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Diplomová práce

Monitoring and evaluation System for improving the quality of Inclusive Education

Parental satisfaction with Inclusive Education

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Declaration: This dissertation is submitted in part fulfilment of the degree of MA SEN/Mgr. (Special Education Needs) – Erasmus Mundus, Univerzita Karlova V Praze, Pedagogicka Faculty in partnership with Fontys, Tilburg and University of Roehampton, London. I declare that I developed the dissertation independently with the use of the resources listed in the indicative bibliography. I give full permission to use this study for further research in future.

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I.   Abstract

This dissertation was a study on parental satisfaction with inclusive education that I carried out in the Czech Republic in order to find the answers to research questions: (1) to what extent are the parents satisfied with inclusive education? And (2) what are the factors that contribute to such satisfaction? The information was gathered from the parents of children with special education needs integrated in the mainstream school. This study engaged 24 parents who have children with disabilities integrated in the mainstream lower secondary schools. The results indicated that parents of children with disabilities were generally satisfied with school where their children have been integrated. Specifically, parents were satisfied with school environment, classroom, learning materials. They strongly expressed that they needed their children to study in the mainstream school because the children need to make more friends with the same age group, to play with their friends, to be invited to the birthday party and so forth. Notwithstanding, there were a small number of parents who were dissatisfied or less satisfied. This was due to the children of these parents having been more development when they changed to study in special school.

In addition, parental satisfaction was strongly influenced by parental involvement. When parents were more involved in the children in education they indicated strong satisfaction with the school. The study also discovered that parental satisfaction was correlated with school-parent communication followed by school climate. Parent's involvement was more positive among schools in which parents saw the school as empowering them.

Key words: parental satisfaction, inclusive education, mainstream school, parental involvement, school-parent communication, school climate, and empowerment

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1. Introduction

In this dissertation, I explore parental satisfaction with inclusive education and factors that contribute to it. The research study is based on international perspectives. It illustrates how parents of children with special education needs are satisfied with mainstream school settings and the factors have an impact on such satisfaction.

To conduct a research, I set out the research questions:

- How are parents satisfied with what their children acquired from mainstream schools?
- What are the factors that contribute to parental satisfaction?

In this chapter I outline my inspiration for undertaking a study on parental satisfaction with inclusive education and the structure of this dissertation.

1.1 Educational background in Cambodia

Historically, education in Cambodia has been changed gradually due to the political sequences. Under the leadership of Salot Sar, so-called Khmer rouge, education from 1975-1978 was zero. Schools were totally closed and school building were used for other purposes or even destroyed. School-aged children were forced to work, and nearly 90 percent of teachers were killed.

After the collapse of Pol Pot regime, 7 January, 1979, education was resumed, and it started moving from zero point. The Ministry of Education, Youth and Sport of Cambodia mainly focused on enabling Cambodian children to access to education system. To enable children and adults to access to education, the Ministry of Education has introduced two schooling settings, regular and complementary. The regular setting accommodates school-aged children with the appropriate grades, whereas over-aged children and adults are accommodated with the complementary setting.

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This focus has not been very successful due to the lack of appropriate action plans. Until the beginning of new millennium, the Ministry of Education, Youth and Sport has established the Education Strategic Plan 2001-2005 (ESP). Over the past few years of ESP implementation, the Ministry has enabled significant improvements in broadening equity in coverage of education opportunities and improving the quality, standards and management of education services. At the same time the Ministry has learned many important lessons on how to improve education services even further.

Another effort of the Ministry of Education, Youth and Sport is the establishment of Education for All (EFA) National Plan 2003-2015. This long-term EFA Plan is therefore an important policy and strategy document for achieving Cambodia's broader and long-term socio-economic development goals and objectives. Its fundamental thrust is to ensure that all Cambodia's children and youth have equal opportunity to access formal and non-formal basic education, independent of economic status, gender, geography, physical disability, and ethnicity. In so doing, the Royal Government reaffirms its strong commitment to the United Nations Convention on the Rights of the Child (CRC) and the World Education Forum on the Dakar Framework for Action on EFA by 2015.

Most importantly, this EFA Plan reaffirms the principle that education is everybody's business, not simply the responsibility of the Ministry of Education, Youth and Sport. Achieving EFA will require effective partnerships at a number of levels, including those with other Government Ministries, community groups and parents and with our donor and NGO partners. In particular, the broad sectoral planning approach sets out the principle that Government spending priorities will be for basic education, complemented by a growing public/private partnership at later stages of education and training.

ESP is designed to set out a phased and rolling program of priority education policy and strategy reform for the next five years. In this phase of the reform process, the Ministry intends to continue to give highest priority to equitable access to high quality basic education services guided by the EFA National Plan strategies and targets, according to the Rectangular Strategy of the Royal Government of Cambodia. It also gives greater emphasis to the

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expansion of non-formal education and life skill training for young people through a well-regulated partnership between the Government, parents, communities and private sector.

To avoid duplication, these two plans have been harmonized aiming at providing equitable access to any forms of education and training to young people regardless economic status, gender, geography, disability, and ethnicity. Achieving these plans will require effective partnership between the Government, parents, communities and the private sectors.

1.2   Inspiration for undertaking this study

Parental satisfaction is one of the significant aspects of the monitoring and evaluation of educational quality (Action plan of the Inspectorate of Education, Ministry of Education, Youth and Sport[1]). Parental satisfaction is not only the aspect contributing to improving the quality of education, but also to improving the educational programs initiated by key departments of the Ministry of Education, Youth and Sport, and UN and non-governmental organizations.

According to my professional experiences in terms of inspection, I noticed that many schools have attempted to measure parental satisfaction in order to gauge the quality of education provided to children, and to discover ways of improving the schools. Parents are the regular clients of the schools. Schools have a responsibility to discover the way to satisfy their clients, otherwise they will lose them. Increasing parent's satisfaction is considered one way of improving the quality of the schools.

Parents are considered as the most powerful authority to decide which school is appropriate for their children. They are also useful indicators showing the impact of education provision to their children. Furthermore, they can be an ideal partner working with the school cooperatively in order to improve the quality of the school. They can tell the school what to do with their children in terms of education.

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[1] Inspectorate of Education is a department of the Cambodian Ministry of Education, Youth and Sport, which is responsible for monitoring the quality of education in all aspects.

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By seeing the parents are the ideal partner, many schools have been trying to involve parents in the school activities so that the schools can find the way to deal with individual children and to satisfy parents. However, they have not been very successful. This is mostly related to the natural attitude of parents. It seems that there is a boundary between the responsibilities of educating children. A small number of parents thought that education is the responsibilities of the schools, as they are responsible for sustaining family economics, and they have other outside commitment and time limitation. Some parents are unable or not interested in participating in activities at the school. If this is the situation the question teachers can ask is, "What are alternative ways school can include these parents in school activities?"

As a result of the situation mentioned above, I become convinced that satisfaction of parents has to be tickled. On the other hand, I inspire to discover the factors contributed to such satisfaction.

1.3   The outline of the structure of the study

This dissertation is divided into six chapters. Each chapter contains several sub-sections that cover different, but interconnected subjects.

Chapter 1 covers the background to this study and an introduction covering such issues as my research questions, education background in Cambodia, my rationale for inspiring this study, and a short outline of how the dissertation is structured.

Chapter 2 contains the context of the study. It covers the perspectives of inclusive education, quality of education and its definition in the Cambodian context, monitoring system for improving the quality of education and parental satisfaction followed by its factors where this study was concerned.

Then I look for suitable methodology for this research in chapter 3. In this section I discuss my choice of the paradigm, the methodology, the methods, and the ways in which I analyze and interpret my findings.

Chapter 4 contains findings of the research and the analysis of these findings.

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In chapter 5 I relate these results to the theoretical background which I described in chapter 2. I look again at some of the subjects of the literature review and critically reflect on the relationship to the findings described in chapter 4.

Finally I look back on this investigation in chapter 6; I review the process, the methods used and the objectives, and contribution of this study. I discuss the limitations of this study and make recommendations for future developments.

The last part of the dissertation contents the bibliography and appendices.

2. Literature Review

In this chapter I will mainly focus on parental satisfaction with inclusive education and some factors that contribute to high satisfaction of parents of children with special education needs integrated in the mainstream school settings. Preceding this exploration, I will elucidate the practice of inclusive education, quality of education followed by its definition and monitoring system in Cambodia.

2.1 What is inclusive education?

Over recent years, approaches in education for disabled children have moved from special needs education towards inclusive education, reflecting a change from the medical to the social model of disability, as well as a growing human rights focus in the disability field. These developments have come about through activism by disabled people and parents of disabled children.

In 1994, the Salamanca Statement declared that schools should accept all children regardless of disability or special educational need (UNESCO[2], 1994). Twelve years on, there are many differing views about how to implement inclusive education. For some practitioners the concept of inclusive education has been widened to encompass other issues as well as disability, such as gender, ethnicity and HIV status, so that schools can truly be 'Schools for All', while for others the concern is to ensure that segregated education continues for some groups of children. The resources in this key list include practical guides, case-studies, guidance materials for managers, and resources for parents.

One of the most fiercely debated issues in education is that of the full inclusion of children with disabilities in regular education classrooms (Havey, 1998). Though there is no agreed definition of inclusion, it generally refers to the practice of placing children with special needs

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[2] United Nation Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization (1994). The Salamanca Statement and Framework for Action on Special Education Needs, Paris: UNESCO. URL: http://www.unesco.org/education/pdf/SALAMA_E.PDF

in the regular schools where their individual needs can be met and they will receive appropriate education with regular students. Smith (1998) defined inclusion as "welcoming children with disabilities into the curriculum, environment, social integration, and self-concept of the schools". Farrell (2000) indicates that inclusion means students with special education needs should take a full and active part in the life of mainstream schools.

The first document calling for inclusive education is the report of Warnock Committee (1978) which is known as Warnock report. In the report mainstream education was regarded as the best setting for all children being together. It also suggested that the special school had a role to play when difficulty experienced by children were especially severe or complex. However, the idea that mainstream school is the best setting for all children seems to be problematic since it ignores the fact that some children would find it impossible to adapt to the mainstream environment. It should not be forgotten that original establishing special school was to accommodate the special needs of children with disabilities who could not achieve appropriate learning in the mainstream schools.

An inclusive learning environment enhances the classroom experience for all students, as described by Rover (2005) "Inclusive classrooms are classrooms in which instructors and students work together to create and sustain an environment in which everyone feels safe, supported, and encouraged to express her or his views and concerns. In these classrooms, the content is explicitly viewed from the multiple perspectives and varied experiences of a range of groups. Content is presented in a manner that helps students understand that individuals' experiences, values, and perspectives influence how they construct knowledge in any field or discipline. Instructors in inclusive classrooms use a variety of teaching methods in order to facilitate the academic achievement of all students."

2.2 Quality of education

The idea of "quality" as an important feature of the production of goods and the provision of services has led to its being an important factor in the management of companies and other organizations. The procedures are divided into "quality assurance", the steps which need to be taken to produce goods or provide services of high quality; and "quality control", the

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procedures devised to check that the aimed for or promised quality is achieved. The idea of quality has been introduced into the public domain, with governments promising specific standards in the provision of health services or education.

Obviously, various organizations have been set up to establish standards, either general or for a particular activity, and to validate that the standards are being kept. The International Standards Organization (ISO) has a series of norms - for example, ISO 9000, which is applied to service industries, including a range of schools of different kinds. The ISO certification checks that there are proper procedures for ensuring quality standards and these are consistently applied, but makes no judgment of the quality of the product or service itself. In an educational context, it would check that there were procedures for observing and assessing the quality of the teaching, but it would not make an assessment of the work in the classroom.

In education system, the management of quality has not generally been explicit and it has often been unsystematic (UNESCO[3], 2004). In many countries the responsibilities for quality control has lain with ministry of education inspectors whose jobs have involved both the inspection of schools and their accreditation; in some countries they have also inspected individual teachers, grading them in the ways which influenced their salaries and careers. In the recent years the emphasis of inspectors' work has been more on advising schools and on promoting good practice than on control and sanctions.

The procedures for internal quality assurance have varied widely. Typically there has been relatively close observation of the teaching activities and in many environments it has been possible for teachers to work alone in the classroom for years once they have gone through their probationary period. In some schools there is a provision for observation of classes by heads of department or for peer observation, but this is far from being generalized and is more common in private education than in state systems.

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[3] Global Monitoring report of Education For All, UNESCO, 2004

2.3 Definition of Educational Quality

EFA and the Millennium Development Goals (MDGs) introduced the concept of quality education into their goals and international development targets (RGC[4], 2003). Providing any education regardless of quality is not the goal. A myth exists that access must come before the quality. Both can occur simultaneously. A large debate continues about what a quality education is.

Ministerial Round Table Meeting on Quality of Education has stated that *"Quality has become a dynamic concept that has constantly to adapt to a world whose societies are undergoing profound social and economic transformation. Encouragement for future-oriented thinking and anticipation is gaining importance. Old notions of quality are no longer enough despite the different contexts there are many common elements in the pursuit of a quality education, which should equip all people, women and men, to be fully participating members of their own communities and also citizens of the world"* (UNESCO[5], 2003).

Given the educational quality defined by UNESCO, Ministry of Education, Youth and Sport of Cambodia (MOEYS) has identified the characteristics of educational quality that can be implemented in many appropriate forms.

- <u>Learner</u>: good physical and/or mental health, receiving good care, readiness for participating in learning activities, and receiving support from their family and community;

- <u>Learning environment</u>: safe, accessible for all, and sufficient school facilities;

- <u>Curriculum</u>: meeting learning needs, integrated basic life skills;

- <u>Teaching and learning process</u>: learner-centered approach has been applied, well-organized classroom management, fair assisting learners without discrimination; and

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[4] The Royal Government of Cambodia, Education for All National Plan 2003-2015. URL: http://www.moeys.gov.kh/en/education/efa/index.htm
[5] UNESCO roundtable meeting: Quality of Education, URL: http://portal.unesco.org/education/en/ev.php-URL_ID=27234&URL_DO=DO_TOPIC&URL_SECTION=201.html

- Learning outcome: satisfactory learning outcome integrated with skills, behavior and morality, which are met to the national educational goal for participating in social development.

(Action Plan of Educational Quality Improvement, MOEYS, 2003)

2.4 Monitoring system in Cambodia

Monitoring systems have been conducted under the guideline of the Ministry of education, youth and sport. They are conducted under the newly established tools for monitoring by sub-sectors in consonant with the main goals of Education for All (EFA), namely Basic Education, Life Skills, Adult Literacy and Early Childhood Care and Education. These tools have been jointly established by the Inspectorates of Education and Quality Improvement group of EFA Secretariat General, aiming at serving two major purposes. On the one hand they aim at improving the quality of education of all aspects, especially the quality of teaching and learning. On the other hand they provide the accountability to the outside world regarding the quality of the teaching activities and the use of the resources provided to this end. Quality and accountability are the principles of quality insurance systems in the ministry of education, youth and sport.

EFA National Plan of the Royal Government of Cambodia has been established. In the plan, the quality improvement has been stated clearly to meet the needs of all Cambodian children, regardless disabilities, geographical area, race, religious belief and socio-economic background. To be clearer, the citation in italic shows the key features for implementation of Cambodian monitoring system.

The longer-term EFA monitoring process will give increased attention to the monitoring of the quality and effectiveness of education at all levels. The Quality Education Working Group recognizes that the medium-term EFA monitoring process focuses on access improvements, in part due to the time needed to clearly define minimum standards of learning outcomes, activities and inputs. Key features of the EFA quality monitoring process will include assessment of the following:

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- ❖ *Impact of teacher training and teacher deployment policies on student and teacher performance;*

- ❖ *Effectiveness of learning environments at all levels including ECCD, primary, and lower secondary;*

- ❖ *Effectiveness of capacity building activities at departmental and institutional levels, especially with respect to in-service and pre-service training;*

- ❖ *Quality and effectiveness of poverty reduction programs;*

- ❖ *Effectiveness of learning achievement within NFE initiatives serving out-of-school children and youth and adults with little or no functional literacy;*

- ❖ *Effectiveness of gender equity initiatives in all basic education developmental programs as well as at institutional level;*

- ❖ *Impact of expanding secondary education opportunities in under-served areas and for women on teacher supply/demand and deployment policies;*

- ❖ *Impact of the existing medium-term teacher deployment incentives programs (e.g. remote teacher allowances) and how to link medium-term targeted interventions with longer-term systemic reform;*

- ❖ *Impact of projected increases in instructional hours and sustainable instructional materials provision on quality improvement.* (Cambodian Education for All National Plan 2003-2015, p.60)

Recently, I have participated in piloting the implementation of instruments for monitoring and evaluation in some aspects, established by the Ministry of Education, Youth and Sport. The main objective of the piloting is to measure the effectiveness of the tools, to explore some existing elements that need to be integrated in the tools for better and effective use. More specifically, this piloting aims at measuring the impact of educational programs that have been implementing in the selected areas.

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In my opinion, these features of EFA monitoring activities are very broad. Therefore, these can be categorized into three key factors for assessing the quality of inclusive education[6] and these can effectively achieve the above objective.

Chart 1: Areas for conducting monitoring and assessing the quality of education (Yin Ra, 2006)

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                    Educational
                    Monitoring and
                    Assessment

        INPUT          PROCESS          OUTPUT
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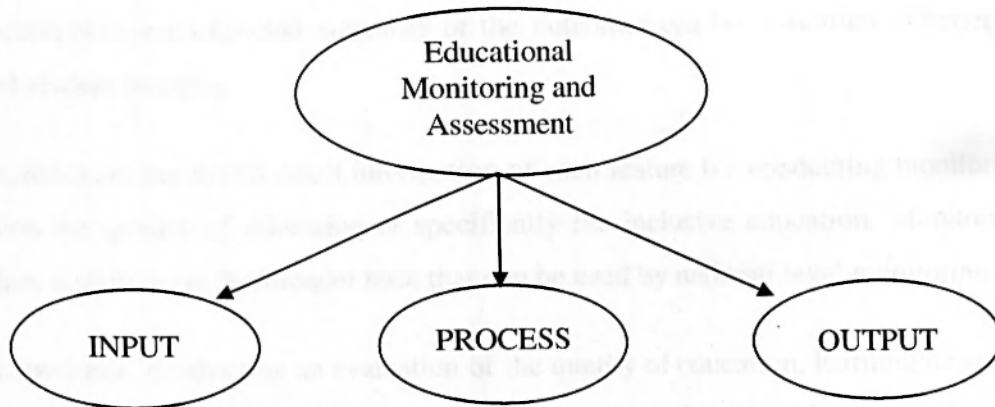
Chart 2: General grouping of standards in the tools for monitoring and evaluating the quality of education (Yin Ra, 2006)

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                    Purpose,
                    objectives and
                    integration of

  Instructional                        Community
  program                              involvement

            Areas of Inspection
            to look at

  Instruction                          Facilities
                    Organization and
                    administration
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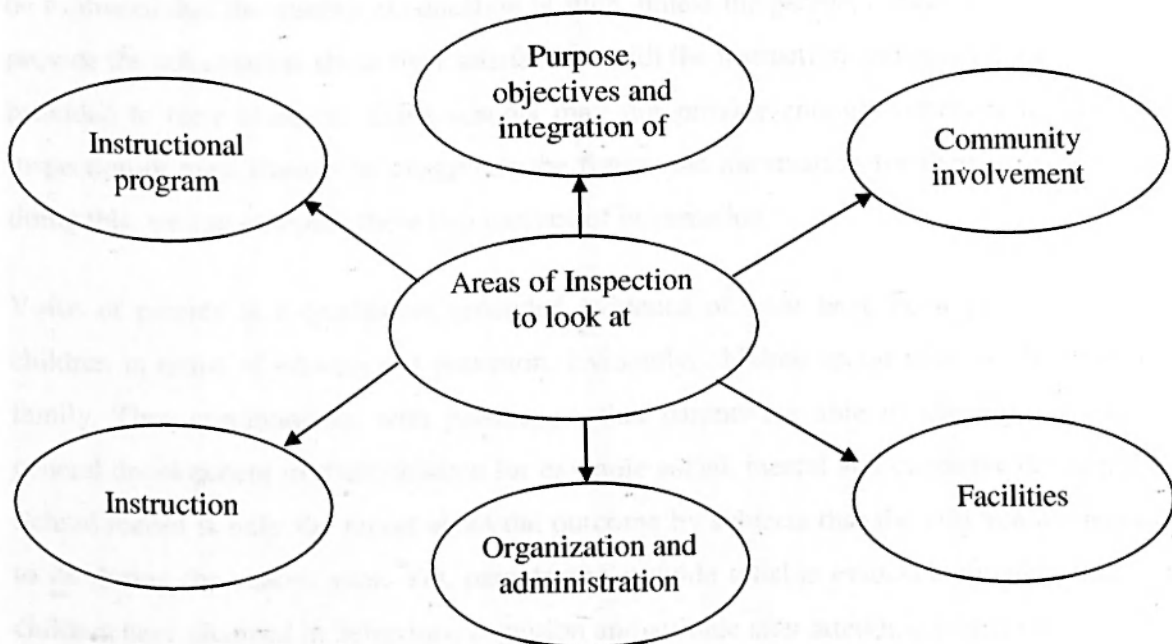
[6] At first I used the term 'Education for all' and later on I used 'Inclusive Education' because the target groups of both are the same. It means that all children have equal opportunity to education.

2.5 Parental satisfaction with inclusive education and factors contributed to satisfaction

Learning outcomes are the end product of educational activities and programs. In short, they are the impact of curriculum implementation. Learning outcomes are measurable so that the difference between the planned achievement and the learned achievement can be narrowed. Once outcomes are known, the educational institutions can adjust the course or program to better accomplish the expected outcomes or the outcomes can be re-written to better reflect expected student learning.

In short, these are the initial detail information of each feature for conducting monitoring and evaluation the quality of education or specifically the inclusive education. Monitoring and evaluation activities are the broader term that can be used by national level monitoring staff.

In my experience, conducting an evaluation of the quality of education, learning outcomes are the main target that is needed to focus on. The information related to this is not only collected from the school itself, but also from the members of community it covers, particularly from the parents of children integrated in the mainstream schools. Information from schools cannot be evaluated that the quality of education is such, unless the parents of children are invited to provide the information about their satisfaction with the instruction and educational programs provided to their children. Some schools may not provide enough information during the inspection or even attempt to exaggerate the figure and information for their own favors. By doing this, we can compare these two sources of information.

Voice of parents is a qualitative grounded evidence of what have been provided to their children in terms of educational provision. Evidently, children spend most of the time with family. They communicate with parents, so that parents are able to identify the level of general development of their children for example social, mental and cognitive development. School record is only the report about the outcome by subjects that the children are required to do during the school year. Yet, parents can provide reliable evidence showing that their children have changed in behaviors, cognition and attitude after attending in school.

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During the meeting with parents for information comparing, they provide not only the information on how they satisfy with the behavioral, cognitive and attitudinal change of their children as the result of schooling, but also the satisfaction with services provided to their children. According to my professional experience, parents emphasize higher satisfaction when they are provided an opportunity to get involve in the school development programs.

2.5.1 Parental involvement for higher satisfaction

Parental involvement was a driving and decisive factor in the development of inclusive education worldwide. In South Africa parents also became the advocates of the inclusive education movement in the 1990s, paving the way for parents to be involved in the decision-making process regarding the school placement of their children with disabilities. The purpose of this article is to focus on the way in which equity, individual rights and freedom of choice manifest itself in the implementation of inclusive education with specific reference to the way in which parents experience it. Results indicate that the inclusion of a child into mainstream education is a challenging and dynamic process that starts with the parents' decision to place their child in a mainstream setting. In spite of legislation and the desires of parents, the development of inclusive educational practices in South Africa does not always reflect the values of equity and individual rights. Failure to establish collaborative and trusting relationships between teachers, parents and professionals poses a major challenge and can have a serious impact on the outcomes of inclusive education.

I have experienced with the attitude of parents in the society towards involvement in the education. I acknowledge two realities about parental involvement. First, not all parents need encouragement to become involved; as explicated well in a literature focused primarily on social class, culture, and family-school relations, some parents are heavily involved in their children's education and need few incentives for still further involvement. Brantlinger (2003) suggests that such involvement is often accompanied by beliefs that schools should give priority to one's own child as well as one's own views, needs, and social perspectives, often to the implicit or explicit exclusion of other families' needs and perspectives (p...). The second reality about parental involvement that frames this review is developmental in nature.

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Evidence suggests that parental involvement tends to decline, for several reasons, in students' later middle school and high school years (e.g., Adams & Christenson, 2000; Griffith, 1998). It also suggests clearly that developmentally appropriate parental involvement continues to be associated with positive student outcomes across elementary, middle, and high school years (e.g., Dornbusch, Ritter, 1987).

Parental involvement is important for student learning, not only in public schools but in private and charter schools as well. Parental involvement promotes better student attendance, increased graduation rates and less grade retention, higher parent's and student's satisfaction with school, less discipline reports, and higher achievement scores in reading and math (Hiatt-Michael 2001). The importance of involvement was accentuated by Seth Kumar[7] (Child's right to education), a project of United Nations Children's Fund (UNICEF, 2002), which holds our nation's schools accountable for academic achievement for all students. Parents, teachers, and teacher preparation institutions need to know this guideline and framework, its accountability provisions, and its benchmarks, which set achievement standards for all children. Chavkin (2005) has also stated that when families are involved in their children's learning, children do better in school and in life. In addition to the strong research and practice findings about family involvement in education, current policy initiatives also dictate a strong role for family involvement in education. The No Child Left Behind Act (2001) has specific requirements for family involvement that require notification and participation of parents in their children's education.

Obviously, teachers will admit that they have had very little training, if any, working with parents (Baker et al. 1999). Even today, there is limited professional development at the school or district levels that incorporates the importance of the role of parents and how classroom professionals can harness this parent's power as a means of improving and sustaining student learning (Hiatt-Michael 2001). This barrier to effective parental involvement have been credited to a school environment that does not value the view and participation of parents or to parent's roles that goes beyond the traditional roles of parent's support in schools. Parents may also not be encouraged to participate in school activities,

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[7] Seth Kumar is a UNICEF project introduced in 2002 in 9 provinces in Cambodia.

especially if teachers perceived parents as not experienced enough for tasks. These barriers are coupled with changing demographics that place parents with economic demands that limit time that parents are available to come to school. Finally, a lack of teacher preparation pertaining to parental involvement in the classroom raises another barrier to effective parental involvement (Shartrand et al. 1994).

In an analysis of teacher training programs, researchers found that teacher candidates receive minimal training in parental involvement concepts and strategies (Hiatt-Michael 2001). This finding is often accentuated by graduates who are asked to evaluate the various aspects of their training programs. They usually give glowing comments about the courses in which they learned subject matter content, but unanimously agree that they needed more training in classroom management techniques, parent's communication, and parental involvement in the classroom strategies. Through their field experiences and internships, secondary teacher candidates have witnessed first-hand minimal parental involvement in the secondary schools. These teacher candidates will join the ranks of those already teaching and yet not know how to make their classrooms parent-friendly, how to inform parents about what is really happening in the classroom, or how to talk with parents without using teacher language. Overall, they will not have gleaned strategies on how to make parents feel and believe that they are truly collaborative partners in learning.

A research indicates that parental involvement in child's education benefits the entire school community. Karther and Lowden (1997) have identified student's achievement gains, increased parental self-confidence and satisfaction with schools, and overall schools improvement as the benefits of parental involvement. Parental involvement not only increases in children's achievement test scores and grades, but also improves student motivation, attitudes, classroom behavior and self-esteem, Cassity and Harris (2000). Parents who are involved in school activities, such as attending parent-teacher conferences, monitoring their children's progress, and helping with homework are more likely to have children performing well academically (Bogenschneider, 1997). In addition, Page (1999) stresses that "schools that work well with families have improved teacher morale and higher ratings of teachers by parents" (p.47).

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Sammy and Frank (2003) indicate that parent's participation in education has been a topic of considerable interest and concern over the past 25 years. Family-school partnerships were the exception, rather than the norm prior to the 1980s. Since that time, however, a growing amount of literature has succeeded in school (Eccles & Harold, 1993). The topic of parental involvement has received even more attentions in the field of special education. Prior to the 1980s, many parents were dependent on professional for training and emotional support (Turnbull, 2001). Because of changing federal legislation (i.e., 1997 amendments to the Individuals with Disabilities Education Act), however, parents are now equal partners with school personnel, entitling them to access children's school records and participate in the design and evaluation of special education services. Research indicates that parent's participation leads to a host of positive outcomes for children with special education needs, including generalization and maintenance of treatment gains (Koegel et al, 1994), greater continuity in intervention programs (Bailey & Wolery, 1989), higher level of parental satisfaction (Stancin, 1984), and more effective strategies for resolving problems (Newmann & Wehlage, 1995). Along with these research findings, the field has produced a host of recommendations for how schools can develop partnerships with families, including engaging in quality communication, inviting parents to participate in school activities, soliciting parent's input on decisions about their child's education, and empowering parents to take action that addresses their own needs (Leibold & Lapoint 1999).

Most educators recognize parental involvement in school activities and in the student's schoolwork as integral to successful student academic performance. The appeal of parental involvement programs lies in their cost effectiveness and expected multiple positive effects. Parental participation can be influenced by parents, teachers, and students; it usually involves grass-roots, low-cost programs that are presumed to have positive effects on multiple domains, for example, on parent attitudes and behaviors, quality of parent-school and parent-teacher relationships, and student academic performance (Griffith, 1996). Comer and Haynes (1992) found parental participation in a child's education to be essential for effective teaching and learning. They characterized schools as providing children with opportunities for positive interactions with adults and other schoolchildren that would transfer to the children's home life and other learning environments. Comer and Haynes described three general ways in

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which schools might enhance parental involvement by having parents (a) participate in school events and activities, (b) help in the classroom and school programs, and (c) participate in parent groups. Several researchers have investigated the empirical relation between parental involvement and student academic performance (p. 272).

HooverDempsey and sandier (1997) suggest that invitations to involvement from important others are often key motivators of parents' decisions to become involved (p.12). Although strong role construction and efficacy may precipitate involvement, invitations to involvement from members of the school community also serve as an important motivator of involvement because they suggest to the parent that participation in the child's learning is welcome, valuable, and expected by the school and its members. These invitations may be particularly significant for parents whose role construction is relatively passive and whose sense of efficacy is relatively weak. Invitations from important others at school may contribute significantly to more active parental beliefs about personal role and increasingly positive beliefs about the effect of one's actions.

The most important invitations to involvement come from three sources: the school in general (school climate), teachers, and students. Invitations generated by positive school climate are significant because they suggest strongly that parents are welcome at school and that their involvement is important, expected, and supported. Invitations from teachers are important because they underscore the value of parents' engagement in the child's learning and the power of parental action to affect student learning. Invitations from the student are also uniquely important because they motivate parental responsiveness to learning needs.

Investigators have often suggested that the school environment, or school climate, influences parents' ideas about involvement (e.g., Griffith, 1996, 1998; HooverDempsey & Sandier, 1997). Qualities of the school environment, including school structure and management practices, may enhance several aspects of parent-school relationships, including parents' knowledge that they are welcome in the school, that they are well informed about student learning and progress, and that school personnel respect them, their concerns, and their suggestions (e.g., Adams & Christenson, 1998).

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Teacher invitations are especially powerful because they are responsive to many parents' expressed wishes to know more about how to support children's learning (e.g., Corno, 2000 & Epstein, 1991). Teacher invitations also enhance parents' sense of being welcome to participate in school processes, knowledge of their children's learning, and confidence that their involvement efforts are useful and valued (e.g., Patrikakou & Weissberg, 2000). Invitations also contribute to the development of trust in the parent-teacher relationship, a quality of effective parent-school partnerships (Adams & Christenson, 1998). Although trust and empowerment in the partnership require two-way communication across time, invitations offer an effective starting point for the creation of a partnership.

Child invitations may also be explicit, of course; these may include a broad range of requests for help with learning, help with situations at school, or participation in school events (e.g., Hoover-Dempsey, 1992). They may be spontaneous, emerging from something as simple as the student's enjoyment of the parent's involvement or from the student's difficulty with work. As is true of implicit student invitations, the power of explicit invitations appears to draw on parents' general wishes to respond to children's needs and their valuing of children's developmental and educational success (e.g., Baumrind, 1991; Hoover-Dempsey, 1992). Student invitations, of course, may also be prompted by teachers; when requests are clear and ask for specific and manageable involvement, parents tend to respond positively (e.g., Balli et al., 1997, 1998). Students who act on teacher requests to seek parents' involvement have also reported their own positive responses to the opportunity to share current learning with parents and suggest that these interactions support their learning success (Balli et al., 1998; Epstein & Van Voorhis, 2001).

2.5.2 School climate, parent-school communication and empowerment

Parent-school communication and school climate have strongest direct effects on parental satisfaction, followed by empowerment (Griffith, 1996). The strongest path to parental satisfaction was from school climate through informing parents. Parental involvement contributed little variance to parental satisfaction. Nonetheless, interaction terms showed that the relation of parental involvement to satisfaction was moderated by how well parents were

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informed, empowered, and involved by the schools, and their perceptions of positive school climate.

Chart 3: Relation among school climate, school-parent communication, parental empowerment, parental involvement and parental satisfaction (by Griffith, 1996)
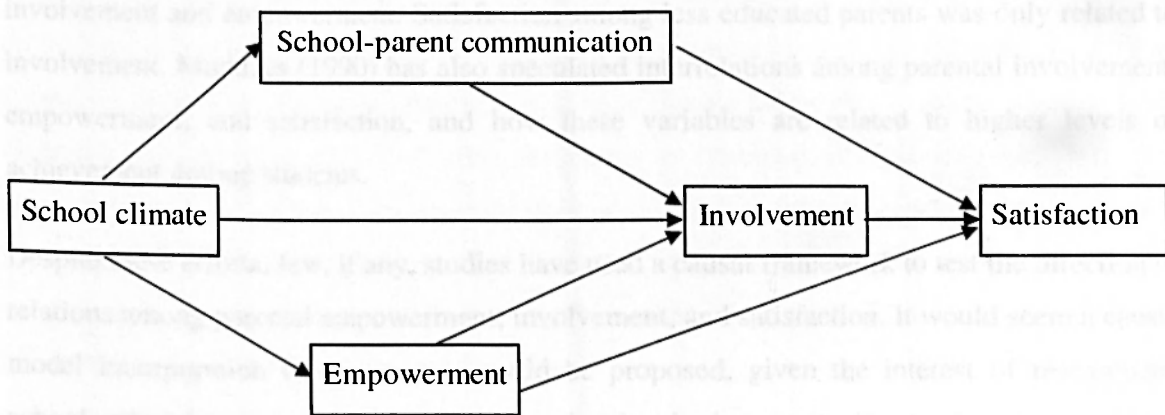
School climate and empowerment have been shown empirically to be relevant dimensions in describing parent-school relationships. McGrew and Gilman (1991) have conducted a survey on parental empowerment in parent-school relationship, and found orthogonal dimensions of home-school relation that corresponded to school climate (or parents' comfort in their relationship with the school) and empowerment (or parents' perceptions of their collaboration with the school and control of school activities). Although researchers have speculated on the nature of relations among these variables, other organizational characteristics, and parental satisfaction with education, there have been few empirical studies examining their interrelationships. This lack of research is disconcerting when considering the implicit causal linkages in discussions that call for organizational change in schools to increase parental satisfaction with education. Most recently, Goldring and Shapira (1993) espoused how both parental involvement and empowerment should lead to higher levels of parent's ownership and commitment to their schools and, in turn, higher levels of satisfaction with their schools. They examined the relations of parental empowerment, choice of school, and involvement on

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parent's level of satisfaction in data obtained from a sample of parents of school-aged children from eight classes distributed across grade 1 through 8. As a result, parental involvement showed the strongest relation with parental satisfaction. Parents' choice of school and empowerment followed in strength of association with parental satisfaction. Relations among predictors and satisfaction varied by educational attainment of parents. Satisfaction among more educated parents was most related to choice of school, and then, involvement and empowerment. Satisfaction among less educated parents was only related to involvement. Maddaus (1990) has also speculated interrelations among parental involvement, empowerment, and satisfaction, and how these variables are related to higher levels of achievement among students.

Despite these efforts, few, if any, studies have used a causal framework to test the direction of relations among parental empowerment, involvement, and satisfaction. It would seem a causal model incorporation these concepts could be proposed, given the interest of researchers, school administrators, and policymakers in developing strategies to increase parental involvement and satisfaction with education. The attributes of the concepts themselves suggest a causal chain-of-events. Concepts of parental satisfaction and involvement often denote perceptions of how one feels about oneself (internal), whereas school-parent's communication and climate often denote individual perceptions about the social environment (external). Empowerment often refers to both perceptions of external environment (organizational activities to include its members) and internal feelings (individual assessment of how much he or she contributes to organizational functioning). These concepts can also be distinguished by their presumed stability and intransigence. Organizational climate, for example, has been defined as "the relatively enduring quality of the total environment that (a) is experienced by the occupants, (b) influence their behavior, and (c) can be described in a particular set of characteristics or attributes" (Taguiri, 1968). This conceptual definition of climate proposes that a school's social atmosphere is relatively stable, influences the behavior of its organizational members, and is external to the affected individual. The semi-permanence of social climate is further evidenced by those who have viewed it as very difficult to change, often requiring organizational restructuring or hiring of new executive leadership (Chelte and Hess, 1989). By comparison, school actions to inform parents of

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school activities or ways parents can participate in school decision-making processes are more operationally concrete and practices are more easily specified and modified, though practices are often influenced by the school climate. Thus, the school climate can be viewed as directly influencing how well the school informs and empowers parents.

Decision making requires that parents are more informed, and more informed parents often want to make active choices in school decisions. These behaviors require more involvement on the part of parents. The extent to which parents are empowered and informed, to a large extent, is dependent on organizational or school climate (Hoy et al, 1991). As stated by Goldring and Shapira (1993) "...the frequency of parental involvement and level of empowerment will influence the parent's level of satisfaction with their school...Involvement and empowerment can help change the school to obtain the educational programs that are congruent with their desires and reasons for choice can thus influence their sense of satisfaction" (p. 398). Thus, parent-school communication and empowerment can be conceived as antecedents of individual parental involvement and satisfaction.

The study of James (1996) has several advantages. He found that school social environment nay be useful in cushioning negative features of the school such as school size or lack of sufficient educational resources, on the individual through the school's inclusion and involvement of students and parents. Specifically, perceptions of positive school social climate and the school's informing parents of the progress of their children's education were associated with high levels of parent's personal satisfaction. More effective schools are those with "open" climates, where principals and school staff are "genuine and open in their interactions" among parents, students and each other. School in which teachers develop open communication and collaborative working relationships with parents and who have more positive and understanding attitudes toward parents also have high levels of parental involvement and satisfaction (Epstein, 1988; Evans, 1987).

School social environment also showed an indirect, moderating effect on the relation of parental involvement to satisfaction. Thus, from the broader, social environment to the

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individual and group-level characteristic can provide satisfying experiences at the individual level.

Social influence theory (Festinger et al, 1950) seems pertinent to further elaborating on the relation of the external school social environment to internal or personal involvement and satisfaction. Social influence theory asserts that members within a group rely on each other to define social reality, and that strong pressures are exerted within the group to establish and maintain uniformity among individual perceptions, attitudes, and behaviors, especially concerning matters of consequence to the group. Groups characterized by high consensus will have a shared social reality, and such groups are more cohesive and pleasant for group members (Baron & Byrne, 1994). Conversely, groups characterized by low consensus will lack shared perceptions, and as group members engage in behaviors to achieve group agreement on matters of importance, these groups become disruptive and unpleasant for group members.

Results here were consistent with expectations that group perceptions affect individual perceptions and behavior, in particular when consensus is high among group members. First, personal involvement and satisfaction appeared to be influenced by group perceptions of school social environment (group x individual interactions): When individual parental involvement occurred in the context of positive school social environment (group perceptions of climate and how well the school informs, empowers, and involves parents), individual perceptions of involvement were positively related to personal satisfaction. Second, schools having greater within-school than between-school agreement regarding the school's social environment had parents who perceived the social environment as more positive.

The importance of group perceptions of the school social environment on the individual has been documented in a very recent study. Battistich et al (1995) observed both direct and indirect effects of group-level perceptions of school social environment on the individual: Aggregate perceptions of school social environment were positively related to individual student performance and attitudes toward the school, and the effects on performance and attitudes were greatest for socio-economically disadvantaged students. Battistich et al. (1995)

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explained that positive school climate may have provided an inducement for students to adopt a positive attitude toward the school and to perform better, who might otherwise have been alienated from school. These researchers also suggested that positive school social environment may have acted as a buffer: A caring school may compensate for school shortcomings and prevent any ensuing negative outcomes, e.g., higher personal dissatisfaction, alienation, and reduced performance. In summary, findings here and elsewhere support the view that group perceptions of parents, both valence and group consensus, influence parental involvement and satisfaction and may be used as organizational interventions to provide for more parental involvement and satisfying school experiences for parents and students alike.

The lack of a relation between parental involvement and satisfaction raises an interesting organizational consideration: What is the appropriate level of inclusion of parents into the school? Calls for increased parent's participation in the last three decades have resulted in widespread public and professional beliefs that parental involvement increases positive educational outcomes for children (Christenson, Rounds, & Gorney, 1992; Epstein, 1987). These discussions, while abundant in strategies and mechanisms for inclusion of parents in the school, often ignore the literature concerning boundary mechanisms, as well as organizational mechanisms for the inclusion of members and the exclusion of nonmembers.

Allport's (1933) concept of partial inclusion of members in organizations seems pertinent in understanding the relation of parental involvement to the school organization. According to Allport (1933), effective organizational functioning requires that people need to be involved on a segmental or partial basis, according to their defined role in the organization. Thus, most organizations do not fully employ the entire repertoire of people's personalities, abilities, and skills. People can, of course, continue to behave without regard to their organizational role (i.e., over-include themselves), often resulting in censoring and sanctions imposed by the organization. According to my professional experiences, there are many examples of situations experienced by parents that could potentially result in over-inclusion: Organizational expectations regarding a member's role and/or level of inclusion is unclear (e.g., asking the parent-teacher association president to provide clerical assistance in the

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principal's office); Parents make frequent boundary changes among organizations and inappropriately transfer their roles in one organization to another organization (mother or father, manager or administrator in private life) or their role from one organizational subsystem to another subsystem in the school (classroom helper, school office helper, parent-teacher association leader); and Parent's experience competing, cross-pressures between two or more organizations (loyalty to a classroom and teacher, the school, parent-teacher associations, and the community).

The educational literature advocates parental involvement, but evident from the few examples above, its meaning is varied, both conceptually and operationally (Reynolds, Weissberg, & Kasprow, 1992). The conceptual and practical meaning of parental involvement is further confused by contemporary trends in public education to become more customer-oriented. Recent developments in site-based management and Total Quality Management (TQM) espouse the inclusion of customers, namely the development, design, implementation, and evaluation of educational programs. The emergence of these concepts and their sweeping application in public education are re-defining parents' roles in public education (Bonstingl, 1991; Stampen, 1987). However, Cooper (1991) astutely observed that "parents-as-customers" or change agents may be fundamentally in conflict with "parents-as-participants" or helpers in public education. On the one hand, the current popularity and application of TQM view parents as active participants and change agents in public education. On the other hand, the call for parental involvement has also been by practice, having the helping parents do what the teacher asks. Indeed, noninvolvement of parents may demonstrate that parents expect public schools to provide educational services without their participation or intervention. In summary, there has been and continues to be a reasonable amount of uncertainty regarding the role of parents in public education and expected outcomes of their participation, and this confusion, on some occasions, might explain the lack of a relation between parental involvement and satisfaction.

Helpful starting points to explicate parental involvement within an organizational context are discussions of parents-as-participants along a continuum of passivism-activism (Cervone & O'Leary, 1987; Comer & Haynes, 1992). Other concepts integral to the understanding of

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parental involvement in the broader school and community organization are expectations of parents, teachers, and school administrators for the level of organizational inclusion of parents and for the desired effects of parental involvement. Knowing parent's expectations for both their level of involvement and desired educational outcomes for their children should increase the understanding of parental involvement and create more satisfying conditions for parents (Hoover-Dempsey, Bassler, & Brissie, 1992).

3.   Research Methodology

In this chapter, the central theme is research methodology which I will look for to apply in my research. Educational research requires the use of different approaches, which are based on different philosophical backgrounds. I will begin by giving a short description of different paradigms in educational research. I will then formulate the purpose of the research and the research questions. I will clarify the chosen paradigm and methods of research and how I validate the outcomes of the research that will be carried out.

3.1   Research

Research, in general, has to do with 'knowledge' of different approaches in research of different kinds of knowledge. From general point of view 'knowledge', scientific world is divided into different 'area'. Kuhn[8] (1962) popularized the term "paradigm" to explain that the groups of researchers use different theoretical frameworks to explain the nature of different problems are, and the way in which these problems can be solved. A paradigm is "a theoretical framework within which the research is being conducted, and organizes the researcher's view of reality" (Rose, D., 2005[9]).

According to Kuhn (1962) positivist scientists say that scientific knowledge is growing as a result of continuous on-going research. He states that the development of scientific knowledge is just a case of changing the dominant paradigm. This has, at the start of change, no logical reason, but is a result of the failure of current scientific paradigms to solve an emerging problem in a satisfactory way. At this stage, alternative paradigms arise and a 'shift' takes place from the old paradigm to the new one. The result of this is that, by using another paradigm, another method of research will have been discovered with different outcomes (knowledge).

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[8] Kuhn Thomas Samuel (1922-1996) is an American philosopher and historian. The best known for his work is "The Structure of Scientific Revolutions (1962)", in which he challenged the view that the history of science is a smooth and cumulative process, arguing instead that scientific change occurs through "revolutions" in which one paradigm of inquiry and explanation is replaced by another.

[9] This definition was offered by Dr. David W. Rose during the sessions about research methodology in London, Roehampton University in September 2005.

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3.2 Paradigms

Since the late 1960s, the word paradigm has referred to a thought pattern in any scientific discipline or other epistemological context. Philosopher of science, Kuhn (1962) gave this word its contemporary meaning when he adopted it to refer to the set of practices that define a scientific discipline during a particular period of time. Paradigms are known as concepts of theory in certain sciences, certain periods and of certain groups of scientists. They embody the special conceptual system through which a community of researchers operates and in terms of which a particular interpretation of reality is created (Carr & Kemmis, 1986).

In social science, the term 'paradigm' is used to describe the set of experiences, beliefs and values that affect the way an individual perceives reality and responds to that perception. Social scientists have adopted the Kuhn's phrase "paradigm shift" to denote the change how a given society goes about organizing and understanding reality.

3.3 Qualitative Research in Education

Qualitative research draws from well-rooted traditions in anthropology, sociology, theology, social and clinical psychology. In the last two decades this type of research has achieved a respected status in the social sciences and helping professions. Brantlinger[10] (2005) agues that qualitative research – as systematic, interpretive inquiry – is necessary for understanding diverse learners (those children, adolescents, and adults who are considered "challenged," "at-risk," and/or "divergently-abled"). Many educators gravitate toward qualitative research methodologies because they not only foster contextual and empirical understanding of diverse populations, but also reciprocally support dynamic learning among researchers, teachers, and students. This is accomplished through the methods of inquiry associated with qualitative research, the critical and reflective questions that guide it, and the uniquely social practices of epistemological awakening that often emerge from it.

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[10] Brantlinger, E. (2005) Qualitative studies in Special Education. Vol. 71, Iss 2, p.195

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Methodologies are the philosophical structures that ground the conduction of research studies. In conducting this research, I choose qualitative research methodology that can be use with. In general speaking, this method is specifically designed to support practitioners and researchers who are interested in designing inquiries into the meanings and realities individuals construct socially, culturally, and politically as they interact with the dynamics of their worlds. The meanings and realities produced among diverse learners create interpretations that move, contest, question, assert, and determine constantly. These meanings and realities often become frameworks for living and learning.

Qualitative researchers are interested in the range and variation of these constructivist frameworks at a particular time in a particular context. Such frameworks are often intensely unique for students marginalized in education contexts and society. Because these frames frequently evade positivist research methodologies, critical constructivist strategies are necessary to understand better the situated experiences of diverse learners in addition to the breadth of possibilities that exist for their continual learning.

Qualitative research takes an interpretive, naturalistic approach to its subject matter; qualitative researchers study things in their natural settings, attempting to make sense of, or interpret, phenomena in terms of the meanings that people bring to them. Qualitative research begins by accepting that there is a range of different quays of making sense on the world and is concerned with discovering the meaning seen by those who are being researched and with understanding their view of the world rather than that of the research (Wolfson[11], 1995).

Further more, Haines and Jones (1994) have cited that qualitative research uses unreconstructed logic to get at what is really real - the quality, meaning, context, or image of reality in what people actually do, not what they say, they do (as questionnaires). Unreconstructed logic means that there are no step-by-step rules that researchers ought not to use prefabricated methods or reconstructed rules, terms and procedures that try to make their research look clean and neat (as in journal publications).

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[11] Wolfson a professor of general practice Department of General Practice, UMDS (Guy's and St Thomas's), London SE11 6SP

Qualitative researchers do not want to intervene in the natural flow of behavior because they believe that this intervention would change the behavior. Qualitative researchers study behavior holistically. They try to look at any dimensions and layers of behavior, such as a type of people in the group, how they interact, what kinds of agreement and norms they have, and how these dimension come together to describe the group. For example, perhaps a qualitative researcher wants to study the social climate and culture of highly successful school. The researcher would probably spend a great deal of time studying the many aspects and dimensions of the school to come up with an analysis of how the school operates and why it is successful.

A common claim is that qualitative research is inductive (process of reasoning from specific to general) in that certain contexts or small numbers of individuals are studied before theories (explanations, hypotheses) are developed. However, qualitative research also can be deductive (process of reasoning from general to specific). For example, we might have a hunch about phenomenon based on personal experience and examine representative cases to document what was conjectured to illustrate the nature of what is happening for readers. Indeed, it seems the more experienced the researchers, the more their studies would anticipate findings and be designed to document rather than discover phenomena.

While quantitative research generally reduces measurement to number, the qualitative researchers do not usually collect data in the form of numbers. Rather, they frequently conduct observations and in-depth interviews, and the data are usually in the form of words. For example, a qualitative researcher might conduct a focus group discussion with six or seven of new teachers to discuss the adequacy of their undergraduate education programs in preparing them to deal with real world problems that they face in schools. The facilitator of the focus group would probably videotape the group and tape-record what was said. Later, recording would be transcribed into words, which would then be analyzed by using techniques of qualitative data analysis. Also, when a qualitative researcher enters the field and makes observations, researcher will write down what he or she sees as well as relevant insights and thoughts. The data are again in the form of words. During qualitative data

analysis, the researcher will try to identify categories that describe what happened as well as general themes appearing again and again in the data.

Johnson (2004) assumed that the use of a qualitative approach would complement the quantitative data obtained from the questionnaires. The interviews aimed to refine understanding of possible issues from the completed questionnaires through the use of considered questions and careful assessment of the responses. Since the interviews were guided by the responses to the questionnaires the design approach might be described as emergent. An emergent research design allows for multiple realities to be presented (Hoepfl, 1997). The written response format of the questionnaires was seen as complementary to the spoken format of the interviews. The combination of written and verbalized responses, were aimed at catering for the different personality preferences of different participants. In a process of triangulation, the research aimed to elicit possible trends in the way in which mothers feel about, and cope with their young children with disabilities, for example a child with intellectual disability, through data comparisons across participants and between questionnaire and interview data for each participant (Patton, 1990).

3.4 Quantitative research in education

Qualitative research is often an iterative process whereby evidence is evaluated, theories and hypotheses are refined, technical advances are make, and so on (Wikipedia[12]). According to Christensen and Johnson (2000) quantitative researchers attempt to operate under the assumption of objectivity. They assume that there is an external reality "out there" to be observed and that rational observers who look at the same phenomenon in the world will basically agree on its existence and its characteristics. They also try to remain as value-free as they can, and they attempt to avoid human bias whenever possible. In a sense, qualitative researchers attempt to study the phenomena that are of interest to them "from distance." For

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[12] Wikipedia is a free online encyclopedia. URL: http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Quantitative_research#Overview_and_background. Accessed 14/7/2006

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example, standardized questionnaires and other quantitative measuring tools are often used to measure carefully what is observed. In experiments, researchers frequently use a random process to assign participants to different groups to eliminate the possibility of human bias while constructing different groups for comparison. In judging results, statistical criteria are often used to form conclusion.

Views regarding the role of measurement in quantitative research are somewhat divergent. Measurement is often regarded as being only a means by which observations are expressed numerically in order to investigate causal relations or associations. However, it has been argued that measurement often plays a more important role in quantitative research. For example, Kuhn (1961) argued that results which appear anomalous in the context of accepted theory potentially lead to the genesis of a search for a new, natural phenomenon. He believed that such anomalies are most striking when encountered during the process of obtaining measurements, as reflected in the following observations regarding the function of measurement in science:

> When measurement departs from theory, it is likely to yield mere numbers, and their very neutrality makes them particularly sterile as a source of remedial suggestions. But numbers register the departure from theory with an authority and finesse that no qualitative technique can duplicate, and that departure is often enough to start a search (Kuhn, 1961, p. 180).

Quantitative research is about explaining phenomena by collecting quantitative data which are analyse using mathematically based methods. The fact that the data have to be quantitative does not mean that they have to be naturally available in quantitive form. Non-quantitative phenomena (such as beliefs, perception) can be turned into quantitative data through our measurement instruments.

Quantitative research is often placed in opposition to qualitative research. This often turned into a 'paradigm war' which is seen to result from apparently incompatible world viewunderlying the methods. When you look closer at researchers' actual beliefs, it appears that the so-called subjectivist (qualitative) versus realist (quantitative) divide is not that clear

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cut. Many researchers take a pragmatic approach to research and use quantitative methods when they are looking for breadth want to test a hypothesis or want to study something quantitative. If they are looking for depth and meaning, they will prefere to use qualitative methods. In any cases, mixed methods approach will be appropriate.

Quantitative research generally reduces measurement to numbers. In survey research, for example, attitudes are usually measured by using rating scale. The following five-point agreement scale is an example: (1) Strongly Disagree, (2) Disagree, (3) Neutral, (4) Agree, (5) Strongly Agree. The interviewer makes a statement, and the respondents reply with one of the five allowable response categories. After all respondents have been asked a question, the researcher typically calculates and reports an average for the group of respondents. Let us say, for example, that a researcher asks a group of teachers for their degree of agreement with the following statement: "Teachers need more training in the area of child psychopathology." The researcher might then calculate the average of response for the whole group, which might be 4.15 based on a five-point scale. The researcher might also determine whether the ratings vary by years of teaching experience. Perhaps the average agreement for new teachers is 4.5 and the average for teachers with five or more years of experience is 3.9. It could be that quantitative data are usually analyzed by using statistical analysis on a computer.

3.4.1 Qualitative Versus Quantitative Research Paradigms

Researchers have long debated the relative value of qualitative and quantitative inquiry (Patton, 1990). Phenomenological inquiry, or qualitative research, uses a naturalistic approach that seeks to understand phenomena in the contextually specific settings. Logical positivism, or quantitative research, uses experimental methods and quantitative measures to test hypothetical generalizations. Each represents a fundamentally different inquiry paradigm, and researcher actions are based on the underlying assumptions of each paradigm.

Qualitative research, broadly defiance, means "any kind of research that produces findings not arrived at by means of statistical procedures or other means of quantification" (Strauss and Corbin, 1990). Where quantitative researchers seek causal determination, prediction, and generalization of findings, qualitative researchers seek instead illumination, understanding

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and extrapolation to similar situations. Qualitative analysis results in a different type of knowledge that does quantitative inquiry.

Eisner points out that all knowledge, including that gained through quantitative research, is referenced in qualities, and that there are many ways to represent our understanding of the world. There is a kind of continuum that moves from the fictional that is "true", the novel for example, to the highly controlled and quantitatively described scientific experiment. Work at either end of this continuum has the capacity to inform significantly. Qualitative research and evaluation are located toward the fictive end of the continuum without being fictional in the narrow sense of the term (Eisner, 1991).

This sentiment echoes that of an earlier writer. Cronbach[13] (1975) states that "the special task of the social scientist in each generation is to pin down the contemporary facts. Beyond that, he shares with the humanistic scholar and the artist in the effort to gain insight into contemporary relationship" (p. 126).

Cronbach claims that statistical research is not able to take full account of the many interaction effects that take place in the social settings. He gives examples of several empirical "laws" that do not hold true in actual settings to illustrate this point. Cronbach states that the time has come to exorcise the null hypothesis, "because it ignores effects that may be important, but that are not statistically significant (Cronbach, 1975). Qualitative inquiry accepts the complex and dynamic quality of the social world.

However, it is not necessary to pit these two paradigms against one another in a competing stance. Patton (1990) advocates a "paradigm of choices" that seeks "methodological appropriate-ness as the primary criterion for judging methodological quality". This will allow for a "situational responsiveness" that strict adherence to one paradigm. Furthermore, some researchers believe that qualitative and quantitative researcher can be effectively combined in the same research project (Strauss and Corbin, 1990). For example, Russek and Weinberg (1993) claim that by using both quantitative and qualitative data, their study of technology-

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[13] Lee, J. Cronbach, an education professor who made major contributions in the fields of educational psychology and psychological testing during a career that spanned over five decades.

based materials for the elementary classroom gave insights that neither type of analysis could provide alone.

3.5   Case study

Case study is an ideal methodology when a holistic, in-depth investigation is needed (Feagin et al, 1991, p. 47). Case studies have been used in varied investigations, particularly sociological studies. Yin, Stake and others researchers who have wide experience in this methodology have developed robust procedures. When these procedures are followed, the researcher will be following methods as well developed and tested as any in the scientific field. Whether the study is experimental or quasi-experimental, the data collection and analysis methods are known to hide some details (Stake, 1995). Case studies, on the other hand, are designed to bring out the details from the viewpoint of the participants by using multiple sources of data.

Yin (1993) has identifies some specific types of case studies: Exploratory, Explanatory and Descriptive. Stake (1995) included three others: intrinsic – when the researcher has an interest in the case; instrumental – when the case in used to understand more than what is obvious to the observer; collective – when a group of cases is studied. Exploratory cases are sometimes considered as a prelude to social research. Explanatory case studies may be used for doing causal investigations. Descriptive cases require a descriptive theory to be developed before starting the project. Pyecha (1988) used this methodology in a special education study, using a pattern-matching procedure. In all of the above types of case studies, there can be single-case or multiple-case application.

Case study research is not sampling research; that is a fact asserted by all the major researchers in the field, including Yin, Stake, Feagin and others. However, selecting cases must be done so as to maximize what can be learned in the period of time available for the study.

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The unit of analysis is a critical factor in the case study. It is typically a system of action rather than an individual or group of individuals. Case studies tend to be selective, focusing on one or two issues that are fundamental to understanding the system being examined.

Case studies are multi-perspectival analyses. This means that the researcher considers not just the voice and perspective of the actors, but also of the relevant groups of actors and the interaction between them. This one aspect is a salient point in the characteristic that case studies possess. They give a voice to the powerless and voiceless. When sociological investigations present many studies of the homeless and powerless, they do so from the viewpoint of the "elite" (Feagin, Orum, & Sjoberg, 1991).

Case study is known as a triangulated research strategy. Snow and Anderson (cited in Feagin, Orum, & Sjoberg, 1991) asserted that triangulation can occur with data, investigators, theories, and even methodologies. Stake (1995) stated that the protocols that are used to ensure accuracy and alternative explanations are called triangulation. The need for triangulation arises from the ethical need to confirm the validity of the processes. In case studies, this could be done by using multiple sources of data (Yin, 1984). The problem in case studies is to establish meaning rather than location.

Denzin (1984) identified four types of triangulation: Data source triangulation, when the researcher looks for the data to remain the same in different contexts; Investigator triangulation, when several investigators examine the same phenomenon; Theory triangulation, when investigators with different view points interpret the same results; and Methodological triangulation, when one approach is followed by another, to increase confidence in the interpretation.

The issue of generalization has appeared in the literature with regularity. It is a frequent criticism of case study research that the results are not widely applicable in real life. Yin in particular refuted that criticism by presenting a well constructed explanation of the difference between analytic generalization and statistical generalization: "In analytic generalization, previously developed theory is used as a template against which to compare the empirical results of the case study" (Yin, 1984). The inappropriate manner of generalizing assumes that

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some sample of cases has been drawn from a larger universe of cases. Thus the incorrect terminology such as "small sample" arises, as though a single-case study were a single respondent.

Stake (1995) argued for another approach centered on a more intuitive, empirically grounded generalization. He termed it "naturalistic" generalization. His argument was based on the harmonious relationship between the reader's experiences and the case study itself. He expected that the data generated by case studies would often resonate experientially with a broad cross section of readers, thereby facilitating a greater understanding of the phenomenon.

Information technologies involve all four of the above categories, but this study will only report on the last two. Since the Levy (1988) case study of the University of Arizona, there has been very little literature relating to the pace of acquisition of information technology at institutions of higher education. For this reason, Levy (1988) conducted a case study after consulting with experts in the field and with senior case researchers. Their recommendation was to conduct an in-depth study of the institution using the case methodology. This study replicates and extends that study and thereby adds to the body of knowledge on the nature of information technology acquisition at universities.

Levy (1988) used a single-case design for the study at the University of Arizona. Single cases may be used to confirm or challenge a theory, or to represent a unique or extreme case (Yin, 1994). Single-case studies are also ideal for revelatory cases where an observer may have access to a phenomenon that was previously inaccessible. These studies can be holistic or embedded the latter occurring when the same case study involves more than one unit of analysis. Multiple-case studies follow replication logic. This is not to be confused with sampling logic, where a selection is made out of a population, for inclusion in the study. This type of sample selection is improper in a case study. Each individual case study consists of a "whole" study, in which facts are gathered from various sources and conclusions drawn on those facts.

As in all research, consideration must be given to construct validity, internal validity, external validity, and reliability (Yin, 1989). Levy (1988) established construct validity using the single-case exploratory design, and internal validity using the single-case explanatory design. Yin (1994) suggested using multiple sources of evidence as the way to ensure construct validity. The current study used multiple sources of evidence; survey instruments, interviews, and documents. The specification of the unit of analysis also provides the internal validity as the theories are developed and data collection and analysis test those theories. External validity is more difficult to attain in a single-case study. Yin (1994) provided the assertion that external validity could be achieved from theoretical relationships and from these generalizations could be made. It is the development of a formal case study protocol that provides the reliability that is required of all research.

The design of this case study closely follows that of the Levy study. The methodology selected by Levy (1988) was based on the seminal work by Yin (1984) and confirmed by Feagin, Orum, and Sjoberg (1991). That single-case study methodology was used in the current study and is described below. Danziger (1985) has established the "context of use" as a mitigating factor in the study of computing in organizations. The "pattern matching" (Yin, 1984) of acquisition and use established in other environments may be shown to be applicable in higher education. Yin (1994) listed six sources of evidence for data collection in the case study protocol: documentation, archival records, interviews, direct observation, participant observation, and physical artifacts. Not all need be used in every case study (Yin, 1994). In this study, the last three types of sources are not relevant, since they are related to direct sociological investigation, and are not used.

3.6 Research Method

Research method is concrete techniques or procedures consisting of certain activities to be engaged in so as to gather and analyze data. This wide range of activities is my research methods. Given the goal of research process, it is important that I describe these methods as specific as possible. To this end, I will not just talk about 'carrying out interviews' but will

indicate in very detailed fashion want kind of interviews they are, what interviewing techniques are employed, and what sort of setting interviews are conducted.

3.6.1 Interview

The interview is a long-establish selection tool, yet still there is much debate as to its reliability, validity, and susceptibility to bias and distortion (Paradopoulou[14] et al, 1996). In the simplest definition, Bell (1999) indicates that "an interview is a conversation between the interviewer and respondent with the purpose of eliciting certain information from the respondent".

Rynes (1991) and Gilliland (1995) have demonstrated that two key aspects of the interview are important for interviewees' reactions: the interpersonal conduct of the interview and the information supply. According to Schmitt and Coyle (1976), a combination of (a) the interviewer's empathetic behavior, preparation, and ability to supply information was predictive of the participant's perception of his/her performance and degree of favorability towards and (b) the interviewer's pleasantness.

The research method for an interview has the same main types as observation, namely structured and unstructured; open and closed questions.

Robson (2002, p. 270) mentions three types of interviews:

- Fully structured interview (predetermined questions);
- Semi-structured interview (predetermined questions, but questions can be changed);
- Unstructured interview (the interviewer lets the conversation develop within the area of interest).

"Unstructured interviews centred round a topic may produce a wealth of valuable data, but such interviews require a great deal of expertise to control and a great deal of time to

[14] Paradopoulou. Androniki: The graduate management trainee pre-selection interview Candidates' perceptions of the influence of interpersonal and communication factors on the interview outcomes, http://proquest.umi.com/pqdweb?did=1163601167&sid=8&Fmt=3&clientId=45145&RQT=309&VName=PQD

analyse"(Bell, 1999, p. 138). Semi-structured and unstructured interviews are used in qualitative designs. In my research I used semi-structures interviews; the questions and answers are not set in advance, but the subjects are. I conducted semi-structured interviews with a number of parents of children with disabilities.

During an interview there is always the danger of bias creeping in, as interviewers are human beings and their manners may have an affect on the respondents. Interviewing is not easy; it is difficult to strike a balance between complete objectivity and trying to put the interviewee at ease. Any evaluation of the interview is complicated by the fact that it is a complex social event characterized by a dynamic relationship between interviewer and interviewee. Their perceptions of each other, and of their role in the interview, can affect either or both the interview process and outcomes (Paradopoulou et al, 1996).

3.6.2 Interviewing parents

It appeared that an interview would be the best way of obtaining the information from the parents. Questionnaire is an alternative way for obtaining the wanted information, but because I wanted to have an opportunity for asking further questions, interviewing seems the best way of getting such information. In addition, I needed to obtain highly informative information.

Obviously, I used the sequence as described by Robson (2002): introduction, main body of interview and closure (p.277). I used a semi-structured interview and followed the advice of Robson (2002, p.275): 'Question to avoid in interview' and Louis[15] et al (2000, p.248-249): 'Avoiding pitfalls in questioning', such as long questions, double-barrelled questions and irritating questions. After each statement I have given the interviewees the opportunity to explain their answer by means of an open question. All interviews lasted for about 15-20 minutes, and I tape recorded the interviews with permission from the parents.

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[15] Louis Cohen, Lawrence Manion, and Keith Morrison: Research methods in Education (2000)

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3.6.3 Questionnaire

Questionnaire is a systematic way of gathering data from a potentially large number of respondents. It is widely used and useful instrument for collecting survey information, providing structured, often numerical data, being able to be administered without the presence of the researcher, and often being comparatively straightforward to analyze (Wilson and McLean, 1994[16]) in Cohen (2000, p 245). Often they are the only feasible way to reach a number of reviewers large enough to allow statistically analysis of the results. According to Galloway[17] (1997), a well-designed questionnaire that is used effectively can gather information on both the overall performance of the test system as well as information on specific components of the system.

Questions may be designed to gather either qualitative or quantitative data. By their very nature, quantitative questions are more exact then qualitative. For example, the word "easy" and "difficult" can mean radically different things to different people (Galloway, 1997). Any question must be carefully crafted, but in particular questions that assess a qualitative measure must be phrased to avoid ambiguity. Qualitative questions may also require more thought on the part of the participant and may cause them to become bored with the questionnaire sooner. In general, I can say that questionnaires can measure both qualitative and quantitative data well, but that qualitative questions require more care in design, administration, and interpretation.

3.6.4 Structure of questionnaire

Parent questionnaire was used to obtain data on parent's age, school setting children attending before lower secondary school (special school or mainstream school), parental involvement, parental preference of the school setting for their children, and parental satisfaction with

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[16] Wilson, N. and McLean, S. (1994) Questionnaire Design: A Practical Introduction. Newtown Abbey, Co. Antrim: University of Ulster Press.
[17] Galloway, Alison: Questionnaire Design and Analysis. URL: http://www.tardis.ed.ac.uk/~kate/qmcweb/q1.htm, 2nd July, 2006

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school, Individual Education Plan, Teaching methods and the forth (see appendix A). The questionnaire was developed in supervision with my supervisor for use in this study.

Basically, it contained four sections: demographic information, parental involvement, parental empowerment and parental satisfaction. In section I, demographic information, consisted of 4 questions pertaining to the parent's age, type of school their children attending before, notification of parents on their child's development and areas of development. Section II, parental involvement contained 2 questions related to Individual Education Plan process and parental organization within the school. In section III, parental empowerment, comprised of three questions regarding to dissemination of school information to parents, type of information they have received from school and invitation for school visit. It was noticed that more questions related to this section, I used for the interview. The fourth section, parental satisfaction comprised of 5 questions regarding to the satisfaction of learning outcomes, benefit of IEP for their children, school environment, classroom arrangement, learning materials and teaching methods. Furthermore, some of questions in the questionnaire are not in this grouping, namely parental expectation of what their children would acquire after leaving the school, contribution of parents in IEP process, and parental preference of the school setting for their children.

4.   Analysis

Key issues emerging from the data collected through parental interviews are set in section 4.1, and implications of this information are analyzed in more detail in section 4.4.

4.1   Key issues identified from parental survey data

- 66% of parents are involved in IEP process
- 7 out of 8 parents involved in IEP are satisfied with IEP and one of them has shown strong satisfaction with IEP for his son.
- Nearly 40% of parents agreed that their children have developed in the mainstream classroom, and the other 15 % have shown strong agreement on the child's development in mainstream school settings, whereas nearly 8% and 15% of parents have disagreed and strongly disagreed respectively.
- Overall, most of parents are satisfied with school environment, but the level of satisfaction with classroom arrangement and learning materials is slightly low.

These are the quantitatively preliminary information and data I have found from the survey. In section 4.4, I will analyze qualitatively and quantitatively.

4.2   Aim of research

Overall aim of this research is to explore the related responses to the main research question as bellow:

- To what extent are parents satisfied with what their children acquired from mainstream schools?

In addition, I wanted to know the factors that influence the level of satisfaction, thus I raised another sub-question which I want to explore:

- What are the factors that contribute to parental satisfaction?

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4.3   Research design

The research took place in the Czech mainstream lower secondary schools, where the parents of children studying in these schools are invited to the interview. The research lasted about one month, June, 2006. The research schedule can be found in appendix B.

4.4   Findings of survey data

A total of 13 of parent questionnaires were returned, equal to 55% of total distributed questionnaires at the beginning. All of them were considered as usable for doing analysis combined with the responses of interview. Of total respondents, the most major percentage was female, equal to a total of 77%.

Based on one of the responses from the questionnaire, parents had a high expectation for their children from the mainstream school setting. Most of parents expected that their children have acquired social, emotional and cognitive skills. It was true that these skills have been developed in the mainstream school. Remarkably, figure 1 shows that children have improved 53.85% and 61.54% of social and emotional skills respectively. These percentages are comparatively low due to some children have swapped to special school. Surprisingly, when parents were asked question about the expectation, they have given top priority of having the student obtain a job, thus enabling him or her to live independently if possible.

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Area of development of children when attending current mainstream school
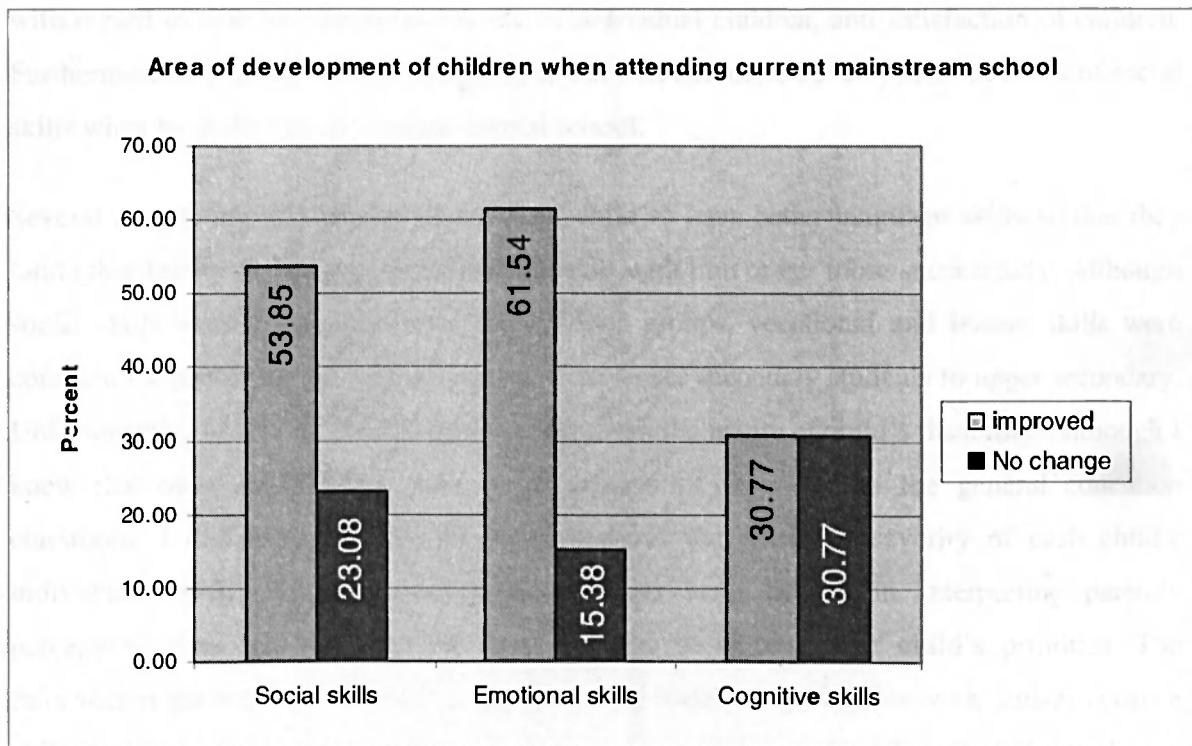
Figure 1: Skills development of children when attending current mainstream school

Many of these parents clearly were concerned about their children's future and what would happen to them once they were gone. Like all parents, they wanted their offspring to live up to their full potential and lead meaningful lives. One parent summed it up this way: "I would like for my son to become a part of the community and get a job".

A number of parents (67%) commented that they preferred their children to remain in the mainstream schools. They stated that they wanted their child to play with classmates, have friends, and be invited to birthday parties and similar social functions. They expected their child to have a possibility to get involved in the society. While this number of parents expressed their high preference for their children to be in the mainstream schools, there were a small number of parents who had an opposite idea with the school settings. They stated that they preferred their children to study in the special schools because of small class size, more accessible for individual child, better instructional tools, better individual education program

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with regard to diverse educational needs of individual children, and satisfaction of children. Furthermore one mother acknowledged that her son had more development in terms of social skills when he shifted to the current special school.

Several parents expressed a desire for their child to have better language skills so that they (and other family members) could communicate with him or her more successfully. Although social skills were a prevalent need for all four groups, vocational and leisure skills were common for particular age groups starting from lower secondary students to upper secondary. Unfortunately, I received limited information about the nature of child's disability. Although I knew that most of children spent some portion of their day in the general education classroom, I did not have any information about the extent or severity of each child's individual needs. This information would have been helpful in interpreting parent's perceptions that schools were not doing enough to address their child's priorities. The information gathered is particularly important for families of children with autism because children with autism have greater needs than do most children with other disabilities, placing more importance on home-school collaboration. Perhaps the most daunting outcome was parents' perceptions of whether school personnel were currently addressing their child's most pressing needs. Nearly half of those interviewed (44%) believed that schools were doing little or nothing in this area. There was a report that the school's efforts were minimal or nonexistent. These perceptions were reflected in comments such as "The teachers think that my child should sit around and vegetate all day," "My child needs to have more opportunities to interact with non-disabled children," and "The staff need to be educated on autism and how to teach these children." Numerous parents were surprised by my inquiry into their priorities.

4.5   Parent's satisfaction with inclusive education

The general impression from the survey data is that the majority of parents are satisfied with mainstream school setting. The degree of satisfaction is varied from one area to another. The areas of greatest satisfaction for all participants were learning outcomes, school environment, and individual education plan and teaching methods. The strength of satisfaction is remarkably related to some of underpinned factors, namely parental involvement,

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empowerment, school communication, school environment, classroom arrangement and learning materials.

4.5.1 Parental involvement

As I said earlier, the satisfaction of parents with education provided to their children was related to involvement of parents with school activities. Figure 1 is an example of the level of satisfaction with IEP. Parental responses to the questions about satisfaction with IEP for their individual child, the majority of parents believed that they had high to moderate knowledge of their child's IEP document. I also asked about parents' role or involvement in the IEP process, such as developing the document, participating in meetings, and contributing to planning and problem solving. Some parents have contributed to the IEP process such as preparing homework and tasks (grammar exercise, special counting programs drawing and painting), and memory exercise (by drawing visually and by listening). The majority of parents believed that they were adequately informed and involved in this process. A small number of parents noted that their level of knowledge and involvement had increased as their child grew older. A small number of individuals stated that they were unable to contribute to the development of the IEP because this document had been written prior to the meeting. Another parent stated that she was the only one at a recent IEP meeting who did not have a personal copy of the document. Two parents claimed that school personnel were not making a serious effort to address the goals in the IEP document. When they were asked about the level of involvement, more than half (54%) of the parents reported moderate levels of involvement, whereas 33% and 11% indicated high and low involvement, respectively. Finally, 66.67% of parents reported moderate levels of satisfaction with the IEP process, and a comparable percentage (11.11%) expressed high satisfaction, and (11.11%) dissatisfaction with this process. Despite these comments, a large proportion of families reported that they were highly to moderately satisfied with how the IEP was handled.

Furthermore, parents have shown strong satisfaction with school when they were invited to participate in school activities for their child's education. Nearly half of them (42%) were well-informed and had strong communication with the school. When I asked the question

regarding to the involvement, it seemed to me that the frequency of involvement was related to individual issues. Considering the personal issues, some parents have not had chance to get involved due to the time limitation and personal business. Nevertheless, they were able to participate in school activities at least one or twice a year.

Level of satisfaction with IEP
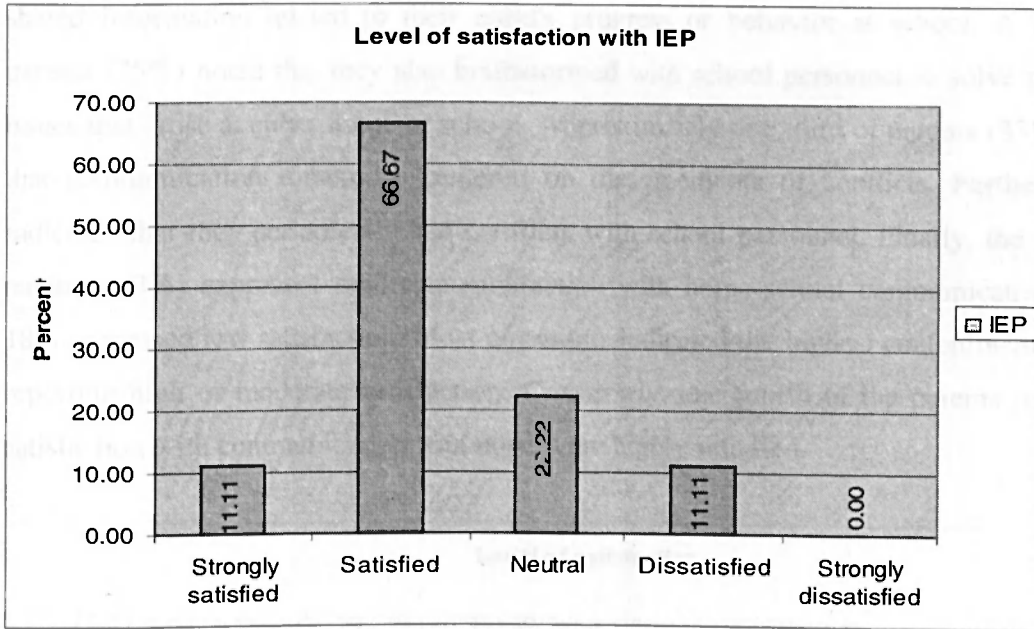
Figure 2: Satisfaction with IEP

The relation of individual parent perceptions of School Climate (the parents are made to feel welcome, office staff are helpful and courteous to the parents, and teachers and principal are interested and cooperative when discussing the parent's child) and the parent's involvement was less negative (or more positive) among schools in which parents saw the school as having a more positive social climate. Similarly, the relation of individual parent perceptions of empowerment (the school tells parents about school events and meetings, ways the parents can help out in the school, and the school schedule events so that parent can attend) and the parent's involvement was more positive among schools in which parents saw the school as empowering them. Finally, the relation of individual parent's perceptions of Student Recognition to the individual parent's involvement was more positive among schools in which parents reported more Student Recognition.

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4.5.2 Satisfaction with school communication

A small number of parents indicated that they interacted with school personnel on a daily basis, 27% weekly, and 33% reported that communication occurred once or twice a semester. When asked about the nature of content of communication, 91% of parents reported that they shared information related to their child's progress or behavior at school. A majority of parents (75%) noted that they also brainstormed with school personnel to solve problems or issues that arose at either home or school. Approximately one third of parents (33%) reported that communication sometimes centered on disagreements or conflicts. Furthermore they indicated that they periodically had conflicts with school personnel. Finally, the majority of parents (83%) expressed moderate satisfaction with home-school communication, whereas 18% expressed low satisfaction. Most of parents indicated the highest contentment, with 66% reporting high or moderate satisfaction. Conversely, one fourth of the parents reported low satisfaction with communication, and none were highly satisfied.
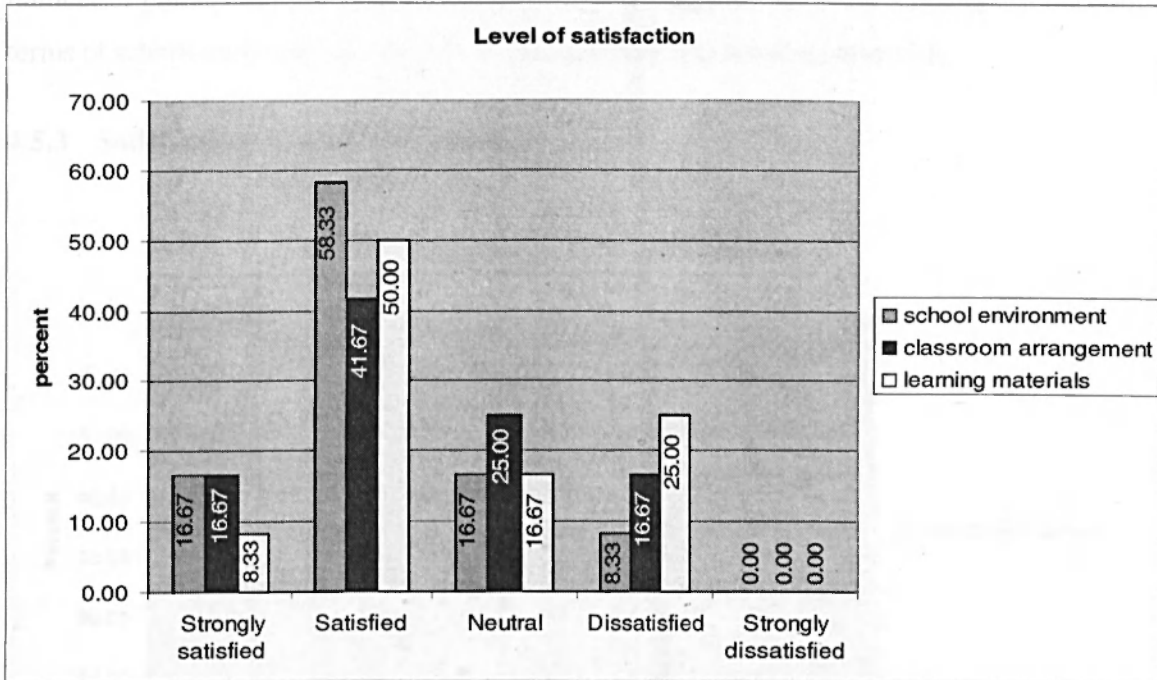
Figure 3: Strength of satisfaction with school environment, classroom arrangement and learning materials

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Figure 3 shows the satisfaction with mainstream schools in terms of school environment, classroom management and learning materials when parents were invited. Of total questionnaire respondents, nearly half of them were satisfied with classroom arrangement, whereas 53.33% and 50% indicated satisfaction with school environment and learning materials respectively. Seeing some questionnaires were ticked neutral in this area, I asked for permission for further explanation from those who responded these questionnaires. They admitted that they did this because they did not have much time to visit school. One mother said that she has visited school once a year especially at the end of school year, thus she could not make a judgment of learning materials and classroom arrangement. According to the figure 3, there were small percentages of dissatisfaction pertaining to school environment, classroom arrangement and learning materials. The respondents of these areas had a negative attitude towards current mainstream school setting. Overall, they preferred their children to study in the special school to mainstream school due to small class size; therefore the teacher was able to help individual children. Notwithstanding negative attitude, there were a small number of parents who indicated that they were strongly satisfied with mainstream school in terms of school environment, classroom arrangement and learning materials.

4.5.3 Satisfaction with teaching methods

Level of satisfaction with teaching methods

Yin Ra   *Parental satisfaction with Inclusive Education*
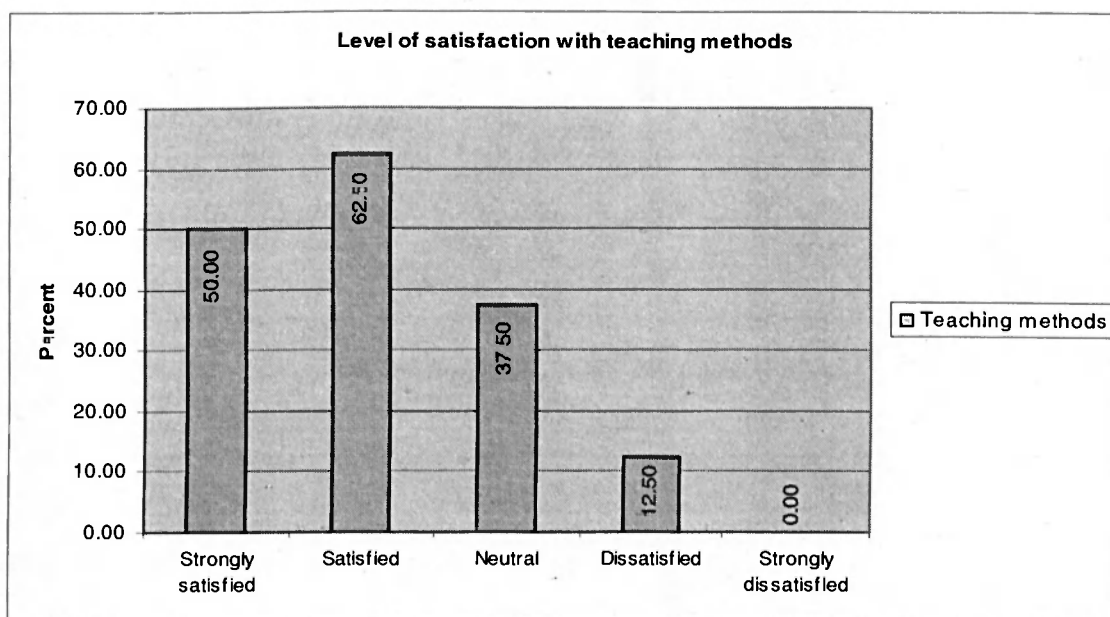
Figure 4: Level of satisfaction with teaching methods

A significant number of parents commented that they were satisfied with the teaching methods teachers used in the classroom. They added that because of the teachers in the school, where their children have studied, were trained how to deal with children with special education needs, their children have changed remarkably, especially in the areas of cognitive skills. Surprisingly, 50% of parents (figure 4) indicated strong satisfaction with teaching methods. I noticed that these parents were the current members of parental organization within the school. They were fully involved in school activities and strong communication with school personnel, especially with teachers.

In summary, this study has found a remarkable picture pertaining to parental satisfaction with inclusive education. It has also unearthed the correlated factors that determine the levels of parental satisfaction. The perception of parent towards inclusive education and the critical factors contributing to parental satisfaction will be discussing more detail in chapter 5.

5.   Evaluation

This discussion will focus on two topics: the parental satisfaction with inclusive education and the factors determining the level or degree of satisfaction.

The first area for discussion is the parental satisfaction with inclusive education. The general impression from the survey data is that the majority of parents are satisfied with mainstream school setting. The degree of satisfaction is varied from one area to another. The areas of greatest satisfaction for all participants were learning outcomes, school environment, and individual education plan and teaching methods. In spite of a large number of parents satisfied with mainstream school, there were a number of parents were dissatisfied (15%).

5.1   Possible reasons of parental dissatisfaction

There are a number of possible explanations as to why these parents are generally dissatisfied with mainstream school. Firstly, this may be merely a reflection of parents of children with autism. They may feel that their children do not receive enough Autism services in the mainstream school. Children with autism experience more deficits in the area of social skills than other children, making educational plan more difficult. At least two recent studies have been undertaken to examine the parental satisfaction of children with autism or pervasive developmental disorders (PDD) in the mainstream school. The most recent study surveyed parents of children with autism or PDD who entered the mainstream school following the intensive behavioral treatment in a private center-based program (Dipietro, et al, 2002). The researcher reported that parents were uniformly satisfied with the services their children were receiving in the mainstream schools. The second study surveyed parents of students with pervasive development disorders pertaining to their perceptions of, and satisfaction with educational services, (Starr, Foy, and Cramer, 2001). Overall, parents of nonverbal children, parents of younger children, and parents of children with PDD rated classroom environment and education team variables highly. However, parents described themselves as generally satisfied with services. Based upon these studies, it would appear that the presence of autism, alone, does not explain lower parental satisfaction levels.

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Another alternative explanation is that, parents of this group may have children with high level of disability (severe or multiple disabilities). They may compare the possibility of school settings for their children or even have a willing to change school for their children from mainstream school to special school. Therefore, they rated their satisfaction with mainstream school very low or even dissatisfied. Of course, the students in special schools receive much more care and attention which are the great advantage for their learning and development. The advantages of segregated classrooms, that is, specialized training of special education needs teachers, more individualized attention, less pressure to keep up with typical students. Bauer (1994) suggests that:

> Clearly these young people (special needs students) will be receiving treatment from a specialist, in an environment which is conducive to a small specialist-client relationship. Out of such a relationship one is much more likely to acquire a sense of ownership and significance than by being integrated into classrooms in which one has far fewer opportunities to have one's needs attended to. Where, in reality, one is likely to feel the psychological impact of not being able to handle the demands in the classroom with the same measure of ease as the regular students. (pp. 22-23)

5.2 Factors contribute to the level of parental satisfaction

The final explanation is some underpinned factors such as school climate, parent-school communication, empowerment and parental involvement.

5.2.1 School communication

The second discussion is about the factors determining the level or degree of satisfaction. In this stage of discussion, I will divide the factors into two sub-discussions. First, I will discuss the school climate, school communication and school empowerment and parental involvement. In the analysis I did not show any concrete clarification of school climate empowerment because I did not examine these variables directly. In the literature review, I found that school climate and empowerment were the significant coefficient of parental

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involvement and satisfaction. However, I will discuss these variables in the parent-communication and parental involvement.

First sub-discussion is about the school communication. Among the total interviewees and questionnaire respondents, a small number of parents indicated that they interacted with school personnel on a daily basis, 27% weekly, and 33% reported that communication occurred once or twice a semester. A very positive finding was that parents and school personnel were more likely to communicate regarding to a child's progress than about a child's problem.

There was a positive correlation between school communication and parental satisfaction. This may suggest three things. First, parents felt comfort with school characteristics (school climate). When parents were welcoming for participating in school activities for their children, they may have contributed more to their child's education, and helped school to improve their services. This involvement may increase student's attainment, and degree of parental satisfaction. This finding is similar to that of Griffith (1996), who found that parent-school communication and school climate showed the strongest direct effects on parental satisfaction. Second is the school empowerment. This is related to the perception of parents towards school organization. Parents perceived that the school accommodated parents' participation in the school's activities and governance by, for example, arranging school activities so that parents could attend and informing parents about special school meetings and how to assist in the school's day-to-day operations. The third is the parental involvement that I will discuss in the second sub-discussion.

Some researches been speculated that good communication between the school and parents and increased empowerment of parents should lead to increased parent participation or involvement in school activities and satisfaction with schools (Griffith, 1998). According to Goldring and Shapira (1993, p. 398), "the frequency of parental involvement and level of empowerment will influence the parents' level of satisfaction with their school." In their study, parental involvement showed the strongest relation with parental satisfaction. Parents' empowerment followed in strength of association with parental satisfaction. Satisfaction

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among more educated parents was most related to involvement and empowerment. Satisfaction among less educated parents was only related to involvement.

Much of the literature on parental involvement has emphasized the importance of the school's social environment as an influence (Lightfoot, 1981). Indeed, gaps in perceptions about expectations for involvement between parents and school staff often explain parent's noninvolvement. Comer (1991, p. 184) noted that school staff interpreted parents' lower participation in school activities as showing little concern about their children's education. Parents, in contrast, often perceived school staff as "distant, rejecting, and sometimes even hostile towards them and their children" (Comer, 1991, p. 184). The literature suggests that parent's involvement can be successful when school teachers and administrators initiate or at least welcome it. Parental involvement is highest when teachers have positive attitudes toward parents and openly communicate and work collaboratively with parents, and this effect is strongest among working-class and minority parents (Lareau, 1987; Power & Bartholomew, 1987). Results of the study reported here suggest that when the school staff provide opportunities for parental involvement (by arranging activities and informing parents of ways to become involved, i.e., by empowering parents) in an atmosphere in which parents feel welcomed and the school staff are cooperative and concerned about parents (i.e., positive school climate), then parents become involved. Noteworthy is that parents' perceptions of not being informed about their children's education appeared to be sufficient for parents to become involved (Eccles & Harold, 1993). Also, in the present study, the relation of individual parent perceptions of the school and individual parent involvement was significantly different, depending on the perceptions of all parents regarding the school's social environment, specifically, other parents' perceptions of the school's climate, empowering parents, and providing student recognition.

5.2.2 Parental involvement

Second sub-discussion is the parental involvement. As stated in Chapter 2, involvement of parents in the school activities promote better student's attendance, increased graduation rate, and higher parental and student satisfaction with the school. There are a few studies related to

this correlation between parental involvement and student's performance. Reynolds (1992) has conducted a study over 2 years by collecting data from parents, teachers and students regarding to perceptions of parental involvement. He also gathered data on reading and mathematics test performance. The measure of parental involvement was a 21-item scale that assessed the frequency of parent behaviors at school (e.g., participate in school activities) and at home (e.g., read to the child, help child to do homework...). Parental involvement and the achievement tests had low to moderate positive correlations. Teacher perceptions of parental involvement had the highest correlations with student achievement, whereas parent and student perceptions had the lowest correlations with student achievement. Regardless of the source, perceptions of parental involvement significantly predicted student achievement in both years. The findings of the present study support the contention that parental involvement is an important element in student academic performance. Parental involvement was consistently correlated with student test performance (Griffith, 1996). In contrast, several researchers have shown little or no relation between parental involvement and student academic performance. In their review of over 350 studies of school attempts to involve parents, Dwyer and Hecht (1992) found very low levels of parental involvement in school programs. They suggested that parental involvement and student school performance may be inversely related or unrelated. They have speculated that low involvement may have been the result of parents who perceived their involvement as unnecessary if their child was doing well, or parents who viewed the school as primarily responsible for their child's education.

Another reason for less involvement among socio-economically disadvantaged parents is the greater demands on their time. Disadvantaged households are more likely to have two parents who work full-time, parents who have two or more jobs, and parents who have less desirous jobs often necessitating working unpredictable work schedules and working during the evenings and nights when their children and the school most need their help (Eccles & Harold, 1993). Educational researchers have offered another explanation of lower involvement among the socio-economically disadvantaged. They have argued that traditional schools embody social and cultural values and practices of middle to upper socioeconomic classes as well as the dominant white culture (Boykin, 1986, 1994; Lareau, 1987; Neisser et al., 1996). As a result, schools do not value all social and cultural resources equally, in

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particular, those of the lower social class and non-dominant cultures. Lareau (1987) posited that their greater familiarity with particular linguistic structures, authority patterns, and curricula found in schools allowed children and parents from higher social classes and from the dominant culture to have more active relationships with schools (see also Bourdieu, 1977). Thus, involvement among low-income parents is limited either through lack of resources (not enough time or money to participate) or through perceived inability to participate because their socio-cultural values and practices often conflict with those of the school. In addition, schools' reluctance to involve socio-economically disadvantaged parents has often stemmed from teachers' perceptions that these parents hinder rather than help educate their children (Dauber & Epstein, 1989; Dembo & Gibson, 1985). Teachers tend to doubt the skills, abilities, and interest of less-educated and socio-economically disadvantaged parents and, consequently, frequently do not involve them in the school (Epstein, 1991). Instead, teachers tend to favor parents who are already involved. Thus, teachers are unable to test their assumptions about socio-economically disadvantaged parents and parents who are not from the dominant culture. School staff's attitudes and practices may lead socio-economically disadvantaged parents to develop beliefs that they lack the abilities to help their children or that the school does not expect their involvement in their children's education (Eccles & Harold, 1993).

In the analysis, I found that the level of learning outcomes of children whose parents involved in the IEP process were somewhat satisfied or even highly satisfied. Therefore I agree with the research findings of Reynolds and Griffith.

Overall, the information on parental involvement suggests several actions for the school personnel. First, school psychologists, teachers, administrators and other school personnel should continue their efforts to involve parents in their children's education, as it has been linked to improved student's achievement (Henderson, 1981), as well as improve self-esteem, behavior, and attendance (Sattes, 1985). Second, school personnel may need to make additional efforts to involve parents of lower functioning children with disabilities.

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The implication for improving parent involvement is that schools should have a well-established and available "template" parents can use to organize, to communicate among one another and with the school. Parents and staff in high-turnover schools should develop expectations that extra time and effort will be needed to communicate, to organize, and to develop procedures, especially at the start of each school year, in order to form productive parent-school relationships. Finally, low parent involvement among schools having high turnover may be an artifact of the life circumstances of those families who typically move.

A second implication for improving parent involvement is that school activities and events may need to be rescheduled and restructured. School activities should accommodate the schedules of less involved parents, for example, meetings should be held when their children are in school or when the parents are not working. Moreover, schools should try to meet the unique needs of less involved parents, for example, by providing transportation to and from the meetings and by providing child care. A third implication for improving involvement among socio-economically disadvantaged parents and parents from the non-dominant culture is that the school should incorporate their socio-cultural values and practices into school activities and events. School personnel need to be trained to view these parents as resources rather than obstacles to the educational process (Epstein, 1991). These parents' resources need to be investigated and articulated more clearly by researchers. For example, noninvolvement in school activities and governance among socio-economically disadvantaged parents cannot always be construed as lack of interest. Furstenberg (1992) reported that families living in high-risk, low-resource neighborhoods employed in-home strategies to help educate and promote the development of their children. Parents chose these strategies over community strategies so that they could protect their children from the dangers of the neighborhood (Furstenberg, 1992).

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6 Conclusion

In this final chapter I will look back on the aim of this study, anticipated outcomes, success of my investigation and how it was successful. Afterwards, I will describe the contribution and limitation of this study, and make recommendation for future research.

6.1 Aim of this research

Overall, I choose this topic targeting to measure the level of satisfaction of parents with education provided to their children by the mainstream schools. I also explore the factors that may contribute to such satisfaction and its underlying factors.

6.2 Anticipated outcomes

By choosing this critical topic, it comes to my mind that the result of study might appear in some extent through my professional and academic experience. I anticipated that I could find the degree of satisfaction with mainstream schools indicated by parents of children with special education needs. I also expected to discover the underpinned factors within the school organization such as school climate, school empowerment, school communication, and special services, if any, provided to the children with various disabilities. Furthermore, the level of satisfaction could be influenced by the attitude of schools towards parents and vice versa.

6.3 Success of the study

This study made me clear that selected research methodologies fit well with educational research improvement and success. By conducting this research, the answers to my research questions have been found through the study of critical literature review, full participation from parents, and the collaboration school principals and the key persons who have been in the network of selected schools. This triangle combination (study of literature review, parents' participation and collaboration of the school) enable me to reach my research goal.

6.4 Implication of the findings

One of the most important findings in this literature is that parents' decisions about involvement are influenced by schools. Specifically, the research suggests that schools may take steps to enhance parents' active role construction and sense of efficacy for helping children learn; enact practices that support school; and adapt involvement requests and suggestions to the circumstances of parents' life contexts. Because motivators of involvement are influenced by elements of the social context, school actions (or inactions) influence parents' involvement whether or not schools intend to influence involvement (i.e., just as school action may enhance parents' involvement motivation, school inaction or negative action may diminish motivation for many parents).

Across the findings, here are the themes of empowerment for all participants in children's schooling and all concerned with respecting and enhancing parents' contributions to children's school success. With particular reference to my focus here on parents, there are thus strong suggestions that school attention to parents' personal motivations for involvement, contextual motivations for involvement can support personal motivation and positive influence on student outcomes. These broad empowerment goals for parents include learning that personal behavior is related to desired outcomes (e.g., my child's success is related to my behavior); personal action enables achievement of desired outcomes (e.g., my involvement helps my child succeed in school); personal decisions emerge from personal choice (e.g., I can make the decision to be effectively involved); and personal effectiveness is connected to personal relationships (e.g., I can learn about effective involvement from others; I can contribute to others' knowledge of effective involvement).

Overall, when schools take steps to motivate parental involvement, they support parents' effectiveness in helping their children learn. Similarly, when school systems attempt to promote teacher and principal contributions to effective parental involvement, they support schools' effectiveness in educating children. The public mandate for the effective education of all citizens would seem to require nothing less than strong school and community efforts to enable the many contributions that parents can make to their children's educational success. As the result, the parent may have positive perception with the school.

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6.5   The method

The fruitful results I gain from the research are because of critical methods I used. The methods I used supplied sufficient and rich information. As I mentioned in chapter 3, the wide range of activities I used for gathering and analyzing data was the selective method. First activity was questionnaire preparation and then I made an adjustment or change according to literature review and research questions. Second activity was distributing questionnaire and conducting the interview. Some interviews took place after the completion of questionnaire (I checked out the response of each item and asked if I doubted). The final activity was analyzing data and information from the questionnaire and interview.

I did not have any experience with analyzing documentary evidence or with interviewing. Although it was very time consuming, but it was an interesting job. I was happy to analyze the gathered data quantitatively and qualitatively.

6.6   Limitations

All the survey research has limitations. Surveys cannot probe more deeply into respondents' opinions and actions (Gallagher and Floyd, 1996). Based on this perception, my study also consists of a number of limitations.

First, the parents participated in this study appeared to be the representative of the population in a number of important areas including gender, but the participants supposed to participate in this survey should have comprised of paraprofessionals and teachers in order to compare the information about the frequency of communication, what can parents contribute to school as well as to helping them in the area of education.

Second limitation of this study is that the inquiry pertaining to special services provided to children with various disabilities should be including in the items of the questionnaire. This is also considered the vital factor I can measure the perception of parents towards school-based services. On the other hand, the questionnaire items pertaining to the empowerment and school climate should have been more detail.

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Another limitation of this study is that we did not address the perceptions of school personnel. A number of prior studies have found that parents and service providers hold different perceptions about collaborative relationships and the effectiveness of early intervention services (Dinnebeil, Hale, & Rule, 1996). It is highly likely that parents and school personnel hold different perspectives about the nature of their communication, parents' involvement in the IEP, and schools' efforts to address children's needs. Future studies should examine and compare the perceptions of both of these groups.

The final and perhaps the most correctable limitation of this study is the return rate questionnaire. It is remarkable low (55%) and far from what I expected. On the other hand, the response was smaller than hoped for and some of the responses were not correlated to the question aims.

6.7   Recommendation for further research

This study offers several advantages. First, correlates of parent involvement were examined together in the same study, permitting comparison of their relative strength in predicting parent participation in school activities. Second, several speculations were offered regarding the social-psychological processes between the antecedents of parent's involvement (e.g., parent socio-demographic background and school structural characteristics) and parent's involvement. Intervening processes presumed to explain parent noninvolvement included competing life demands of parents; barriers relating to the parents' cultural and socioeconomic background; school staff and parent perceptions of the irrelevancy of parents being involved in school activities; parents' feelings of not being needed and not belonging in larger schools; lower identification with the school and commitment to the school among parents in larger schools and schools having high student turnover; societal norms regarding lower parent involvement in the education of older children; and parent perceptions of the school's poor reception and treatment of parents.

What remains for future studies is to examine the validity of these speculations. To accomplish this, researchers need to collect more in-depth data on these social-psychological processes. Such data need to be related to known antecedents of parent involvement and to

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parents' participation in their children's education. An example of this approach is a study conducted by Corwin and Wagenaar (1976) in which data were obtained on organizational processes presumed to accompany larger-sized organizations, namely, the level of the school's formalization, centralization, solidarity of teacher organizations, and teacher training. Researchers, first, used traditional school structural characteristics (e.g., school enrollment) and, second, measures of school "bureaucratization" to predict the frequency of teacher-parent interactions and disputes. Surprisingly, schools with larger enrollments were associated with more teacher-parent contacts. However, smaller schools and schools having more poverty-level students reported fewer disputes between school staff and parents. In addition, organizational processes, often accompanying larger-sized organizations, were in the expected direction: frequency of teacher-parent contacts was negatively related to the school's formalization, centralization, and active teacher organizations, whereas the number of disputes was positively related to these three organizational processes. Researchers need to gather data relating to the social-psychological processes offered to explain parent involvement and noninvolvement.

Another recommendation is that the future research needs to incorporate more intricate measures of intervening processes in the parental involvement-student academic performance linkage. Special attention should be given to specific parental involvement strategies that foster certain kinds of parental involvement. Comer and Haynes (1991), for example, have offered a parent-school fit model for involvement. They described three levels of parental involvement that differ in tasks and responsibilities, thereby offering parents a choice of the level of inclusion they desire. School staff might attempt to match the appropriate level of involvement with the parent's motivation to be included in school activities. Similarly, Christenson et al. (1992) outlined five types of parental involvement and offered ways for school staff to enhance each type. They proposed that school-home communications can be improved through frequent and understood communication media.

To increase parent attendance at school activities, schools might coordinate with the parent-teacher associations to provide transportation and daycare services during school events. School staff and parent volunteers might conduct follow-up of parents to determine reasons

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for nonattendance. Future researchers might also examine individual level changes in parent attitudes toward the education process. These changes can then be related to parent behaviors at home, in the classroom, and at parent group meetings. Parent changes in attitude and behavior might also be related to student attitudes toward school and student readiness and motivation to learn. Changes in parental involvement might also be linked to classroom teaching style, content, and method as an additional means to determine effective instructional programs.

The final recommendation for future research is related to participants supposed to be engaged in the study. Actually, the most important targets are parents regarding to the selected topic, but paraprofessionals have to be enlisted in the study targets. These targets could enrich with desired data and information related to their responsibilities in the special services within the school. They also can provide information related to the perception of parents on the services within the school.

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APPENDICES

Appendix A: Survey questionnaire

Survey of parental satisfaction with inclusive education

Průzkum spokojenosti rodičů s inkluzivním vzděláváním

Male/ Female ....

Muž/ žena:

Age ....

Věk:

Please answer the following questions. Place a (√) against the answer chosen and write where there is a blank.

Prosím, odpovězte na následující otázky. Zaškrtněte √odpověď, se kterou souhlasíte nebo napište odpověď sami tam, kde je volné místo.

1. What kind of school did your children attend before?

Jakou školu Vaše dítě původně navštěvovalo?

Special school ☐

Speciální škola

Mainstream school ☐

Běžná škola

2. Have you noticed that your child has improved when attending the current mainstream school?

Všimli jste si, že by se Vaše dítě během studia na běžné škole zlepšilo?

Yes ☐   No ☐

Ano   *Ne*

3. In what areas of development have you noticed the change?

V jaké oblasti jste zaznamenali změny?

	Improved Zlepšení	No change Bez změny	I do not know Nevím
Social skills			

Oblast sociální			
Emotional skills *Oblast emoční*			
Cognitive skills *Oblast kognitivní*			

4. Do you agree that your child has developed these skills in an inclusive classroom?

Souhlasíte s tím, že ke zlepšení došlo vlivem inkluzivního prostředí (vlivem integrace)?

- Strongly agree

Rozhodně souhlasím

- Agree

Souhlasím

- Neutral

Neutrální odpověď

- Disagree

Nesouhlasím

- Strongly disagree

Rozhodně nesouhlasím

5. How does the school convey the information about your child to you?

Jakým způsobem Vás škola informuje o Vašem dítěti?

Student record book

Žákovská knížka, notýsek atd.

Telephone

Telefonicky

Face-to-face conversation

Pohovorem s učitelem

6. What is the information mainly about?

O jaké informace se převážně jedná?

Student learning outcomes

studijní výsledky Vašeho dítěte

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Your child's performance ☐

projevy Vašeho dítěte

Your child's problems ☐

problémy Vašeho dítěte

7.   If it is about your child's learning outcome, are you satisfied with your child's performance at school?

Pokud Vás informují hlavně o tom, jak se Vaše dítě učí, jste s jeho /jejími/ výkony spokojen/a/?

Yes ☐

Ano

No ☐

Ne

8.   What do you expect your child to acquire when leaving the school?

Co očekáváte, že bude Vaše dítě umět v době ukončení školní docházky?

a.   Social skill:

Oblast sociální

be able to communicate ☐   be able to negotiate ☐   other ☐   (specify)

umět komunikovat   *umět jednat*   *jiné*   */upřesněte/*

....

b.   Emotional skill:

Oblast emoční

be patient ☐   be flexible ☐   other ☐   (specify)

trpělivost   *pružnost*   *jiné*   */upřesněte/*

....

c.   Cognitive skill:

Oblast kognitivní

be able to solve every day's problems ☐   other ☐   (specify)

umět řešit každodenní problémy   *jiné*   */upřesněte/*

....

9.   Do you participate in Individual Education Plan (IEP) process?

Je pro Vaše dítě vypracován individuální vzdělávací plán?

Yes ☐   No ☐

Ano   *Ne*

10.   If yes, how do you contribute to this process?

Pokud ano, jakým způsobem na něm participujete? (např. podíleli jste se na jeho tvorbě, atd.)

....

....

....

....

11.   Do you think IEP can enhance your child's development socially, emotionally and cognitively?

Myslíte si, že individuální vzdělávací plán může pomoci Vašemu dítěti ?

Yes ☐   No ☐

Ano   *Ne*

12.   Are you satisfied with IEP for your child?

Jste spokojen/a/ s individuálním vzdělávacím plánem Vašeho dítěte?

- Strongly satisfied ☐

Velmi spokojen/a/

- Satisfied ☐

Spokojen/a/

- Neutral ☐

Neutrální odpověď

- Dissatisfied ☐

Nespokojen/a/

- Strongly dissatisfied ☐

Velmi nespokojen/a/

13.   Are you a member of parents´ organization within the school?

Jste členem /členkou/ sdružení rodičů ve škole Vašeho dítěte?

Yes ☐   No ☐

Ano   *Ne*

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14. If you are, how often have you been invited to visit the school?

Pokud ano, jak často jste zváni do školy?

Twice a week ☐

Dvakrát týdně

Quarterly ☐

Jednou za čtvrtletí

Twice a year ☐

Dvakrát za rok

Once a year ☐

Jednou za rok

Others ☐ (specify) ....

Jiné /*upřesněte*/.......................................

15. Are you satisfied with the school environment, the way that classroom is arranged for your child's accessibility and materials that support your child's learning activities?

Jste spokojen/a/ s atmosférou ve škole, způsobem, jakým je přizpůsobena třída pro Vaše dítě a učebními pomůckami pro Vaše dítě?

	School environment *Atmosféra ve škole*	Classroom arrangement *Přizpůsobení tříd*	Learning material *Učební pomůcky*
Strongly satisfied *Velmi spokojen/a/*			
Satisfied *Spokojen/a/*			
Neutral *Neutrální odpověď*			
Dissatisfied *Nespokojen/a/*			
Strongly dissatisfied *Velmi nespokojen/a/*			

16. Is your child provided the chance to use his/her potential in the learning activities?

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Yin Ra   *Parental satisfaction with Inclusive Education*

Domníváte se, že má Vaše dítě možnost využít svůj potenciál v rámci výuky?

Yes ☐   No ☐

Ano   *Ne*

17.   If there is an assistant teacher, are you satisfied with the way that assistant teacher helps your child in learning activities?

Pokud je přítomen asistent učitele, jste spokojen/a/ s tím, jak pomáhá Vašemu dítěti v rámci výuky?

- Strongly satisfied ☐

Velmi spokojen/a/

- Satisfied ☐

Spokojen/a/

- Neutral ☐

Neutrální odpověď

- Dissatisfied ☐

Nespokojen/a/

- Strongly dissatisfied ☐

Velmi nespokojen/a/

18.   Do you think teaching methods that are used by the teacher help your child to learn in the inclusive environment?

Myslíte si, že styl vyučování učitele pomáhá Vašemu dítěti se učit v tomto inkluzivním prostředí?

Yes ☐   No ☐

Ano   *Ne*

19.   Are you satisfied with the teaching methods used by teacher?

Jste spokojen/a/ se způsobem výuky učitele /učitelky/?

- Strongly satisfied ☐

Velmi spokojen/a/

- Satisfied ☐

Spokojen/a/

- Neutral ☐

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Neutrální odpověď

- Dissatisfied ☐

Nespokojen/a/

- Strongly dissatisfied ☐

Velmi nespokojen/a/

20. Do you prefer your child to attend the mainstream school or special school?

Dáváte přednost tomu, aby Vaše dítě navštěvovalo běžnou či speciální školu?

Special school

Speciální škola

Reasons:

Důvody:

....

....

....

....

....

Mainstream school

Běžná škola

Reasons:

Důvody:

....

....

....

....

....

"Thank you very much for your time, patience and co-operation"

Mockát Vám děkuji za Váš čas, trpělivost a spolupráci.

Appendix B: Research schedule

Research schedule

This research took place in June 2006. The duration of each activities are specified in the table with expected outcomes

Time	Activities	Anticipated outcomes
1st to 8th of June	Questionnaire development	A form of questionnaire which was ready for distributing (including translation)
9th to 28th	- distributed questionnaire - Field visit for conducting the interview - Collected the questionnaire	Resourceful and considerable information and data for analysis

Appendix C: Authorized letter to conduct a research in the schools (in Czech)

UNIVERZITA KARLOVA V PRAZE
PEDAGOGICKÁ FAKULTA
oddělení pro zahraniční a vnější vztahy
M. D. Rettigové 4, 116 39 Praha 1
Česká republika
Tel.: 00420 221 900 237   Tel./Fax: 00420 224 947 782
nada.kvasnickova@pedf.cuni.cz
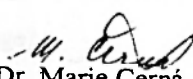
V Praze dne 25.5.2006

Vážená paní ředitelko,
Vážený pane řediteli,

dovoluji si Vás požádat o přijetí našeho studenta pana Ra Yin z Kambodže ve vaší škole či zařízení. Pan Ra Yin je zapsán do mezinárodního programu Erasmus/Mundus, který je hrazen z prostředků Evropské Unie a probíhá společně na třech univerzitách – Roehampton University London, Anglie, Fontys University Tilburg, Holandsko a na pražské Univerzitě Karlově. Pedagogická fakulta je přijímající organizací. Studijní program je zaměřen na oblast speciální pedagogiky – týká se vzdělávání jedinců se speciálními vzdělávacími potřebami a jejich integrace.

Jmenovaný připravuje závěrečnou práci, kterou bude koncem srpna t.r. na naší fakultě obhajovat. Návštěva vaší školy/vašeho zařízení, rozhovor s Vámi, příp. s vasimi učiteli, žáky či studenty je součástí sběru dat, které by byly v práci použity a zpracovány podle stejných pravidel, jimiž se řídí i čeští studenti.

Budete-li požadovat podrobnější informace, ráda Vám je poskytnu. Předem děkuji za Vaši vstřícnost a spolupráci.

Doc. PhDr. Marie Cerná, CSc.
prodědkanka pro zahraniční a vnější vztahy

UNIVERZITA KARLOVA V PRAZE
PEDAGOGICKÁ FAKULTA
odd. pro zahraniční styky
116 39 Praha 1, M.D. Rettigové 4
(1)

IČO: 00216208, DIČ : 001-00216208, Bank. spojení: Komerční banka, Spálená 51, č.účtu: 85236-011/0100

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Appendix D: Sample of completed questionnaire by parents

Survey of parental satisfaction with inclusive education
Průzkum spokojenosti rodičů s inkluzivním vzděláváním

Male/ Female .... *ŽENA* ....

Muž/ žena:

Age .... 51 ....

Věk:

Please answer the following questions. Place a (√) against the answer chosen and write where there is a blank.

Prosím, odpovězte na následující otázky. Zaškrtněte √ odpověď, se kterou souhlasíte nebo napište odpověď sami tam, kde je volné místo.

1. What kind of school did your children attend before?

Jakou školu Vaše dítě původně navštěvovalo?

Special school ☐

Speciální škola

Mainstream school ☒

Běžná škola

2. Have you noticed that your child has improved when attending the current mainstream school?

Všimli jste si, že by se Vaše dítě během studia na běžné škole zlepšilo?

Yes ☐   No ☐

Ano   *Ne*   *NAVŠTĚVUJE BĚŽNOU ŠKOLU*

3. In what areas of development have you noticed the change?

V jaké oblasti jste zaznamenali změny?

	Improved *Zlepšení*	No change *Bez změny*	I do not know *Nevím*
Social skills *Oblast sociální*	*ANO*		
Emotional skills *Oblast emoční*	*ANO*		

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Cognitive skills			
Oblast kognitivní	☒		

4. Do you agree that your child has developed these skills in an inclusive classroom?

Souhlasíte s tím, že ke zlepšení došlo vlivem inkluzivního prostředí (vlivem integrace)?

- Strongly agree ☐

Rozhodně souhlasím

- Agree ☒

Souhlasím

- Neutral ☐

Neutrální odpověď

- Disagree ☐

Nesouhlasím

- Strongly disagree ☐

Rozhodně nesouhlasím

5. How does the school convey the information about your child to you?

Jakým způsobem Vás škola informuje o Vašem dítěti?

Student record book ☒

Žákovská knížka, notýsek atd.

Telephone ☐

Telefonicky

Face-to-face conversation ☒

Pohovorem s učitelem

6. What is the information mainly about?

O jaké informace se převážně jedná?

Student learning outcomes ☒

studijní výsledky Vašeho dítěte

Your child's performance ☒

projevy Vašeho dítěte

Your child's problems ☒

problémy Vašeho dítěte

7. If it is about your child's learning outcome, are you satisfied with your child's performance at school?

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Pokud Vás informují hlavně o tom, jak se Vaše dítě učí, jste s jeho /jejími/ výkony spokojen/a/?

Yes ☒

Ano

No ☐

Ne

8. What do you expect your child to acquire when leaving the school?

Co očekáváte, že bude Vaše dítě umět v době ukončení školní docházky?

a. Social skill:

Oblast sociální

be able to communicate ☒ be able to negotiate ☒ other ☐ (specify)

umět komunikovat *umět jednat* *jiné* */upřesněte/*

....

b. Emotional skill:

Oblast emoční

be patient ☒ be flexible ☒ other ☐ (specify)

trpělivost *pružnost* *jiné* */upřesněte/*

....

c. Cognitive skill:

Oblast kognitivní

be able to solve every day's problems ☒ other ☐ (specify)

umět řešit každodenní problémy *jiné* */upřesněte/*

....

9. Do you participate in Individual Education Plan (IEP) process?

Je pro Vaše dítě vypracován individuální vzdělávací plán?

Yes ☒ No ☐

Ano *Ne*

10. If yes, how do you contribute to this process?

Pokud ano, jakým způsobem na něm participujete? (např. podíleli jste se na jeho tvorbě, atd.)

TŘIDNÍ UČITELKA VYPRACOVALA PLÁN, SOUHLASILA
JSEM S NÍM, TAKÉ ŘEKLA SVŮJ NAZOR
A DOMLUVILY JSME SE NA DOPLNĚNÍ PLÁNU

....

....

11. Do you think IEP can enhance your child's development socially, emotionally and cognitively?

Myslíte si, že individuální vzdělávací plán může pomoci Vašemu dítěti ?

Yes ☒   No ☐
Ano   *Ne*

12. Are you satisfied with IEP for your child?

Jste spokojen/a/ s individuálním vzdělávacím plánem Vašeho dítěte?

- · • Strongly satisfied ☐
  Velmi spokojen/a/
- • Satisfied ☒
  Spokojen/a/
- • Neutral ☐
  Neutrální odpověď
- • Dissatisfied ☐
  Nespokojen/a/
- • Strongly dissatisfied ☐
  Velmi nespokojen/a/

13. Are you a member of parents´ organization within the school?

Jste členem /členkou/ sdružení rodičů ve škole Vašeho dítěte?

Yes ☐   No ☒
Ano   *Ne*

14. If you are, how often have you been invited to visit the school?

Pokud ano, jak často jste zváni do školy?

Twice a week ☐
Dvakrát týdně

Quarterly ☒
Jednou za čtvrtletí

Twice a year ☐
Dvakrát za rok

Once a year ☐
Jednou za rok

Others ☐   (specify) ....
Jiné   /upřesněte/.......................................

15. Are you satisfied with the school environment, the way that classroom is arranged for your child's accessibility and materials that support your child's learning activities?

Jste spokojen/a/ s atmosférou ve škole, způsobem, jakým je přizpůsobena třída pro Vaše dítě a učebními pomůckami pro Vaše dítě?

	School environment *Atmosféra ve škole*	Classroom arrangement *Přizpůsobení tříd*	Learning material *Učební pomůcky*
Strongly satisfied *Velmi spokojen/a/*			
Satisfied *Spokojen/a/*	A N O	A N O	A N O
Neutral *Neutrální odpověď*			
Dissatisfied *Nespokojen/a/*			
Strongly dissatisfied *Velmi nespokojen/a/*			

16. Is your child provided the chance to use his/her potential in the learning activities?

Domníváte se, že má Vaše dítě možnost využít svůj potenciál v rámci výuky?

Yes ☒   No ☐
Ano   *Ne*

17. If there is an assistant teacher, are you satisfied with the way that assistant teacher helps your child in learning activities?

Pokud je přítomen asistent učitele, jste spokojen/a/ s tím, jak pomáhá Vašemu dítěti v rámci výuky?

NEMÁ ASISTENTA

- Strongly satisfied ☐
Velmi spokojen/a/

- Satisfied ☐
Spokojen/a/

- Neutral ☐
Neutrální odpověď

- Dissatisfied ☐
Nespokojen/a/

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Yin Ra   *Parental satisfaction with Inclusive Education*

- Strongly dissatisfied ☐

  Velmi nespokojen/a/

18. Do you think teaching methods that are used by the teacher help your child to learn in the inclusive environment?

Myslíte si, že styl vyučování učitele pomáhá Vašemu dítěti se učit v tomto inkluzivním prostředí?

Yes ☒   No ☐

Ano   *Ne*

19. Are you satisfied with the teaching methods used by teacher?

Jste spokojen/a/ se způsobem výuky učitele /učitelky/?

- Strongly satisfied ☐

  Velmi spokojen/a/

- Satisfied ☒

  Spokojen/a/

- Neutral ☐

  Neutrální odpověď

- Dissatisfied ☐

  Nespokojen/a/

- Strongly dissatisfied ☐

  Velmi nespokojen/a/

20. Do you prefer your child to attend the mainstream school or special school?

Dáváte přednost tomu, aby Vaše dítě navštěvovalo běžnou či speciální školu?

Special school

Speciální škola

Reasons:

Důvody: ☒ ....
....
....
....
....

Mainstream school

Běžná škola   A N O

Reasons:

Důvody:

MÁ SVÉ KAMARÁDY VE TŘÍDĚ

MÁM MOŽNOST SROVNÁVAT ZLEPŠENI DÍTĚTE

S VRSTEVNIKY

BYLA JSEM SPOKOJENA SE ŠKOLOU, PROTOŽE

JSEM V NI MĚLA STARŠI SOUROZENCE

BYLA JSEM SPOKOJENA S KOHUNIKACI MEZI MNOU

A UČITELI

"Thank you very much for your time, patience and co-operation"

Mockát Vám děkuji za Váš čas, trpělivost a spolupráci.