. Just a small percentage appeared to have a positive attitude on inclusion.

The findings led to the conclusion that teachers had a high commitment towards inclusive education since a greater percentage was observed for those that expressed positive feelings on inclusion. This portrays a huge potential for the success of inclusive education since once a teacher is committed towards a given cause they are likely to develop positive attitudes and consequently enhancing their performance.
5.3 Recommendations

This research enabled me to draw a few recommendations. First and foremost, I recommend that the school management teams should put in place mechanism that improve teachers attitude towards inclusive learning. This will go a long way in improving the affective commitment of the school towards integration. Inclusion agendas should be concerned with identifying all forms of exclusion and barriers to learning within national policies, cultures, educational institution and communities with a view to remove them. Also, it has implications for redirecting teachers’ attitudes towards the inclusion of special needs students in regular educational programs positively. Thus, successful inclusion for special needs children in regular classrooms entails the positive attitudes of teachers through a systematic programming within the classroom.

Boscadrin (2005) reported that there are strategies school personnel can employ to help avoid and to reduce negative attitudes about inclusion. The strategies are based on the principles in Bandura’s (1986) social cognitive theory. School personnel can begin each school day by giving themselves and others affirmations. School personnel can say something positive about themselves and a colleague, and then say something positive they will do for the regular and special education students at the school. They can write down positive thoughts on a sticky note and place the notes somewhere so it will be seen throughout the day, such as on the bulletin board in the school hallways and classrooms and in locations at the school where students tend to congregate (e.g., bus stop, cafeteria, gymnasium, and library).

Idol (2006) suggested school personnel can display encouraging thoughts throughout their school and provide simple recognition for staff members’ hard work. These traits will help to better establish a positive school wide climate. Maxwell (2006) reported another way to avoid negative thinking is for school personnel to read a passage out of an inspirational book each morning. If the school person does not have time to do the reading in the morning, he or she can reserve a specific time during the day to evaluate daily thoughts and feelings, even if it is just for five minutes. Reflective journaling of thoughts is another way to focus on the positive and not the negative. When feeling frustrated and overwhelmed, teachers can write down the feelings and think critically about what triggered the feelings and what can be controlled in the environment to change those feelings into something positive. According to Maxwell (2006), when feeling incapable of finding a solution, ask for advice from another teacher,
principal, counselor, or friend. No good comes from harboring negative thoughts and attitudes about inclusion and working with special education students in inclusive classrooms.

Secondly the school should encourage the staff members to attend short term courses relating to inclusive learning to enhance their knowledge on this subject matter. This will work towards enabling a positive attitude and subsequently enhance affective commitment. According to Franzkowiak (2009), introductory courses on inclusive education should be mandatory for all teacher education students, that bachelor and masters courses should include inclusive education and combined degree programs for primary and special education should be promoted. The collegiate career of these students is the big stepping stone to their future professional undertakings with inclusive education in their minds and hearts. Lastly, the government should put up learning policies for those training to be teachers to inculcate positive attitude towards inclusion in schools. This will make it easier for most of the schools to embrace inclusive learning in school.

Humphrey and Martinez (2006) reported that principals can support the training efforts of regular education teachers to facilitate better inclusive classrooms. Principals can ensure that regular education teachers have the resources and materials they need to work with all students in their classrooms. Needs assessment can help identify training and consultation needs among teachers. Principals might support regular education teachers by providing ample opportunities to attend professional development workshops. They can provide on-site training as well as incentives for teachers to attend local and national conventions that provide information for expanding their problem-solving repertoires. Humphrey and Martinez (2006) insisted principals should encourage teachers to search the Internet or the local university library for research-based intervention strategies they can implement in their classrooms. In addition to the above recommendations, I suggest that studies be conducted to find out how teachers attitude affect other aspects of commitment such as normative and continuous commitment. Further, it is my suggestion that this study be conducted in other parts of the country to back up the findings of this study and enable generalization of this findings.
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Appendix A: Research Questionnaire

Section A: Background Information

1. Gender
   - Male ☐
   - Female ☐

2. Professional status as a teacher
   - P1 ☐
   - Diploma/S1 ☐
   - ATS ☐
   - Graduate (Bachelors) ☐
   - Masters ☐

3. Teaching experience (in years)

Section B: Teachers’ Attitudes
Please indicate with a tick your level of agreement or disagreement with the statements below: Strongly agree (SA), Agree (A), neither agree nor disagree, that is undecided (U), Disagree (D), or strongly disagree (SD)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Teachers Attitudes</th>
<th>SA</th>
<th>A</th>
<th>U</th>
<th>D</th>
<th>SD</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. Inclusion is the best way to meet the needs of all students</td>
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<tr>
<td>2. Inclusion causes more problems than it solves</td>
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<td>3. Diversity in the classroom enriches learning</td>
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<tr>
<td>2. Leadership of the head teacher is necessary for inclusion</td>
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<tr>
<td>3. Head teachers enable regular and special education staff to communicate with each other</td>
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<td>4. Inclusion would work well in your school</td>
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<td>5. Inclusion of students with special needs is detrimental to the education of other students</td>
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<td>6. Inclusion creates too much additional work for teachers</td>
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<td>7. Inclusion depends solely on staff/teacher involved</td>
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<tr>
<td>8. Inclusion of students with special needs into regular classrooms</td>
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</table>
creates tension in their schools

9. I currently need training in inclusive practices

10. School staff members are adequately prepared for inclusion

11. My colleagues support full inclusion of students with special needs

Section C: Affective Commitment

Please indicate with a tick whether you strongly agree (SA), Agree (A), neither agree nor disagree, that is undecided (U), Disagree (D), or strongly disagree (SD) with the following aspects of your employment as a teacher in this school.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Affective Commitment</th>
<th>SA</th>
<th>A</th>
<th>U</th>
<th>D</th>
<th>SD</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>12. Working at this school has a great deal of personal meaning for me</td>
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<td>13. I feel a strong sense of belonging to this school</td>
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<td>14. I enjoy discussing my school with people outside it</td>
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<td>15. This school does not deserve my loyalty</td>
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<td>16. I am proud to tell others that I work at this school</td>
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<td>17. I owe a great deal to this school</td>
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<td>18. I really feel as if this school’s problems are my own</td>
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<td>19. I think I could easily become as attached to another school as I am to this one</td>
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<td>20. I do not feel like a member of the family at this school</td>
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<td>21. I do not feel emotionally attached to this school</td>
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</table>
Appendix B: LETTER OF INTRODUCTION TO RESPONDENTS

Priscilla G. Wanderi

Department of Special Education
Oslo University

Dear Respondents,

Ref: Permission to carry out research in your school

I am a postgraduate student at Oslo University pursuing a Master of Philosophy in Special Education Degree. I am conducting a research on teachers’ attitude and commitment in Bahati Sub-County. I am requesting for information that will facilitate the study. The information you give will be used for this study only and will be treated with utmost confidentiality.

Thank you.

Yours faithfully,

Priscilla Gathoni