The reflection on inclusive education in urban China – a case study in Beijing

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Abstract

Inclusive education, as a new educational trend, emerged in 1994 and has been developing around the world for more than decades. Although some international organisations advocate that inclusive education means the inclusiveness for all participants in education, the controversy of its understanding and practice have never been stopped. This research utilises literature analysis, interview and questionnaire to investigate the insight of the debate of inclusive education from existing studies pertaining to the inclusive education and participants, which will include the experts, in-service teachers and pre-service teachers.

By using the United Kingdom (UK) and China as examples, this research finds that despite the different conditions between the two countries such as social characteristics, education system and educational values; the understandings of inclusive education are similar within the academic level. However, in comparison with the UK, inclusive education still has room to develop in China. Furthermore, this research finds that it would be insufficient to define a term solely by using the researchers’ view, particularly in education. Therefore, this research attempts to combine Chinese in-service teachers’ opinions with the definition of inclusive education to supplement some details of its conception further. This process refers to Chinese teachers’ responses and Chinese educational conditions, which also could be a part of localising the Western concept of inclusive education.

This research found six further noticeable barriers when teachers practised theory of inclusive education. They are: 1. The lack of knowledge, 2. The unsound support system, 3. The limited resources, 4. The inefficient regulation, 5. The absence of an inclusive value, and 6. The low involvement of other stakeholders. According to these barriers in Chinese schools, four essential factors affecting people’s understandings of inclusive education were found. These include social environment or development, the theoretical explanation, the practical results and the personal experience. Finally, this research also focuses on establishing an initial index or framework for inclusion with Chinese characteristics through referral to the British index for inclusion. This part employed vague set and fuzzy comprehensive evaluation to filter whether the indicators are suitably involved within the initial index for inclusion for Chinese education. It has revealed that some indicators cannot be adopted to explain the Chinese education, and many indicators also require modification prior to putting it into practical use. This process can be an inspiring concern and case of establishing a systematic guideline for practising inclusion in Chinese schools due to the current research situation.

Keywords: inclusive education, China, UK, practice in Chinese schools, index for inclusion
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Abbreviation

SENs: Special Educational Needs
UNESCO: United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organisation
IE: Inclusive Education
EFA: Education for All
LRC: Learning in the Regular Classroom
CSIE: Centre for Studies on Inclusive Education
LEA: Local education authority
DfES: Department for Education and Skills
CEL: Compulsory Education Law
KSS: Key School System
END: Education not Discrimination
ADHD: Attention Deficit Hyperactivity Disorder
CNKI: China National Knowledge Infrastructure
IQ: Intelligence Quotient
TA: Thematic Analysis
DfEE: Department for Education and Employment
MOE: Ministry of Education of the People’s Republic of China
SSE: School Self-evaluation System
Chapter 1 Introduction

1.1 Background

‘Education is the movement from darkness to the light.’

- Allan Bloom

Since ancient time, education has been treated as an important way to improve life. Nelson Mandela said (cited in Shah, 2010, p.5) that ‘Education is the great engine of personal development.’ There are various inequities in education, such as discrimination on gender and races, unbalanced educational resources among the social classes and urban-rural areas, segregated schools, and so on (Tieken, 2017). Although education is always restricted by many issues, it still a primary way to promote life during the history of human development. Some issues of those educational inequities have already been gradually reduced, but discriminations have yet to be eliminated.

Two decades ago, ‘inclusion’ in education became a popular topic in the education field. It is due to the social development that human rights attracted more attention in the last century. In particular, the topic of ‘social inclusion,’ which has been a core focus in many regions of the world (Armstrong, Armstrong and Spandagou, 2011). In this globalised world, education seems to have a role in achieving ‘social inclusion’ (Loreman et al., 2014). Therefore, the definition of ‘inclusion’ in education has become a basic research point. It was linked to the disability naturally by teachers, parents, and adherents because of the existing models of ‘mainstreaming’ and ‘integration’ in some Western countries (ibid). However, decades ago, the ‘mainstreaming’ or ‘integration’ was only used to describe the practice that aims to overcome the segregated situation of the children with special educational needs (SENs) (Farrell, 2000). Only considering the individuals with special educational needs may not be treated as inclusive education because of the deficient concern to other learners. Thus, acknowledging the variety in education and providing education to all draw the attention of the educators and scholars.

The United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organisation (UNESCO) claims that ‘every child has unique characteristics, interests, abilities, and learning needs’ (Peters, 2004, p.5). It highlights that to have equal access to education without discrimination is fundamental right for all individuals. More importantly, education should respect each child’s characters and meet their needs in education. In 1994, the term, ‘inclusive education’ (IE) emerged in the World Conference on Special Needs Education: Access and Quality. The UNESCO defined
inclusive education as ‘a process of adopting all children through increasing their participation and reducing the exclusion in the educational system’ (UNESCO, 1994). When this term has emerged, many critical comments followed, especially pertaining to the definition and its coverage. The UNESCO (2009, p.9) proclaimed that ‘inclusive education’ is a process of strengthening the capacity of the education system to reach out to all learners and can thus be understood as a key strategy to achieve Education for All (EFA).’ In this definition, inclusive education involves all learners rather than focusing on a specific group of people, and it is not a static statement but a dynamic process.

However, in many relevant studies, some countries have created a definition that only focuses on learners with special educational needs (Peters, 2004). It can be reflected in various research; for example, Tiwari, Das, and Sharma (2015) claimed that solving the educational issues of children with disabilities are the preconditions of the inclusive education as defined by the UNESCO. It directs the inclusive education from being inclusive to everyone to a narrow focus - disabled individuals. Similarly, the term, inclusive education, has been solely related to individuals with disabilities in many areas, such as some Arabic countries, China, Japan, South Korea, and so on (Alborno and Gaad, 2014; Lei and Deng, 2007; Futaba, 2016; Kim, 2014). However, excessive emphasis on the special educational needs or disability is not the true ‘spirit’ of the term inclusive education. The UNESCO (2009) made it clear that the Salamanca Conference was focused on the special educational needs, but the statement was that: ‘Special educational needs, an issue of equal concern to countries of the North and of the South, cannot advance in isolation. It has to form part of an overall educational strategy and, indeed, of new social and economic policies. It calls for major reform of the ordinary school.’ (p.9) It reveals that disability is only a part of inclusive education consideration. However, in practice, its definition has been gradually narrowed.

1.1.1 Research context

Nowadays, discrimination and exclusion are found within society, such as issues include gender, races, education, language, religion, and so on. As previously mentioned, inclusive education attempts to resolve the inequity in education. Different countries have specific issues that need to be solved. For example, except for the traditional issues, the UK and the USA consider education to overseas immigrants. At the same time, China pays more attention to the domestic migrants, which largely depends on the stage of social development and local conditions of the respective individuals. Access to education had been a basic human right before the term Education for All (EFA) or inclusive education emerged and recognised within the educational
field (Miles and Singal, 2010). Unfortunately, discrimination and exclusion still exist in the majority of schools, although theoretical and practical steps have been taken within the inclusive education so far. However, in such studies, researchers tend to focus on the SENs individuals and overlook some other groups of people in disadvantage situations. It is because the majority of people’s views of inclusive education is initially linked to educational issues for disabled learners in some countries (Ainscow and Cesar, 2006; Thomazet, 2009). Although many scholars, such as Booth and Ainscow, make great efforts to generalise the broad understanding of inclusive education, it is still difficult to be accepted by the public (Booth, 1996, 2011; Booth and Ainscow, 2002; 2011, 2016). The broad view of inclusive education is about every individuals’ education, living conditions and beyond. It also takes consideration of having a welcoming environment and respecting the diversity of all learners instead of solely focusing on individuals with impairments. Presently, the definition of inclusive education is still a popular topic because it will influence policymaking, practical model, and the citizens’ attitudes on inclusion. It will further impact on the achievement of social inclusion.

The studies on inclusive education have different research points because of the narrow and the broad understandings of it. For example, Lipsky and Gartner (1996 and 1998) analysed and summarised the international perspective of special education and the development of inclusive education sourced from studies on learners with disabilities. Using the educational issues of individuals with disabilities to explore inclusive education will restrict its range of application. Furthermore, Messiou (2017) evaluated about ten years of articles in the international journal of inclusive education, the only peer-review journal with inclusive education in its title. Half of the articles on inclusive education were related to special education, special educational needs, and disability. It has revealed that the understanding of inclusive education has been narrowed but also reflects that inclusive education should be seen as an aspect of special education. In comparison with the number of articles that were focused on disability, only eight of them have established a broad view of inclusive education and diversity in education (ibid). Except for the research on the development of inclusive education, many scholars investigate it via legislation. For example, Yell (1998), Allan (2008), and Chen (2010) inclusive education research are based on the law, but normally such regulations are relevant to the disabled group.

Furthermore, the teachers’ attitudes, training, and schools’ settings are also familiar topics, which aims to seek an improvement in inclusive education. Teachers’ attitudes toward inclusive education can be seen as the foundation for improving inclusion because it will affect their teaching strategies in education. (Eleweke, and Rodda, 2001; Avramidis and Norwich, 2002; Opertti, Walker, and Zhan, 2014). Kellett (2010) claimed that some teachers are worried about
their skills that may not be able to teach students with learning difficulties because the steps for improvement have been applied too quickly to follow up. There is a possibility that teachers in regular schools are unable to accommodate such steps. It is a fair reflection that teachers feel that they lack the skills and experiences; thus, they demand professional training. However, most teachers have expressed positive attitudes to inclusive education and the practical model in their schools (Norwich, 2008; Braunsteiner and Mariano-Lapidus, 2017; Woodcock and Hardy, 2017; Xu, Cooper, and Sin, 2017). It seems that teachers’ positive attitudes have provided an excellent foundation to generalise inclusive education, and the majority of them require professional training. Therefore, the teachers’ training on inclusive education draws many researchers’ attention. Many relevant studies can be found in most countries, and there are similar directions in the studies such as the method of the teachers’ training. Indeed, teachers’ training will influence the effects of developing inclusive education because the teachers is one of the essential roles in education. Based on different understandings of inclusive education, the opinions of teachers’ training are also varied. For example, Florian and Black-Hawkins (2011) claimed that teachers should have the capacities to cultivate diverse learners through related training. However, many studies on teachers’ training toward inclusive education take more consideration of teaching disabled students in regular schools (like in Lamichhane, 2017; Tangen and Beutel, 2017; Xu, Cooper, and Sin, 2017; etc.). Besides, Howes et al. (2005) and Bourke (2009) have made remarks about the teachers’ training but from the broad view of inclusive education, which highlights the establish of the teachers’ attitudes toward the students’ diverse needs. To become a comprehensive study, this research is based on the different perspectives of inclusive education, such as focuses on different aspects of education and groups people.

1.1.2 Inclusive education in China

The exclusion in education and similar concepts of inclusive education can be traced back to Chinese history. For instance, Dillon (2009) described that the girls in Chinese history barely had any opportunities to attend schools. As previously mentioned, this was due to the traditional view of ‘Nv zi wu cai bian shi de,’ which means ignorance is women’s virtue. People believed that girls only should know how to cook; how to do housework and needlework. Besides, social status also affects education in history, which mainly reflected on the learning opportunity, quality, and circumstance. However, some Chinese scholars consider that several traditional perspectives of education also could be an idea of maintaining equality in education, like ‘You jiao wu lei,’ and ‘Yin cai shi jiao’ (Li, 2016; Zou and Li, 2017). These two terms emphasise that education should be accessible for all regardless of the background of the individual. Indeed,
these could be related to inclusive education, which focuses on solving exclusion and respect diversity in education. However, according to Chinese history, the entire society was established on a fairly strict hierarchy, which means that inclusion cannot be achieved.

After the founding of the People’s Republic of China (PRC) in 1949, such educational issues began to change. Schools could accommodate students from both sexes, although the enrolment of female students was relatively low (Zang, 2016). Similarly, the unequal phenomena in education amongst different social status were also developed especially between the urban and rural region (Williamson, 1979; Yu, 2008). Li (2013) claims that the ‘Open and reform,’ Compulsory Education Law, and ‘the Hope Project’ had an improvement in education in China. Although the term of inclusive education did not emerge, those progresses still could be treated as aspects of it.

China has experienced rapid development in many fields with some that could match the Western countries in terms of progress. However, the uneven distribution of resources with other conditions means that China is still recognised as a developing country (Li, 2013). In recent years, the Chinese studies on inclusive education mainly refer to the disability and ‘learning in a regular classroom,’ a practical model of teaching students with disability in traditional schools (Chen and Wang, 2015; Du and Zhi, 2015). There are plenty of articles that focus on educational equity, such as gender discrimination, urban-rural distinction, migrants’ children, and teacher-student relationships. However, in China, these topics are rarely linked to inclusive education. The studies revealed that the development of inclusive education in China is insufficient and particularly lack instructions for its execution. Thus, this research will not only supplement the definition and evaluate influential factors, but also establishes a guide or framework for the comprehensive development of inclusive education in China.

1.1.3 Research needs

Overall, it has been introduced briefly that the understandings of inclusive education are varied around the world, which is an essential controversy in this research field. Until now, there is still no consensus on inclusive education in academic articles (Hilt, 2017). Although the majority of current research on inclusive education seems to focus on individuals with disabilities, the advantages of practising inclusive education to all children, the broad conception, have been shown. It is significant because exclusion and inequality not only exists between disabled and non-disabled students. The broad understanding of inclusive education is systematic, which considers all exclusion in one notion and requires a higher standard of
The broad understanding of inclusive education has multiple significances beyond the narrow perspective. It could not only help the students with different needs to participate in their schools and society, but also reinforce teachers, parents, students and social understandings on equality, respect, adoption, and inclusion. Immensely, in secondary, primary schools and even in kindergarten, such an early stage of learning can help children learn about diversity in society, then further learn how to respect each other and help each other. It reflects that inclusive education also can be a life skill rather than a simple educational statement. Although the understanding of inclusive education does not have a consensus, some points are acknowledged broadly, including human rights, equality, participation, collaboration, and the appropriate curriculum. These essential elements are suitable for every child in education. Overwhelming consideration of disabled students will not only divert teachers’ attention from other students but also affect children with disabilities negatively. Besides, the broad understanding of inclusive education emphasises schools’ responsibilities in education instead of students’ behaviour. For example, schools should fulfil their students’ different needs in education rather than force them to meet schools’ standards.

More importantly, in modern society, the students in one school may come from different family backgrounds, cultural backgrounds, different races, different language groups and different social statuses, not to mention their various interests and abilities. Respect and acceptance of diversity in education is an important part of the broad understanding of inclusive education, which fits reality. In China, establishing a harmonious society is an important goal, and as a significant part of it, inclusive value is significant to both education and social development. Hence, introducing and learning the broad understanding of inclusive education is not only a challenge to current educational attitudes and practice but also could be an update of the mainstream’s values on education and a reflection on the current educational system. It can be found that the promotion of inclusive education in its broad sense focuses more on the long-term impact on education and society rather than short-term performance in its practice.

In practice, the index for inclusion seems to be one of the most popular materials that support schools to develop inclusive education comprehensively. The inclusive value is the basis for developing inclusion, which will encourage people to act (Booth and Ainscow, 2016). The index for inclusion is not only an action of promoting inclusion but also reflects the inclusive value in-depth. Thus, establishing an index for inclusion does not only provide a guide to schools but also importantly, shares the inclusive value to achieve better understanding.
Although the relevant department of Chinese government advocates implementing inclusive education, the schools seem not to have any clear instructions that guide them to put inclusion into their teaching actions or evaluate their effects. In other words, inclusive education is staying at an exploratory stage so far in Chinese schools.

Therefore, this research will ground on the broad sense to investigate the definition of inclusive education, the influential factors of such understandings, and the way to promote. Then, based on the British index for inclusion, this research will provide an initial consideration of establishing a framework to guide and evaluate the development of inclusive education for Chinese schools. As an example, this research expects to provide some new ideas to the researcher with different cultural backgrounds when they study on inclusion in education.

1.2 Aims and objectives

The overall purposes of this thesis are to provide an appropriate understanding of inclusive education, particularly on why such understanding has been narrowed down, towards supporting Chinese schools developing inclusion by establishing an initial index.

Key research questions include:
(1) What are the similar and different understandings of inclusive education in China compared to the UK at the academic level?
(2) To what extent will in-service and pre-service teachers understand inclusive education?
(3) What are the barriers of practice and the factors affecting participants’ understanding of inclusion in China?
   a. What are the gaps between theory and practice in Chinese schools?
   b. Which factors could impact on people’s perspectives of inclusion in education?
(4) What can indicators from the British index be adopted to establish an initial index for inclusive education in China?

Detailed objectives are as follows:

Objective 1: Expand the term of inclusive education through considering the opinions from different positions in education. Various perspectives of inclusive education, from different participants, caused by different cultures, will be considered, as opposed to solely focusing on the opinion of scholars. Different stakeholders’ opinions will supplement or even amend the connotation of inclusive education.
Objective 2: Investigate the understandings of inclusive education, which will involve the understandings of academic, policy, and practical levels. It will present the basis of understanding and development of inclusive education and provide different or wider viewpoints to the participants in China. The result will allow them to re-consider the diversity and inclusion in education.

Objective 3: There are two aspects to be included.

Objective 3a: Discover what aspects are difficult to execute in practice, the barriers, what individuals are excluded, and what requires improvement. It will reveal the gap between theory and practice in reality and focusing on assessing inclusive education in schools. This objective is important because schools should not be judged based on what they should do, but on what they are able to do.

Objective 3b: Explore the influential factors of understanding inclusive education by considering the participants’ information and reflections on inclusion, including their attitudes, educational barriers, professional supports and resources, within the teaching environment and the society. There will be consideration of the data collected from participants in China, along with an analysis of data from various worldwide academic research.

Objective 4: Establish an initial index to help Chinese schools to improve inclusion in order to encourage teachers and schools to create a welcoming environment for all learners. It will also provide an opportunity for Chinese teachers to develop their attitudes to cater for the disabled students.

The details of evaluating each question will be discussed in the later chapters of methodology and findings.

1.3 Terms and definitions

The following key terms will be used throughout this paper.

Special Educational Needs:
A child has special educational needs if he or she has a learning difficulty, which calls for special provision to be made for him or her. In other words, these groups of children are unable to reach their learning potential without either additional support or adaptations to their learning
Inclusive education:
‘Inclusion can be seen as a process of addressing and responding to the diversity of needs of all children, youth, and adults by increasing their participation in learning, cultures, and communities, and reducing and eliminating exclusion within and from education. It involves changes and modifications in content, approaches, structures, and strategies, with a common vision that covers all children of the appropriate age range and a conviction that it is the responsibility of the regular educational system to educate all children’ (UNESCO, 2009, p.8-9)

Mainstreaming/integration education:
It is a relevant term of inclusive education because these two views are highly related. Stoner (1981) and Diaz (2013) describe mainstreaming as an idea that is mainly allowing the majority of disabled children to return to the regular classroom as a part of their day. Similarly, ‘mainstreaming allows students with disability to be part of a regular education classroom … Mainstreaming requires the child to meet the demands of the general education classroom, which can be difficult at times’ (Tiwari, Das, and Sharma, 2015, p.128). Thus, mainstreaming schools are the regular schools that allow the enrolment of disabled students.

Learning in Regular Classroom:
It is translated from the Chinese ‘Sui ban jiu du’, which literally means children with disability will receive compulsory education in mainstream schools (Liu, 2008; Deng and Poon-McBrayer, 2004).

1.4 Significance of the study
Slee (2001) claimed that inclusive education should change from providing education for specific units to concentrating on the diversity of various capabilities. However, according to Opertti, Walker, and Zhang (2014), the definition of inclusive education still links to children with disabilities and special educational needs, which contribute to the majority of research. It seems that presently, this issue has not been resolved because the current studies on inclusive education still mainly refer to individuals with disabilities. As Messiou (2017, p.152) argued that ‘if inclusion is about all, why we still focus on some?’ It reflects that researchers still need to figure out what factors make people still focus on specific groups in education.
1.4.1 Theoretical significance

According to many studies and articles, there does not seem to have a unanimous definition to the practice and even the conception of inclusive education, especially whether inclusive education should mainly refer to the disabled individuals. Therefore, this research is important to theoretical research on inclusive education:

1. It will not only contribute to the understanding of inclusive education based on the different culture and perspectives of thinking to the research field but will also provide a basics of research on inclusive education in China. It can be treated as a bridge in this research field which connects studies between developed and developing countries.

2. This research will also not only present the common phenomena that are included in the education but also seek out the exclusion in the modern education system via inducting the definition of inclusive education. It is important because Slee (2004, cited in Hilt, 2017) argued that ‘theory-making is not necessarily about deciding on a final definition of inclusion, but on providing analytical tools to recognise exclusions’ (p.4).

3. This research will discover the factors that have an impact on the limited perspective on inclusive education. Once the principal influence factors are found, it will further assist in terms of recognising the barriers to inclusive education.

The third point will be an essential contribution to this research field because the same term derives the distinct understandings, which is a controversy in the field of inclusive education. For example, Peng (2011) illustrated that to deal with the students with learning barriers, traditionally, deaf, blind and amentia in China, the government has encouraged the mainstreaming schools to enrol this group of students. The policy, ‘Learning in the regular classroom (LRC), is seen as an effective system of including disabled students and like a part of the special education field. In contrast, Western countries’ education, such as the UK and the USA, attempts to fulfil all students’ needs regardless of their background. It seems that inclusive education in many Western countries relates to a broad conception rather than limiting it to disabled students, but it closely links to apply to disabled children in China.

In most disciplines, a concept could be treated as a kind of principle that would regulate the practice and development of a field. Cong (2007) claimed that every discipline must be built on a series of concepts, which also can be treated as a system with specific inner relations.
Therefore, it is imperative to investigate a theory or conception because most systems or actions that are commonly practising, in reality, are derived from such theories and concepts. Significantly, for those concepts, it also needs to be reconsidered and re-evaluated, due to the unceasing changes in society, which is an essential process of prompting themselves to improve properly.

Particularly, an analysis of the educational conception is a foundation of its practice because education can be treated as one of the most practical disciplines. Shi (2009) explained that education is not a simple natural process but a social and cultural outcome that cannot be parted from the practitioner’s understanding of the relevant conceptions. In other words, the concept will provide the teachers to have a clear view of what is being taught because a notion of education is not only a description but also a guidebook impacting on educational behaviours. Shi (2009) further highlighted that the discussion of a conception is one of the noticeable issues of educational research because education seems to be full of vague notions and inaccurate views. It reflects that if someone attempts to solve the issues of education, an essential step is to investigate the conception. Thus, it is significant to evaluate how the concept of inclusive education is perceived and interpreted by Chinese scholars and teachers. This research will not only reveal the current situation and viewpoints of inclusive education but also can be seen as evidence for evaluating the practice and re-thinking its further directions.

1.4.2 Practical significance

As Booth and Ainscow (2011) emphasised that the most important thing is to apply inclusive values into reality, so this project will also focus on the importance of deploying the values into practice.

1. This research will contribute to reducing exclusion in education as much as possible in China with the introduction of a broader scope of inclusion.

The exclusion has been a prominent phenomenon in the world for a long time. Although modern society underlines human rights and equality, discriminations still exist due to various faiths, languages, genders, morality, and race, which are reflected in most aspects of society. Recently, equality in education is a widespread debate in China because many students and parents believe the criteria for entering universities are non-uniform. The current criteria seem to provide the privilege to the students living in cities, particularly Beijing. Despite not being quite the same as described by the public, the phenomenon is a reminder that inequality remains.
My personal experience of the inequality of education in China could be seen as a significant motivation to this research. I was in the capital city of Henan, a developing province with a large number of populations. I understand the pressure within the education is in this place, but several years later, I moved to Beijing with my family and found a different atmosphere. Thus, as a student experienced every crucial stage of Chinese education and studied in different cities, I believe it will be a long journey for China to achieve inclusive education because many social factors can lead to discriminations in China. For instance, imbalance development, using academic performance as a decisive factor to students, family backgrounds, stereotype on gender, and so on. I always think about the situation I would be in if I did not move to Beijing and have the opportunity to study at a good university in Beijing. The millions of Chinese students are still struggling with those injustices, but such injustices exist, which forces me to explore fresh ideas.

I was only exposed to the term inclusive education when I arrived and began my study in the UK. It makes me curious about whether China has similar ideas. Therefore, after searching articles online, I knew that there is a model of education, ‘learning in the regular classroom,’ to provide many disabled students in China. Besides, the university conducted a project with the local community, which provided me with the opportunity to visit local schools and interview some teachers and students. It was the first time I knew the role, teaching assistant, in a secondary school because many students cannot speak English well. Based on the rich experience of learning in a different environment and the literature review, there are various strategies for implementing inclusive education.

Many western countries’ practices seem to be more extensive than their Chinese counterpart, which believed in ‘learning in a regular classroom.’ This practice only takes consideration for the disabled children to enrol in traditional schools. In the UK, The Centre for Studies on Inclusive Education (CSIE) has published the index for inclusion for fifteen years depended on the broad understandings of inclusive education. However, in China, there is currently no specific guide that supports the schools to improve inclusion. It means that it is necessary to build up a comprehensive index for improving inclusive education in China.

1. This research will provide an opportunity for the Chinese in-service and pre-service teachers to reflect their understandings of inclusive education from different perspectives. Thus, they would change their attitudes or perceptions of the inclusion and exclusion, in particular, the disabled students. This change is critical to the teachers’ educational
practice and strategies. It will also have an impact on their students and even in the entire society in the future. Overall, it can result in a broad understanding of inclusive education, which can be learned and accepted by society, especially in China.

2. This study will introduce a broad understanding of inclusive education to policymakers and schools’ principals, which is vital for further improvement in China through legislation, schools’ settings and appropriate supports.

1.5 Thesis structure

Chapter 1 briefly introduces the background of this study, along with history and the current circumstances of inclusive education, which helps the readers to understand the relevant knowledge in this research field. It also provides reasons as to why this research is necessary under present social and educational conditions, and how the study can offer differences to the existing perspective on both inclusive education and the Chinese perspective of ‘Learning in a Regular Classroom’. At the same time, chapter 1 will present research questions, aims, and the objectives of this project.

Chapter 2 mainly concentrates on the development of inclusive education in general and the UK, as an acknowledged pioneer of inclusive education. Similarly, research on Chinese conditions of inclusive education will also be presented. It also involves in-depth descriptions of the understanding of inclusive education, based on data collected by the interviews and systematic document review.

Chapter 3 includes the methodology of the study, the rationale behind the choice of the approaches, and the research design. With exception to these points, ethical issues may be involved, and concerns regarding validity will be highlighted in this chapter. It also mainly presents the research process, including the basic information of the participants, the data collection’s procedure, and the method of data analysis.

Chapter 4 explores the extent of inclusive education that can be understood in different educational positions. The understanding of inclusive education by different stakeholders in education will be collected before comparing the similarities and differences. Subsequently, an understanding of inclusive education with Chinese features will be provided.
Chapter 5 identifies which factors lead to a specific understanding of inclusive education in China and can be seen as fulfilling a gap in this field. It is a further investigation of the first research question, and the understanding gained from the first question will be used. An interview, questionnaire, and focus group discussion will be utilised. It also discusses the gap between theory and practice. It mainly identifies the obstacles in practising inclusive education in schools, along with exclusive phenomena in schools. According to difficulties in practice, the current aspects that have been executed, recommendations and regulations will be discussed with teachers.

Chapter 6 establishes an initial index for inclusion to support Chinese schools based on the British index for inclusion (2016). In addition, this chapter also includes a discussion with the Chinese experts, along with detail of practical conditions. It will also be taking consideration of the validation of the index by receiving feedback from different participants. Moreover, a comparison will be made between this initial Chinese index with the British index, which is widely used in different countries. A detailed evaluation will be given to its application as guidance for Chinese schools to improve their environment from a broad perspective.

Chapter 7 evaluates the results by comparing the similarities and differences of the existing research findings. The limitations of this project and potential areas of research will also be discussed.
Figure 1 The thesis structure
Chapter 2 Literature review

This study on inclusive education will mainly review its understanding, practice, and improvement, which can be seen as a process of developing a theory to an appropriate method. This chapter will review existing studies in this field before observing its achievements in both theoretical and practical levels. In this chapter, research that was conducted on the both senses of inclusive education will be reviewed, along with many typical exclusive phenomena as this research aim to support Chinese studies from a broad perspective. For instance, gender discrimination, poverty, key schools, bullying in schools, labelling, migrants’ children, and so on, especially in China, will be critiqued. Except for the general review, this chapter will also focus on evaluating the understanding of inclusive education in both China and the UK, which is research question one, to find out the similarities and differences in academic studies. Therefore, this part will be divided into five main aspects; the research on inclusive education worldwide with particular emphasis in the UK (Section 2.1), inclusive education in China (Section 2.2), several typical exclusions in Chinese education (Section 2.3), the index for inclusion (Section 2.4), and the comparison between China and the UK (section 2.5).

2.1 Research on inclusive education

Inclusive education has been discussed for a couple of decades because to date, there is no set definition of the term. This section will review inclusive education that has been defined throughout the world, especially the UK and China and seek similarities and difference.

2.1.1 Inclusive education worldwide

This part will explore the development of inclusive education and mainly focuses on the details of its origin and different understandings of inclusive education across the world. The evaluation of the various perspective of inclusive education will also be discussed.

2.1.1.1 The rise of inclusive education

Recently, the increased amount of communications among the countries reinforces the tendency of globalisation includes economy, industry, technology as well as education. The United Nations Educational, Scientific, and Cultural Organisation (UNESCO) is playing a crucial role in advocating from the education perspective. Particularly, during the last decades, inclusive
education has become a global issue (Pijl et al., 1997). Although many countries, such as the UK, USA, and China, have similar opinions and practices of inclusive education before the emergence of that specific term, international organisations also have a far-reaching influence on inclusive education. The Salamanca Statement, published by the UNESCO in 1994, is treated as the origin of inclusive education in this field (Peters, 2004; Poon-McBrayer and Wong, 2013). The essential points of Salamanca Statement highlight education, as a fundamental right, is for every child regardless of races, genders, impairments and any other backgrounds.

Education for all (EFA), was raised between the late 1980s and early 1990s, and its ideas are based on human rights and clearly against the discrimination in education. The world draws attention to the fundamental learning needs of marginal groups which were neglected (McLaughlin and Swartz, 2011). ‘Inclusion in education is recognised as basic human rights and the foundation for a more just and equal society’ (Forlin et al., 2014, p. 5). According to the Salamanca Statement and relevant studies on inclusive education, human rights must be the essential of inclusive education. Tony Booth (edited by Clough and Corbett, 2000) claimed that the history of inclusive education is not about a special form of education but rather about the history of the gender, race, poverty, and the other vulnerable groups. Thus, the civil rights movement in the 1950s in America is seen as the direct source of inclusive education, although many actions of pursuing equality and freedom have already been accomplished in the Western world during the Renaissance and the Enlightenment (Deng and Poon-McBrayer, 2003). Cole (2000) mentioned several articles of the United National Universal Declaration of Human rights that human beings are equal and free without distinction to gender, religion, political opinion, and some other points. Article twenty-six reveals that everyone is entitled to having an education, and it should be free and compulsory in the foundation stage. It declares, alongside, the primary objectives of education are to adequately develop the human individual, to reinforce human rights, and to enhance the understandings of variety (Gordon, 2013). Hence both the Declaration of Human rights and the Salamanca Statement have reflected that education is important to every human being and countries should concentrate on achieving equality such as opportunity, respect, and rights.

Education is a means to change one’s life for the better and should not be a privilege of the minority. It could provide a promising future to individuals and promote the harmonious atmosphere to the society by increasing understanding and reducing estrangement. Inclusive education can be seen as a primary strategy to achieve EFA (Peters, 2004), which has been through several processes. If a society’s foundation is based on status, education would be
segregated according to the individuals’ social class. It will lead to inequality and individuals with disability will be particularly affected. The children with impairments lived at the bottom of the society and rarely had the chance to receiving education in school until the first school for the blind was established in Paris in the 18th century (Winzer, 1998). In this period, segregation was the main characteristic of education. However, it also could be viewed as an improvement of education because the vulnerable groups had the opportunities to have education at the very least despite the learning circumstance, content, and materials were unfair. Human beings have not stopped fighting with the unjust phenomenon like segregation, and the most famous example is the American anti-racist movement that finally won equal rights for the black community. It did not only solve the problems of African American’s rights but also inspired the people to fight for their rights, especially for the individuals that belong to the neglected groups. Deng and Poon-McBrayer (2003) argued that the perspective of mainstreaming emerged because this sort of social movement impacted it at that time. The mainstreaming was established in the 1970s, the USA Law 94-142 enacted as a significant symbol, which provides various thoughts of promoting education system for disabled children. Despite the mainstreaming offer places to the disabled students in regular schools, it was difficult to guarantee educational quality. Besides, the discriminations on gender, race, sexuality, and disability are still existing and cannot be settled by mainstreaming.

To discover the effective solution for EFA, 92 governments, and 25 international organisations sent representatives to participate in the World Conference on Special Needs Education: Access and Quality in 1994 (UNESCO, 1994). The Salamanca Statement, an important framework, put forward several principles of developing inclusive education. Firstly, it reinforces the notion that education is right for all children. Secondly, recognising and admitting that every individual has unique educational needs, abilities, and interests. Thirdly, education should be designed to accommodate the various needs of children. Fourthly, it claims that children with special needs must have an equal chance to attend regular schools and the schools should fulfil their requirements as far as possible. The last point is to reduce discrimination, to develop inclusive society and to achieve EFA (ibid). It is a milestone in terms of developing EFA, which does not only proclaim that education is a fundamental right to every child and should be designed for the various needs, but also appeals to the international organisations and governments to perform their respective responsibilities. For instance, based upon those principles, the governments could enact the priority policy and increase the budget for encouraging the education system, particularly the regular schools, to enrol all children as far as possible. Meanwhile, the international organisation, such as UNESCO, should cooperate with all governments and provide necessary supports (ibid).
2.1.1.2 Early stage of development of inclusive education

However, all governments and scholars evaluate inclusive education from different positions, which have led to many understandings. As a consequence, there is still a debate which mainly focuses on the range of application. On the one side, the chosen definition of inclusive education emphasises inclusive education is to provide equality to all the children rather than having a limit on a specific group. Booth, Aniscow, and Dyson (1997) defined that inclusive education as a process of increasing the participation of students in the cultures, curriculum and communication within the local mainstream school while reducing the exclusion in mainstream culture. This process involves not only all the students but also the employees in the school regardless of race, gender, social class, family structures, and so on. It is adopted by the Centre for Studies on Inclusive Education in the UK. On the other side, Booth (2011) mentioned that the dominating understanding of inclusive education is narrowed down, which concerns the students with impairments and who are categorised as having ‘special needs’ in the regular schools. It can be evidenced by searching online, where the majority of the websites explain inclusive education by using disabled students in the mainstreaming school as an example. Booth believed that it would lead to an opinion that having learning difficulty are the problems of individuals. It is evident that if everyone simply attributes having learning disabilities to personal issue, the external issues of society would be ignored.

Meanwhile, this narrow perspective would lead to a lack of consideration to other children without special educational needs. Through searching the topics in the Journal of Inclusive Education from 2005-2015, Messiou (2017) has found that the most significant proportion of inclusive education, in this journal, considers the learning problems of a particular group facing rather than aims to all learners. She has counted 82 per cent of studies are focused on an individual group or a category. Such a narrow perspective, for examples, Amr (2011) illustrated that the new term, inclusive education, refers to the children whose exclusion arises due to impairments in the Arab world. Similarly, many Chinese researchers define inclusive education as a part of special education. It is widely accepted in China that inclusive education is to provide disabled children with equal opportunities such as access to high-quality education within the schools in their respective local areas (Peng, 2011; Yu, Su, and Liu, 2011). In order to explain the focus on specific disability with regards to inclusive education, Ballard (1999) proclaimed that many of them concentrate on disabled studies in their past research before they turn to study inclusive education. According to Clough and Corbett’s book, the theory of inclusive education (2000), many writers, in this book, have experiences of teaching or working
with disabled people; and some of them even have disabilities. Furthermore, Messiou (2017) argued that according to some articles’ discussion of inclusive education, scholars and stakeholders have different perspectives of it. Similar to many terms in social science, inclusive education could not have a clear and uniform definition because the real society is complicated where each country has a different process of development and has a specific situation. Thus, it is possible to have several distinctive understandings of inclusive education, even within a country.

To sum up, although there are several concepts of inclusive education around the world, its core perspective is widely accepted, which mainly underlines the equality in education, and it should be for all individuals. However, merely recognising the responsibility to children with disabilities and marginalised groups is not the comprehensive definition of inclusion. Thus, there are still contemporary problems pertaining to the way of transferring the concept of inclusive education to the educational system and its effectiveness. The next part of this chapter will review the progress of inclusive education in the UK due to its outstanding contribution in theory and practice.

2.1.2 Inclusive education in the UK

As a developed country, the UK is an excellent example of applying inclusive education. Therefore, studying and evaluating the evolution of inclusive education in the UK is a significant component in this field. This section will draw attention to the improvement of inclusive education that includes origin, development, theory, practice and legislation.

According to the various opinions on inclusive education, it appears to be rooted in special education, particularly the segregated education model for disability (Florian, 2014). Similarly, Armstrong, Armstrong, and Spandagou (2011) argued that inclusive education is based upon a critique of special education. Therefore, the development of inclusive education in the UK could be discussed in terms of special education, mainstreaming and inclusion. When technology and science were insufficiently developed, humans were more likely to struggle with their lives, and people with disabilities were especially at a disadvantage as society lacked consideration towards them. Consequently, disabled individuals could not gain employment and earn an income. In history, there was a negative attitude toward understanding individuals with disabilities. For instance, Winzer (1998) described the disabled individuals had been treated as the vicious embodiment or god’s punishment for their past sin. Based on modern science, such discriminations on disabled are superstitious and ridiculous, but just because of
superstition, the disabled persons were excluded, isolated and even inhumane treated in history. It reflects that the status of the disabled people largely depends on the temporal philosophical belief, which was dominated by the opinion of Aristotle.

2.1.2.1 The stage of special education

Aristotle believed that sensory deficiency would affect human beings and made a supposition that ‘if one of the faculties is lost, some knowledge must also inevitably be lost’ (Winzer, 1998, p.214). Among the senses, Aristotle notes that hearing is the most significant sense for people’s development, which means deaf is unteachable and senseless. As a result, people born with hearing impairments rarely receive an education (ibid). Salend and Duhaney (2011) suggested that the perceptions of the disabled persons began to change in the sixteenth and seventeenth centuries, and significantly, the Enlightenment challenged the beliefs of human natures, human rights and self-sufficiency. For instance, a Spanish monk created a sign language to teach people with loss of hearings in the mid of the 1500s. Although this example may not be drawn upon the change of philosophical perspective, it is still an attempt to provide an educational opportunity to the deaf person (Burch and Sutherland, 2006). During the Enlightenment period, the feudalism was highly criticised from both the political and the philosophical positions, which inspired the society, or the political order began to consider all the citizens’ rights. The perception of chasing human rights rapidly grew in Europe, especially in advanced areas such as France and the UK.

In the second half of the eighteenth century, some schools were established in the UK for impoverished children with visual problem (Hodkinson and Vickerman, 2014). In the 1800s, the institutions and asylums for the disabled persons have increased dramatically, and the first special school, controlled by a church, was also established in Liverpool (Salend and Duhaney, 2011; Hodkinson and Vickerman, 2014). However, these schools were different from the present schools because the majority were directed towards wealthy families with the primary purpose of cultivating vocational skills (ibid). The segregated educational system gradually becomes a common pattern in the following years. The curricula that they provided mostly consisted of are spinning and weaving and other skills that could allow the disabled children to support themselves (ibid). From the curriculum, the essential goal of the UK’s special education is not about academic improvement but the connection with the external world. The system seemingly assumes that the optimal way of integrating with mainstream society to individuals with impairments is to teach them how to live in society. Although this British model of special education is segregated from the traditional school system, it helped to strengthen the
connection between disabled individuals and society, inspiring the evolution of special education in the nineteenth century.

The principal character of special education is independent and segregated because the children with impairments could not adopt traditional education in mainstream schools, and schools could not provide adequate supports. Hodkinson and Vickerman (2014) pointed out that when the 1870 Elementary Education Act was implemented, it introduced the compulsory state schooling for all resulting in a mass of children with SENs entered mainstream schools and brought many problems. One of the remarkable issues is that the teachers do not have professional training for helping children with SENs in mainstream school. At the same time, if the teachers spend the time to fulfil such SENs, they would not have sufficient time to support other students. Plus, the actual discrimination occurs on disabled individuals; therefore, the social attitude firmly believed that children with impairments could not fit in the regular schools. This Act is a bold exploration of changing the segregation in education, but the segregation seems to be reinforced because the benefit of including children with SEN is limited or even voided.

2.1.2.2 The stage of integration

The education provision for disabled individuals did not change until 1944, where the Education Act was enacted. It requires that the local education authorities (LEAs) provide elementary and secondary schools based on the children’s age and abilities (Hodkinson and Vickerman, 2014). It mirrors that if children want to study at mainstream school, they have to meet the school’s standards to prove they have sufficient abilities of learning. In other words, the educational system still demands the children to adapt, instead of satisfying students’ needs. However, there was the stipulation that LEAs should ensure that every child with impairments has an opportunity to receive an education based on their categories of impairments (Bridges, 1945). Unfortunately, during the period of applying the 1944 Act, the children did have education, but they were still excluded from the regular schools because of their SENs. As a result, they were relocated to the segregated schools. Hodkinson and Vickerman (2014) believe that if these children could improve themselves in traditional schools, they may no longer require to be classed as a special group. However, the reality is that both the 1944 Education Act and the Handicapped Pupils and School Health Service Regulations in 1945 were still based on the medical diagnosis. With the exception to the focus on the individuals with disabilities, it deserves to be mentioned that the 1944 Education Act does not only consider the children who suffer from impairments, but also the children with poverty. Many extra assistances were
provided such as free medical inspection and treatment as well as the provision of meals and milk (ibid). The 1944 Education Act mentioned that the LEAs to secure the provisions for all eligible pupils, which can be seen as attempting to eliminate education restriction such as gender, social class, race, and ethics.

Moreover, Myers (2009) considered that after the Second World War, the educational issue of the immigrants, as a product of the British Empire history, cannot be avoided. Immigrants’ education was developed step by step during post-war Europe and was impacted by a series of legislations and social movements. In brief, the segregated situation for the disabled individuals did not change, and inversely, it was reinforced. However, on a positive note, the new system of categorising the children’s impairments is more reliable and comprehensive. More importantly, education begins to be recognised as a fundamental right for all school-age children, as opposed to being treated as a privilege for a minority of families from the middle and upper classes.

Though the 1944 Act did not change the orthodox position of segregation, it developed the category system and at least acknowledged the disabled people’s right to education. With the influence of the civil rights movement, the perspective against the segregation blossomed in North American, Western Europe, and some other countries (Florian, 2014; Forlin, Jones and Danforth, 2015). It seems that during the 1960s and 1970s, people began to challenge the segregated provision and barriers, and the citizen’s attitudes toward disabled people gradually turned from focusing on medical diagnosis to their rights. Forlin, Jones, and Danforth (2015) described that to break down the segregation; many comprehensive schools were prepared for mainstreaming. This perspective aims to eliminate segregated education and integrate the children with SENs into mainstream education. Similar to integration, the ‘normalisation’ and ‘mainstreaming’ movements also emerged in Western Europe, Northern Europe, and North America, advocating that disabled children should have an education alongside their peers in regular schools. While these names are different, the purposes of such movements are similar; encouraging the ordinary schools to enrol children with SENs. In the 1970s, the perspectives of integration diffused around the UK, leading to some in-service teachers and parents to request the government to investigate the educational status of disabled children (Gibson and Blandford, 2005). In 1978, the famous Warnock Report was completed by Mary Warnock, who summarised that twenty per cent of children, including two per cent children with notable SEN, had learning difficulty in the schools (ibid). This survey had a substantial effect on the British educational legislation such as the 1976 Act and the 1981 Act, which essentially use the SEN to replace all categories of handicap. It can be treated as a milestone of inclusive education.
because the terms, such as deaf, blind and mute, could be seen as being discriminatory labels, while ‘SENs’ displays respect to the disabled. Therefore, by the end of the 1980s, an increasing number of children with SENs in mainstream schools requires those schools to provide more appropriate supports than ever. As a result, the integration exposes many deficiencies which restrict education that is able to satisfy individual needs. For instance, Huang and Wang (2002) argued that although the mainstream education has modified the segregated education model by enrolling children with SENs to regular school, there was no guarantee that the child will receive a quality education. Thus, the child with disabilities may experience isolation from peers, which means that if education wants to account for the various needs, it has to improve continually.

2.1.2.3 The stage of inclusion

As aforementioned, the idea of EFA was raised in the 1990s and became known throughout the world. Integration in Britain has faced many challenges, and changes had to be made to meet multiple education needs. Therefore, the people’s interest of inclusive education increases, despite conflicts of its understandings (Ainscow and Miles, 2008). The Salamanca Statement became the catalyst for developing inclusive education in the UK, which broadly utilises inclusive education as a tactics to achieve EFA. The conflict of defining inclusive education has never been stopped, which initially argues about the application object. Thus, some researchers, agree with full inclusion, believe that inclusive education should be accessible for all individuals in an educational circumstance. For example, Ainscow and Booth (1998) claimed that inclusive education should be inclusive of all students rather than a particular group, which is similar to the broad view of inclusion. Booth (1996) combined the Salamanca Statement with the UK conditions and demonstrated inclusive education links to different aspects of the society rather than limiting it to the disabled group. Similarly, Ainscow and Miles (2008) explained that inclusive education in the different layers, which includes: ‘inclusion concerned with disability and special educational needs;’ ‘inclusion as a response to disciplinary exclusions;’ ‘inclusion as being about all groups vulnerable to exclusion;’ ‘inclusion as the promotion of a school for all;’ and ‘inclusion as Education for All’ (p.17).

To sum up, many British educationalists, such as Ainscow and Booth, treat inclusion as a process rather than having a settled definition. By contrast, some other researchers’ opinion considers inclusive education is for disabled people can be defined as location sectional inclusion. This view critiques that the full inclusion could be a form of child abuse when a child is studying in the wrong circumstance for him or her (National Association of Schoolmasters
Union of Women Teachers, 2001, cited in Allan, 2008). In addition, Warnock (2005, cited in Allan, 2008) reflects that moving to inclusive education was a serious mistake because a vast amount of evidence has proved that the disabled children in the mainstream schools have traumatic experiences. From 1978 to 2005, the changes Warnock’s view toward inclusive education reflect that the full inclusion can be an objective of the education, but it would not be achieved if one aspect’s issues could not be resolved. As a further point, the UK government predicts that based on the current status and conditions, full inclusion would be achieved in 2058, with some places perhaps requiring a hundred years (DfES, 2003, cited in Allan, 2008). Although academic studies may have an impact on the relevant policies, the educational system still depends on the Education Department. Thus, the UK’s definition of inclusive education will impact on the practice of inclusive education.

Hodkinson and Vickerman (2014) pointed out that the reflection of inclusive education within the English educational system started during the election of New Labour in 1997. In that year, the Green Paper, Excellence for all Children: Meeting Special Education Needs, explained inclusive education primarily as a strategy for fully involving pupils with SEN into mainstream education. This definition is distinct from the broad view of inclusive education, which is based on medical diagnosis. Thus, the Green Paper’s definition is difficult to accept because it lacks consideration to other excluded group in the educational system. Although after the 1997 Green Paper, the UK government enacted several policies to reinforce the educational rights of children with SENs, it may not be treated as inclusive education by the adherent of full inclusion if it categorises them on medical terms. However, inclusive education is still a complicated notion presently, where it is difficult to judge whether it is right or wrong and the only thing in common in both perspectives is that they both attempt to achieve EFA. Beyond all doubt, inclusive education has a better development within the UK compared to most countries in the world because not only does it appear earlier, but it has integrated various ideas from different groups. Like Gibson and Blandford (2005) mentioned, the voices of teachers, parents, and pupils are equally meaningful to education. As the biggest developing country, China is also following the global tendency of inclusive education. The following section will review the history of inclusive education in China, including its origin and development.

2.1.3 Development of inclusive education in China

2.1.3.1 The typical issues in ancient education

The Confucianism has influenced Chinese education for thousands of years, and some Chinese
scholars believe that several ideas of Confucius could be related to inclusive education. For example, Confucius established his private school and disrupted the monopoly of government and nobility in education. He believed that every individual could have an education; therefore, in his private school, students came from different areas and social classes. When contrasting this with inclusive education, Confucius attempted to push education to only be accessible by the minority to majority and pointed out that the educational content should not be the same for everyone. Although such ideas that education should not be classified and cultivation should consider students’ characteristics, are similar to the inclusive education, it still unable to exclude feudalism. ‘Confucius’ emphasis on respect for authority, …, and on a designated social status for groups of people’ (Ellsworth and Zhang, 2007, p.59). They believe that Confucius’ educational values would be serving in official authority, which the education of populace is not an initial purpose. It is because education was established on social hierarchy and that most people from low-income families were excluded from education. Even if the people in poverty had education, the quality was much worse than the upper class.

Except for the exclusion caused by social class; gender discrimination was also a notable exclusive phenomenon in global educational history. In China, when people mention ‘education for women’ in Chinese history, the first response would be unfair and discriminatory. Xu (2012) mentioned that just male could attend schools since about 2000 BC, the Xia, Shang, and Zhou Dynasty, and women at that time have education at home only. Xiong (1994) intensively argued that the female was excluded from the school education and their social status were lower than male. Confucius may influence this issue because the analects of him have shown that it is challenging to educate a female, which is, prejudice on the female; to say that female’s intelligence are unable to cope with the learning compared to a male. Although in such unfair educational situations, there still many Chinese females such as Cai Wenji and Li QingZhao that have achieved the accomplishments that were deemed higher than their male counterparts. Feng (2015) stated that ‘mother’ and ‘wife’ restrict women’s education because traditionally, they need to look after the family, but have neglected that women are also human beings and should have the sovereign right to education. It reveals that discrimination and social morality were the reasons for the female to be excluded from education.

The current research foci here is to review the education for disabilities in Chinese history. The earliest record of disability in China can be ascended to Zhou dynasty (800-1100 BC), which explains that the physical injuries could cause blindness (Piao, 1992). The Book of Rites (Liji) advocates that a utopian society where people respect each other and every citizen should be supported, such as the widowers, widows, orphans, and individuals with disabilities in
particular. It reveals that in some cases, the opinions on disabled people are kinder than the Western cultures; where babies with intellectual impairment were killed or abandoned in ancient Rome (Deng et al., 2001). However, it is rare to see the records of education for disabled people until the end of the nineteenth century and the early twentieth century. It seems to be impacted by the negative understandings of the disability that led to discrimination (Wang and Feng, 2014). For example, superstition in ancient China was the same as the Western culture, which use to believe that individuals with disabilities may have magic power or evil spirits; and other people consider that such individuals are being punished for the sins committed in the past life by god. Therefore, for the longest time in history, the majority of people with impairments stayed at the lowest social layer and excluded from education.

Those exclusive phenomena in education began to change in the late nineteenth century because of the influence of Western culture. In 1844, the first school for school-age girls was established by a British female missionary (Feng, 2015). It broke the thousand years’ tradition that only men can learn in schools and women primarily learn household chores and family care skills. In 1898, the first school for women was established by a Chinese sponsor in Shanghai, which directly guides the trend of female education at that time. However, the female schools cannot obtain the same funding as a male’s school, and the teachers’ quality is worse than the men’s schools. It is not easy to reduce discrimination, and there were insufficient financial resources to support a large number of schools that were already available. Until 1922, the Republic of China enacted a strategy of reforming the dual system, which has officially abolished the segregated model of education for different genders (ibid). It can be seen as a landmark that gender discrimination in education was primarily solved because of the Western value human rights, which has changed the traditional Chinese view on genders. Although at that time, there was no specific term for inclusive education, the development of enrolling female students in schools could be seen as promoting inclusion in teaching.

The education for disabled people was also affected by Western value during this time. The first school for individuals with visual problems in China was also established by a foreigner, a Scottish missionary, in 1874, which began to teach disabled students some rudimentary knowledge, life skills and religious faith (Chen, 1996; Ellsworth and Zhang, 2007). Several years later, the first Chinese funded school was established, which underlined the vocational cultivation, including farming, sewing, haircutting, as well as handicraft (Deng et al., 2001). Although more and more special schools emerged, all of them were segregated, which is against the purposes of inclusive education. In modern times, China experienced chaos such as wars and social movements, which has slowed the improvement in education and some respects even
have retrogressed.

2.1.3.2 The common issues in modern education

Through several decades of efforts, Chinese education has been developed, and many educational issues have been gradually resolved. The most important event is in 1986, where the establishment of the Compulsory Education Law (CEL) has ensured that every school-age child has the chance of receiving education regardless of their backgrounds. The law stipulates that the combined years of primary and secondary education is nine years that is made compulsory for all individuals to attend (Dillon, 2009). It seems that the issues of gender discrimination and urban-rural inequality in education were improved by using National legislation. Li (2013) presented that there are approximately 90 per cent people, born after 1980, that have completed their nine-year compulsory education, which is higher than the proportion of the people born in the 1940s. The primary issue of inequity in education was gender discrimination, and it has been solved already. Li (2013) and Zang (2016) proclaimed that nowadays, boys and girls are near equal in primary schools, especially in urban areas. Although the discrimination or prejudice on genders still exists in some rural regions (Li, 2013), the gender exclusion in education has not been the most remarkable problem in education because of social development.

In modern society, the hierarchy has vanished, or it is at least ambiguous. However, the gaps between the city and country areas have become distinguishable, and indeed, reflected on Chinese education. Hannum and Park (2007) mentioned that fertile regions normally have more selections of educational resources than weak areas. The prominent instance of this phenomenon in China is the number of schools, the equipment, the educational quality, and some other resources. Although many active projects have already been operated, many researchers believe that the inequity of education between urban and suburban regions has not been changed (Wu, 2013; Tang, 2015). These inequality aspects mean that children in suburban areas are excluded from education. For example, the lack of schools means many children are unable to attend schools, and others have no choice but to drop out because they could not afford the tuition fees.

Furthermore, the teachers’ quality is worse than the cities because the schools in the cities can provide much higher salary and treatment. All those conditions have placed the students in suburban areas in a disadvantage position, in particular, when they strive for having higher education. Clearly, introducing inclusive education to China will reduce the exclusion in rural
There are plenty of studies on educational inequity, such as gender discrimination, urban-rural issues, migrants’ children and teacher-student relationship in Chinese education. However, the issues mentioned above were rarely concerned by the articles on inclusive education; most of them primarily concentrate on individuals with disabilities. The consideration of inclusive education in modern China is always linked back to the late 1980s when the government conducted research called ‘Learning in a regular classroom’ (LRC) (Xiao, 2007). This project, LRC, proposes to provide opportunities to the SEN children where they could be educated along with their peers in the local schools (Deng and Manset, 2000). It is an exploration of inclusive education that considers Chinese conditions and successfully protects the disabled individuals’ right to have the education. The LRC has similarities with the mainstreaming movement, which is a Western movement, that enrols the disabled children in the mainstream schools. However, the LRC also includes many local situations such as large populations, large class sizes, economic imbalance, and so on. Therefore, such factors enable the LRC to become a comprehensive model of practising inclusive education (Piao, 2004). However, the term of inclusive education emerged in 1994 thus the LRC is naturally linked to the inclusive education that is similar to many countries; where the disabled children’s educational rights become to the core of inclusive education in China. Yu, Su, and Liu (2011) argued that there are two main opinions with regards to the relationship between the LRC and inclusive education in China. One is that the LRC and inclusive education or mainstreaming movement are similar, which most Chinese scholars believe in; and the other is that they are different. It reflects that the Chinese studies on inclusive education could not get rid of the LRC, but the LRC is the model only concern the disabled children. However, the UNESCO defined inclusive education as a process of increasing participation and reducing exclusion in education, which means the inclusion of all children rather than a particular type. The perspectives of inclusive education behind the LRC are likely different from the UNESCO’s conception; nevertheless, this model has experienced rapid development in Chinese society.

To sum up, this section, based on the chronological order, has introduced not only the education for the people with disabilities in China but also the education for the female and the inequality of education among the social classes. According to the selected definition of inclusive education, these three examples are the common problems in educational fields; thus, it is better than focusing solely on individuals with disabilities in order to examine the effectiveness of inclusive education. According to the review, it reveals that at the end of the 19th century, the UK has far-reaching influence on the Chinese education, which is an essential reason for using
the UK as a reference in this study. Some Chinese articles describe inclusive education following the broader sense, and some other studies still focus on its narrow perspective. However, the examples of most Chinese research on inclusive education are limited to disabilities and LRC no matter how they define it. It reflects that the notion of inclusive education in China is unclear, which is a fundamental problem in this field, and this study will investigate. Besides, the working model of inclusive education, ‘LRC,’ is a critical idea in Chinese academic studies of inclusive education, which is a model that mainly concerns the disabled people. Plus, the understandings of inclusive education among scholars are different. Thus, the way ‘LRC’ developed in China and scholars’ link with inclusive education will be detailed in the next part.

2.2 Chinese practical model ‘learning in the regular classroom’

In this section, the ‘Learning in the regular classroom’ model in China will be divided into three sections. The first part will present LRC’s origin and development; the second part will discuss its relationships with the Western perspectives; the last section will concern its issues and further orientation.

2.2.1 What is ‘learning in the regular classroom?’

‘Learning in the regular classroom’ (LRC) was established in the late 1980s to solve the lack of special schools for children with disabilities (Deng and Holdsworth, 2007). It is the first time where the Chinese government is willing to place children with impairments into regular schools. The experiment of ‘LRC’ initially was conducted in Beijing, Jiangsu, Heilongjiang, Liaoning, Shandong, Shanxi, and Zhejiang provinces in 1989 (Xiao, 2007). In the following years, ‘Learning in the regular classroom’ has been improved gradually including its associated syllabus, entrance’s threshold, teaching criteria, teachers’ training, parental training and some potential issues of management (Su, Cooper, and Sin, 2017). Finally, it was written into the revision of the CEL in 2006.

‘Learning in Regular Classroom’ is influenced by the ‘integration,’ ‘mainstreaming,’ and the Chinese economy, and it has effectively increased the number of the disabled children in the schools, which remits the stress of the special schools (Li, 2015). However, many Chinese scholars believe that the LRC is an independent model with Chinese characteristics. It reflects a debate in Chinese research on inclusive education that explore the relationship between
special education, inclusive education, and the LRC. Although the existing notions of those terms are apparently different, there are still many investigators who treat inclusive education as a part of special education, and Chinese scholars have even directly use the LRC to replace inclusive education in their studies. Deng and Su (2012) argued that the Chinese educational practice could not follow the process of inclusive education wholly because it is a Western perspective born with their philosophy and culture. Therefore, using the LRC to replace inclusive education is improper, regardless of whether it is based on the broad view or narrow sense of inclusive education.

2.2.2 ‘Learning in the regular classroom’ and inclusive education

In general, although the development of LRC is impacted by mainstreaming, integration and inclusive education, there are several differences in the starting point, the purpose, the syllabus, and the theoretical basis. The majority of Chinese researchers consider LRC as a form of special education, essentially providing opportunities for children with impairments to be involved in regular schools in local areas. Deng (2004) explained that the relationship between inclusive education and the LRC is that all attempts of placing the disabled children into regular schools could be seen as inclusive education. It does not only demonstrate that there are relationships between the LRC and inclusive education but also implies that inclusive education in China may be easily confused as LRC by the educators because it is being practised by the teachers’ in their daily works.

In the relevant Chinese studies, the enrolment of students with disabilities in regular schools seems to be the researchers’ primary concern. However, the rate of enrolment cannot reflect the development of inclusive education. For example, some researchers’ opinions, for the inclusive education, argued that the regular schools could help the students with various educational needs; to study with their peers, which means inclusive education is not about the placement but the real integration (Warnock, cited in Hornby, 2015). Furthermore, there is a lack of evidence to prove that special education is more effective than inclusive education for disabled children (Lauchlan and Greig, 2015). At the same time, the children with SENs that study in the regular schools with their peers could improve their academic performance; meanwhile, there is no influence on other students’ academic achievements (Kalambouka et al., 2007; Ruijs and Peetsma, 2009). There is a general view that inclusive education agrees in terms of placing the students together and respect individuals’ needs but these opinions also highlight the importance of the educational quality. Therefore, Farrell (2000) pointed out that inclusive education is not merely about placing the disabled children in regular schools, but more
importantly, it can fulfil their needs. It reveals that the ‘LRC’ sole consideration of the placement of students is insufficient to achieve inclusive education. The next stage should satisfy the learners’ diverse needs, and finally, to achieve equal outcomes for every individual, such as equal accessibility of high-quality education and equal opportunity for jobs. It can be the aim of LRC and one of the objectives of IE, but there are many barriers and challenges in terms of achieving them.

2.2.3 The issues and orientation

As a practical model of inclusive education, the LRC faces numerous issues such as disadvantaged policies, low acceptability of the disabled persons, problems with the system, and lacking in teachers’ training as well as resources (Peng, 2011). The teachers’ training is not only a research focus on LRC but also the world’s inclusive education studies. For instance, Smith and Tyler (2011) demonstrated that effective inclusive education is about cultivating educators with necessary teaching skills and knowledge to fulfil the students’ diverse needs in education. In 2007, the European Union required that the teachers have the following; sufficient knowledge of the subjects and pedagogy; capacities to support the learners’ diversities; respect the social and cultural differences in the education; and accept new knowledge (Donnelly and Watkins, 2011). Its premise is that the teachers are a crucial role that requires high-quality training, which can decide the quality of the education regardless of any countries.

Another issue about inclusive education and the LRC in China is the social attitudes includes not only the teachers but also the local authority, community, parents. Hollenweger (2011) deemed that inclusive education should not only remain at the micro-level at the teacher-student relationship but should also include the schools’ organisation and the partnership with parents, policies and some other social factors. It reflects the importance of advocating a broad understanding of inclusive education because education or society is not only consisting of the disabled group exclusively. Thus, changing social awareness of inclusive education is a fundamental way to develop it, which should be a long journey in the future.

To conclude, the LRC is a strategy to reduce the stress of special education in the late 1980s, consequently becoming the main subject of the Chinese special education (Piao, 2004). After the concept of inclusive education was introduced to China, the LRC has also been regarded as a practical model of inclusive education because the segregated special education is seen as the most prominent opponent of the central notion of inclusive education. Although this status may mislead the people to consider the LRC as being inclusive education, its positive influences on
enabling the disabled children to attend regular schools with their peers cannot be denied. However, nowadays, the LRC is only focusing on the children with acceptable learning barriers (who can meet the school’s threshold) in the phase of compulsory education, which means that the LRC is not a rounded system when inclusive education is not present.

2.3 The widespread exclusions in education

As aforementioned, one of the leading debates of inclusive education in the world is whether disabled students should study at regular schools with their peers. However, many other unequal phenomena of education are also related to the broad idea of inclusive education particularly the key schools (the schools with high reputation); such as labelling, bullying, and migrants’ children schooling in the compulsory education phase. Although such issues may only be the tip of an iceberg in education, those unequal phenomena indeed restrict the development of inclusive education in the world, and of course, having an impact on the entire Chinese education.

2.3.1 The good school

The good school is associated with reputation, which may cause inequality in education that is against inclusive education in the world. Today, the schools are separated, by their reputation to ‘a good school’ and ‘normal school,’ which directly divides the students into different classifications. Therefore, school reputation is essential because it will affect the stakeholders’ attitudes on the school and parents’ choice for children (Skallerud, 2011). It is all about the school’s reputation, which includes the quality of employer, service quality, academic performance, good environment, and customer satisfaction, like parents and students (Skallerud, 2011, Yu, 2008).

School reputation exists due to the high competition in the education market, which forces schools to make a continuous improvement (Bunar and Ambrose, 2016). It seems that high reputation can be treated as a guarantee of high-quality education for students, and it also a guarantee of profit for schools. For example, Hollingworth and Archer (2010) pointed out that the high-quality resources and physical conditions can provide positive effects on the student’s feelings where it makes them believe their school is better than other. These researchers also believe that students’ positive feeling will motivate them to perform better academically and provide them with further their studies. Otherwise, academic achievement will be eroded by
schools’ poor reputation (Bunar and Ambrose, 2016). It reveals that the differences in students’
performance will appear not because of themselves but the different learning environment,
which is the opposite of inclusive education.

Chinese education is also profoundly affected by the schools’ reputation, but differently, the
reputation depends on the students’ academic performance in the schools. The ‘Key Schools’
was a system (KSS), which means the priority, primarily the high-quality teachers, facilities,
and funds will be given to the key schools (You, 2007; Yu, 2008). Although this system was
abolished in the 1990s, compulsory education is still running under a covered ‘key school’
system. For instance, school A has a high reputation, which will attract a vast number of
students to apply, but the placements are limited. Thus, the school will set a threshold, through
looking at academic performance to decide whether a student will be enrolled. It is indeed
happening in compulsory education in China, where the gaps among students are artificially
widened. Therefore, You (2007) illustrates that the ‘Key Schools’ system intensifies the
advantages to the ‘top students’ but impairs the benefits to the other students. The reasons are
not only the high competition of educational marketing but also a grim competition of fighting
for the higher education chance.

Overall, many children are excluded due to the ‘Key schools’ because their academic
performance cannot meet the schools’ requirements and some other conditions, such as
affordability, location and even policy, which is not inclusive and needs to be changed.
Nowadays, in most countries, equal opportunities in education exist but are still on the way to
equal education in the aspects of quality, funds, and facilities. Thus, for example, if the Chinese
education intends to approach or even achieve inclusive education, the ‘Key schools’ system
should be removed entirely.

2.3.2 Labelling

Labelling is a severe issue in education around the world, which leads the discrimination on the
individuals. Thus, it draws attention to the scholars and even governments. For instance, the
UK conducts an act, the Education Not Discrimination (END), to reduce mental health stigma
among professionals and professional trainees (Friedrich et al., 2013). Although projects such
as END are continuous, the labelling is not resolved.

Many researchers claim that the stigma put a classification into the students and consider some
of them as lacking capacity, which impedes the development of inclusion in education (Florian
and Black-Hawkins, 2011). For instance, the teachers may view certain students as not ‘smart enough’ thus would hold a different expectation for those students. In fact, labelling can be found in many studies on inclusive education because the researchers believe that many disabled students are being labelled by schools. Goodley and Runswick-Cole (2016) advocated that we should not label students quickly; otherwise, they will experience some form of dilemma. For instance, many children are labelled by their teachers as having attention deficit hyperactivity disorder (ADHD), which may be because these children are more active than their peers in classes. They will experience negative emotion may be excluded by other children (Saldanha, 2017). It is an unnecessary exclusion that can be avoided if educators can choose their words carefully. Moreover, the majority of parents report that they are unwilling to allow their children to mix with the children that have a negative label; because parents deem that those children will have negative impacts to their children (Goodley and Runswick-Cole, 2010).

The same case is happening in China, but the most common labels in Chinese schools are ‘good’ student and ‘bad’ student, which usually depends on the students’ academic performance. Those students who are ‘good’ will get more attention than the ‘bad,’ which is a type of educational discrimination and may impact the children’s growth. The students are labelled by using negative words, such as ‘bad students,’ ‘low quality,’ and ‘stupid,’. Such labelling is due to poor academic performances, or that their behaviours may violate the schools’ regulations. In many cases, the teachers will be selective and have a special treatment to the ‘good’ students initially, such as arranging these students’ seat to be closer to the teacher while lecturing and giving them more opportunities to answer questions. At the other end, the ‘bad’ students will be excluded by other students from learning together and during group activities. Also, the parents in China forbid their children to play with the ‘bad’ students in case their children learn the ‘bad’ behaviours from those ‘bad’ children. As such, it can be found that labelling is one of the significant elements that lead to the students being excluded in their schools. Therefore, educators should avoid labelling the students, especially when the labels are of a negative nature.

Labelling is a double-edged sword; a good label could bring positive effects. A typical instance is the ‘Rosenthal effect,’ where students who are labelled as ‘having potential’ will achieve a significant improvement at the end. This does not only reveal the influence of the positive label but also shows that the teachers would indeed pay more attention to the students that could perform well. Thus, labelling in education should not be eliminated, but it can be combined with inclusive value to avoid exclusion in education.
2.3.3 Bullying in school

The earliest research on bullying can be traced back to the 1970s, where Olweus has conducted studies in Norway and Sweden (Rigby, 2012). To date, bullying in schools is still an acute problem worldwide, and it slows the development of inclusive education. For example, in the UK, Side and Johnson (2014) asserted that there is fifty to eighty per cent of students that are impacted by the school bullying and about 16 children commit suicide per year due to school bullying. Similarly, in China, school bullying draws more considerable attention because it occurs commonly in compulsory education and affects children’s mental health, thus has an impact on their study.

The main types of school bullying include the use of offensive language, communication abuse, threats, ridicule, making jokes on the individuals personally, exclusion, and so on (Purdy and Guckin, 2015). Bullying can be direct or indirect, such as face to face confrontation and cyberbullying respectively (Graham, 2016). All these bullyings usually happen to the children over a period of time and will hurt the children both physically and emotionally. Sondergaard (2012) supposed that the feelings of having a meaningless existence or being misunderstood would result in emotional exclusion. In Side and Johnson’s investigation (2014), they found that all their participants who were bullied by peers reported the feelings of sad, horrible, humiliation, helplessness, anxiety, and alone, which make them feel isolated and excluded from their peers. Liu (2017) posted the same views where emotional trauma will cause feelings of exclusion to the students. An example of this is from the survey, where an account is written by a student, describes that the physical aggression sometimes could be endured, but the emotional harm is unbearable; thus, a student may commit suicide because of the isolation and exclusion. According to these reports, school bullying can be viewed as an obstacle to establishing an inclusive environment in schools.

With the appearance of the mainstreaming, integration, and inclusive education, many children with disabilities have enrolled in regular schools, which may place these children into a higher risk of bullying. Holt et al. (2017) found that the number of children with disabilities and SENs in mainstream schools has decreased, but there is an increase in segregated special schools. Furthermore, the children in the special schools have more friends compared with those who are enrolled in mainstream schools. Purdy and Guckin (2015) stated that bullying towards children with SEN is expressed as being excluded by peers deliberately. It reveals that disabled children are feeling excluded in the mainstream schools, although bullying does happen in both regular and special schools. The bullying will result with increased adverse effects to the
children with disability especially when they are specifically targeted at their disability which will leave them feeling inferiority, becoming an introvert, and lack confidence (Graham, 2016). Therefore, the bullying and exclusion will reinforce their pessimistic attitudes, which ignites sharp conflict on the placement of the children with SENs, which is a vital concern of inclusive education.

2.3.4 Migrants’ children

The education problems of children from migrants’ families exist in many countries, but the essential controversies are different. For instance, the issue in a developed country such as the USA and UK seem to pay more attention to the group of overseas migrants and refugees. The number of migrant children from overseas living in Western countries has increased due to globalisation, which brings some new requirements for local education (Rubinstein-Avila, 2017). Roucek (1962) and Hilt (2017) mentioned that language barrier and cultural conflict are obstacles to the migrants’ children, and the school should take the responsibility to help them to integrate to the new environment. Although the schools in the Western countries provide language classes to migrants’ children, the exclusion towards them still exist. This is evident that not only the disabled children have SENs, but also all children do when they meet the problems in education, such as different languages, learning styles and living habit. Therefore, inclusive education should be considered broadly to different types of individuals rather than focusing on disabled children.

China primarily faces domestic migration (from one province to another), and the country’s educational issues are also different from the Western countries. The migrants’ children schooling issues, by contrast, are caused by the interprovincial migrant in China. It is because of the rapidly industrialising and urbanisation in the past decades, which results in internal migrants (Cheng, 2011; Liu et al., 2017). Although CEL underlines equal rights for all school-age children, the reality is much more complicated compared to the national regulation. The migrants’ children are still suffering from the unequal education condition compared with the local children, which is directly impacted by the household system, a residential registration system (Wang and Holland, 2011). This system is highly criticised by many Chinese scholars in their investigations, especially in developed cities such as Beijing, Shanghai, and Guangzhou.

The majority of the migrants’ children in a big city mainly experience unequal enrolment in public school, discrimination, and lifestyle. Solinger (1999, cited in Cheng, 2011) found that the migrants’ children enrolment is only forty per cent in Beijing, but the local children
enrolment rate is nearly one hundred per cent, which happens in Shanghai as well (Zhu, 2001). At the same time, there are also a considerable number of left-behind children staying at home without their parents. Liu et al. (2017) argued that the left-behind children should also be considered as a type of migrants’ children and their educational situations are even worse than the children living with their parents in the cities. It seems that the government statistic of the migrants’ children enrolment does not take account of the left-behind children; therefore, though the data looks like an improvement, it is incomplete. Although the government enacts new regulations to improve the schoolings of the migrants’ children, the unequal phenomena have changed very little, and recently, there is even an increased number of migrants that have reported that they feel excluded from the host cities.

In summary, this section presented several typical exclusive phenomena in education, which reflects that exclusion could befall to anyone in any given location. Thus, the perspective of inclusive education should not be limited to the disabled children, but the focus should also be placed to all vulnerable groups in the education. Also, exclusion in education has been thoroughly covered in the research. Issues surroundings the minimisation of these exclusive actions and to establish an inclusive studying circumstance to all children should be considered. In the following section, the British index for inclusion will be introduced, which can inspire schools to establish an inclusive learning circumstance for every child and staff. Also, it can be used as a reference to this research to create an index for inclusion but under Chinese conditions.

2.4 The index for inclusion

The index for inclusion is a guide for schools to improve inclusive education comprehensively. Booth and Ainscow established the Index for Inclusion published by the CSIE at the beginning of the 21st century. It depends on the broad understanding of inclusive education and aims to support schools to build their inclusive environment for all (Booth and Ainscow, 2002, 2011, 2016; Vaughan, 2002). Collins (2012) described the index as being a useful material for self-reflection and supporting each school’s design through taking consideration of the requirements of various stakeholders such as government, teachers, families, and society. Brausteiner and Mariano-Lapidus (2017) underlined that this index expertly guides the schools to create an inclusive culture for all. Thus, the index for inclusion in the educational field is about establishing the learning environment and other schools’ settings, which eventually support the development of every individual in a harmonious community.
2.4.1 The relevant discussion on the index

There are three dimensions in this index of promoting inclusion, as shown in Figure 2 below.

![The three dimensions of the Index](image)

Figure 2 Three dimensions of the Index for Inclusion (adopted from Booth and Ainscow, 2002, p.7).

There are two sections in each dimension: building community and establishing inclusive values for creating inclusive cultures; developing the school for all and organizing support for diversity for the policies dimension and orchestrating learning and mobilizing resources for the evolving inclusive practices (ibid). This Index can be seen as a self-check form including forty-four indicators in all three dimensions and the schools’ principals and teachers can assess the parts that they need to reinforce in their future work by using the Index. Five phases are included in a cyclical approach to process the Index: getting started with Index; finding out together; arranging a plan; implementing and reviewing progress (Carrington and Duke, 2014). These processes can provide some useful insights for researchers who are developing an index of inclusion.

The Index seems to be accepted widely, which was re-published in 2011 and 2016 and has been translated into many different languages and introduced to the world including both developed countries such as the USA, Australia, most European countries as well as other developing countries. This clearly reflects that this Index is helpful to have a broad view improvement of inclusive education in schools. Compared to the various research that focus on the disabled group, the studies on broad sense is relatively monotonous. The British Index for inclusion appears to be the first and only mature system of having a broad understanding of inclusive education; it serves as an example to other countries where it is adopted and revised accordingly to local conditions. According to the aims and purposes of this project, it is important to utilise
the British Index to establish an initial index in China. The British Index can not only be a reference but also will propagate the broad perspective of inclusion and further bring a positive attitude towards diversity in education.

The Index reflects many Western values that may not be entirely appropriate to other areas, especially developing countries. Armstrong, Armstrong and Spandagou (2010) supposed that this Index is a tool with the Western vision of inclusive education that carries specific Western values. Futaba (2016) advocated that if inclusive education in Japan intends to be developed like the Western countries, the system has to be changed entirely into the Western model. It means the existing Index cannot work in all conditions properly and finding out a proper standard is necessary. Similarly, Nes (2009) argued that the Index developed with British schools, which would be more suitable to ‘the North’ than ‘the South.’ It is understandable that there are a variety of cultures and languages, which will lead to different understandings of the Index in specific ways. Thus, any countries, whether they are developed or developing countries, must be cautious when using the Index. For example, the Index relies on the broad perspective of inclusive education, but in some areas, inclusive education seems to link to dealing with impaired children. Therefore, when those countries use the Index, they should take consideration of the gap. Furthermore, in a non-English speaking country, the Index has to be translated, which may result in deviation. Alborno and Gaad (2014) mentioned that inclusive education in many developing countries is treated as a particular manner to cultivate students with learning difficulties in traditional education system. In other words, in many developing countries, inclusive education is at its early stage, which means that the Index would not be suitable because accessing all five phases will be a challenge, based on how they understand and practise inclusive education. Conversely, the Index could be evaluated and modified by the developed countries through employing the whole phases and adapting it with local conditions, as evident with the implementation in Australia and Norway (Deppeler and Harvey, 2004; Nes, 2009). It reveals that the various culture features and social conditions create distinctive learning barriers that cannot simply be solved by a unified standard (Nes, 2009).

2.4.2 Comparative research between the Chinese system and the index

Chinese education lacks a comprehensive framework of inclusive education to guide its schools. As aforementioned, the understandings of inclusive education in China are still varied, although, in most theoretical studies, inclusive education is related to a broad perspective. It seems that the Index will be suitable to be implemented in China, but currently, the Index is only used in Hong Kong and Taiwan. It is currently not in use within mainland China, and there are barely
any results on relevant research pertaining to the Index when searching the Index within the biggest Chinese academic database, China National Knowledge Infrastructure (CNKI). Linlin Mo (2016) has published a similar study that was working on establishing the indicators for the LRC, which initially focused on the disabled students and promotes education quality for them. There are two core dimensions, including the teaching process and education effects (Mo et al., 2016). It reflects the different purposes between the Index for Inclusion and the indicators; one is to improve an inclusive learning environment; the other is to enhance the teaching quality. Moreover, compared with the Index’s cyclical phases, the procedures for the Chinese indicators for LRC are shown in Figure 3, which is a linear process.

Figure 3 The steps of establishing the construction of the indicators for LRC (translated from Mo et al., 2016)

Mo et al. (2016) claimed that the Index for Inclusion is one of the vital references to establish their indicators. However, the purposes and the sphere of application are restricted. Therefore, this evaluation system can partially improve inclusive education in China. Meanwhile, there are too many Chinese studies on ‘LRC,’ which will result in teachers and even society to equalise the ‘LRC’ and inclusive education. It reveals that the lack of Index with Chinese conditions is a blank space of inclusive education in China, which is an important target of this study.

According to the previous description, it can be seen that the index for inclusion has already been applied in more than 30 countries and areas since 2002. During the period from 2002 to
2017, this index has been re-printed and highly developed with different conditions outside the UK and adopted by Hong Kong and Taiwan in China. However, for Mainland China, although a few articles mentioned this index, it is not adopted so far, and very few scholars intend to develop it with Chinese conditions. Before establishing the index in China, the gaps, between the theory and reality, the UK and China, will firstly be explored because those differences may directly impact on whether the indicators can be adopted in Chinese schools. Subsequently, this study will assess all data based on recent research questions and the existing studies to further set up an initial index with Chinese conditions, which would be a guideline for the schools and a reference for the further research. Therefore, the next section will start with a comparison of inclusive education between China and the UK by critically analysing academic articles.

2.5 Comparison of academic studies on inclusive education between the UK and China

Over the past two decades, inclusive education has been improved in several fields, such as practical action, policy, teachers’ cultivation, and academic research. Inclusive education seems to have blossomed particularly in the field of practice; but the consideration of conceptual and disciplinary thoughts is limited, which restricts the development of inclusive education (Danforth and Jones, 2015). It reflects that although the practice of inclusive education is getting better and better, the conceptual research is still an essential study area because it is a guide and basis of inclusive education improvement. One of the noticeable things is whether the conception and practical action of inclusive education always link to the special education, which could be a primary issue of conceptual research of inclusion.

This part will explore the understandings and situations of the Chinese and British inclusive education at the academic level. To achieve this result, the section will identify the similarities and differences of inclusive education between the two countries. At the same time, to deal with further research, the conceptual debates have to be evaluated. Therefore, this is an important section whether as an independent research area or a basis of inclusive practice in education. In this part, the data is gathered from other academic articles and the interviews with the experts.

The analyses will be divided into two components: British and Chinese scholars’ understandings of inclusive education with two sub-sections for each section. In addition, the analysis of the existing studies will also allow this research to discover the potential contributing factors from China’s inclusive education. For China, it will not only offer a chance
to present the experiences of Chinese inclusive education to the world but also offer an opportunity for China to learn about the different perspectives of inclusive education from the world. For inclusive education, conceptual research can transfer the value of inclusion and receive various understandings from the Eastern culture at the same time. According to the previous sections, the emergence and general development of inclusive education will not be the main consideration; instead the researchers’ attitudes and understandings toward inclusive education will be evaluated principally.

2.5.1 The British scholars’ understanding of inclusive education

Nowadays, there are many conventional understandings of inclusive education, such as social inclusion and equal educational rights. However, scholars are observing it from different angles, and therefore the concept of inclusive education is yet to be solidified. Although inclusive education seems to be raised and developed in education, it is not the only conception extend merely but also a critical and re-thinking product.

Selecting British inclusive education as a reference point is an excellent example to make improvement recommendation for the Chinese inclusive education. It is because as one of the earliest countries implementing mainstream schools, British inclusive education is already highly developed and have been one of the most advanced in the world. Most importantly, many Chinese studies on inclusive education seem to be affected by British research, which can be found in the literature that was discussed in the previous sections.

As seen within the literature review, it is easy to find that some scholars and countries treat inclusive education as an ultimate goal or the education ideal within special education. At this point, the relationship between inclusive education and special education can be considered as a familiar debate in every country. In addition to this, another divergence is the way of accepting and cultivating the students with special educational needs. Those two research topics in the UK could help the other countries, particularly the developing countries; to explore a specific way to practise inclusive education and further understanding. Therefore, this section will be based on existing British research and an interview with a British Professor (BP1) to have a comprehensive understanding of inclusive education.
2.5.1.1 Conception and divergence of inclusive education in the UK

A representative definition of inclusive education is proposed by Ainscow, Booth, and Dyson, who emphasised that education for all should not only focus on ‘whether and where children educated, but also look at their participation and their achievement’ (Messiou, 2017, pp.147). It can be treated as a general view of inclusive education currently, which moves focuses from the children’s enrolment and placement to the education quality. However, similar to other concepts, the understandings of inclusive education are varied and could just be classified as having a broad or narrow view, where the attention is focused on all students or specific groups. Although there are different understandings of inclusive education, everyone that has an educational right should be admitted, and this should be the foundation in education.

In general, the broad understanding of inclusive education stresses that education should fulfil all the students’ needs, but the narrow view pays more attention to the disabled groups. Based on the broad understanding of inclusive education, Ainscow and Booth (1998) proposed that inclusive education should not only be applied to the students with special educational needs, but it should apply to all students. In the meantime, Booth claimed that inclusive education is a dynamic process rather than a statement, which is mainly to increase students’ participation and reduce educational exclusion. He believed that students should participate in learning, community, and culture; meanwhile, the exclusive phenomena in education is unacceptable (ibid). It seems that inclusive education is no longer an issue between integration and separation, but a debate on inclusion and exclusion. In 1997, many advocators of the Green paper profusely refused the social exclusion and proposed to establish an inclusive society (Giddens, 1998). The Green paper includes helping the disadvantaged groups and supporting the people who were neglected by the society. Therefore, inclusion is an essential element of British policy that has become one process to deal with exclusion, which has impacted the educational field. The Green paper makes inclusive education rise from the educational field to a higher level of society. Hodkinson (2011, p.181) illustrated that “inclusion must be a broad church with solid foundations where exclusion from society is accepted as having a common basis in ‘intolerance to difference’” (cited from Booth, 2000, p.122). Thus, from this broad perspective inclusion applies to special educational needs, race, culture, social positions, age, ethnicity, gender, and sexual orientation. In 2018, the Centre for Studies on Inclusive Education updated the meaning of inclusion in education which are:

1. Putting inclusive values into action.
2. Viewing every life and every death as of equal worth.
3. Supporting everyone to feel that they belong.
4. Increasing participation for children and adults in learning and teaching activities, relationships, and communities of local schools.
5. Reducing exclusion, discrimination, barriers to learning and participation.
6. Restructuring cultures, policies and practices to respond to diversity in ways that value everyone equally.
7. Linking education to local and global realities.
8. Learning from the reduction of barriers for some children to benefit children more widely.
9. Viewing differences between children and between adults as resources for learning.
10. Acknowledging the right of children to an education of high quality in their locality.
11. Improving schools for staff and parents/carers as well as children.
12. Emphasising the development of school communities and values, as well as achievements.
13. Fostering mutually sustaining relationships between schools and surrounding communities.
14. Recognising that inclusion in education is one aspect of inclusion in society.

(http://www.csie.org.uk/inclusion/what.shtml)

Clearly, this meaning of inclusion in education shows a broad view that does not only concern the students with SEN but also all the individuals in schools. Importantly, inclusive education should be treated as a part of inclusion in society, not an independent field. Runswick-Cole (2011, p.113) argued that ‘inclusive education is conceptualised as being about more than the simple geography of where a child is educated – in mainstreaming or special school – rather it is concerned with education for all and the benefit of an inclusive approach in the wider society.’ On this perspective, Professor BP1 concerns inclusion in education with three elements:

‘How I understand the notion of inclusion? It has, for me, three elements, which is about the participation of everybody. But then also, in order to develop the participation of everybody, we have to construct the systems, laws, policies, and settings, schools, universities, colleges, that respond to the diversity of everybody in ways that value equally. So that is the second element about system settings. And the third element, which gives the motivation for being involved in inclusion and reducing exclusion. The third element is the inclusion is a concern with putting values into action ……’

Apparently, Professor BP1 extended his idea of inclusion in education further emphasising the process of considering the students’ diversity, system settings, and action. This further proves that inclusion is a part of society; thus, inclusive education cannot only focus on educational
affairs. If inclusive education aims to accommodate the students’ diversity, it would require supports from various aspects at the same time. Therefore, Thomas (2013, p.474) asserted that ‘inclusion has to be conceived with many surfaces – disability, and social justice, no less – but now other facets of life at school: community, social capital, equality and respect’. It seems that the broad opinion of inclusive education is the common perspective in the educational domain, but in fact, it is not generally accepted. Thomas (2013) pointed out that a comprehensive understanding of inclusive education is emerged and changed that would mainly have been forced upon by social and political influences rather than education. Within the British political and educational system, inclusive education seems to be treated as cultivating disabled students with their peers within the same local schools (Hodkinson, 2005, 2011). Hodkinson further argued that the updated definition of inclusive education advocates ‘all pupils in a school, regardless of their weakness in any area, become part of the school community,’ which are difficult to accept because both definitions link to locational inclusion (ibid). Although many British scholars urge that inclusion in education should be considered as more than special education, it seems the narrow opinion is currently the dominant idea that is being understood. Professor BP1 has proved this: ‘I think there’s an element of English culture in the index, but if you were to look at the values which predominate in the English education system at the moment, it is very different from the values framework of the Index.’

It reveals that the purpose of an education idea is to benefit and improve education; thus, the inclusion in education would not be accepted entirely before the practice is highly effective and the educational system is appropriate. Although there is still a debate regarding the process of developing inclusive, the British education system seems to move toward the inclusion in education. The next section will focus on detailed components of inclusive education, such as its basis, who and where should be involved.

### 2.5.1.2 Further discussion of Inclusive education


1. **Inclusion as concerned with disability and ‘special educational needs.’**
2. **Inclusion as a response to disciplinary exclusions.**
3. **Inclusion as about all groups vulnerable to exclusion.**
4. **Inclusion as the promotion of a school for all.**
5. **Inclusion as education for all.**
Indeed, those five points could be seen as the ‘favoured’ topics in the inclusive education research field. The first seems to be the most common consideration of inclusive education, basically enrolling the students with impairments in mainstream schools. Inclusive education, in this opinion, is always linked to special education. Professor BP1 quoted:

‘……special education is a way of not recognizing the barriers to learning and participation that exist within education settings and systems …… I have said that special education is a failed experiment, but it is one that we constantly repeat and, and is repeated around the world. It is a way of not looking at what needs to happen to improve education.’

Just focusing on individuals with disability and SENs within inclusive education is a narrow way to understand inclusive education. It may resolve some problems within the educational system, but those are the surface issue, which cannot fundamentally improve education.

Furthermore, inclusive education also raised the debate that who and where should be involved. With regards to the placement, both the broad and narrow view supports that the elementary concept of inclusive education is that all students should study together in ordinary schools. They believe that the segregated system is not ideal in terms of respecting these individuals’ educational rights and choices. However, to date, the educational conditions are limited, which cannot achieve the goal that all students are learning together. Therefore, many researchers and educators that do not agree with the concept of inclusive education critique the inclusive education as a utopian ideal that is difficult to put the theory into practice. For instance, Croll and Moses (2000, p.7) found that some British officers and educators ‘strongly qualified by a sense of limited practicality.’ Another example, Warnock (2005 cited in Thomas, 2013), who changed her side from a supporter to an objector, believed that the move to inclusive education seems to be a mistake that the inclusive education is impracticality and the children could benefit from special schools. With the exception of placement, which should be involved in inclusive education is another important ‘battlefield.’ Clearly, the broad understanding of inclusive education covers every individual rather than targeted at a specific group. As mentioned, by contrast, some would focus solely on individuals with disability and SENs.

Although the narrow perspective may not be convincing in theoretical research, it would be the predominant idea in practice and practical research. Thomas (2013, p.477-478) claimed that ‘Inclusive education has to become more than a synonym for special systems in mainstream schools, more than a peripheral dimension to mainstream education.’ It indirectly reflects that the current situation of inclusive education studies is still tied with special education and
mainstreaming. However, it is difficult to judge which conception is correct because the researchers stand on very different working positions, disciplines, experiences, and philosophical and educational values. Thus, Aniscow and Cesar (2006) treated the concern with disability and SENs as a significant way to think about inclusion in education.

In terms of the involvement of inclusive education, Ballard (1995, edited by Clark et al.) claims that the school should take responsibility for the students that require SENs. Similarly, Potts and Sebba (1996, cited by Aldaihani, 2010) illustrated that the school is the central element that carries out inclusion in education. Oppositely, Aniscow’s perspective of inclusive education above not only highlights the effect of the schools but also points out the social influences. Professor BP1 also deems that the society has strong links with inclusion in education,

‘I think, as you said, inclusion is a dynamic process. Thinking about any aspect of society is a dynamic process.’

Majority of contemporary events are related, including education. Education involves at the very least; students, teachers, schools’ staff, parents, communities, and local educational authorities, which makes it a complicated environment to satisfy everyone’s requirement. The school alone could not fulfil everyone’s requirement. Therefore, if the responsibility of executing inclusive education solely dependent on schools, it would have limited improvement.

Most of the theoretical research on inclusive education mostly focus on the philosophical components of inclusion in education. Therefore, the underlying philosophy that underpins the inclusive education can be another important research orientation in the field. Equality is an unavoidable topic, regardless of the perspective of inclusive education within the research, which has a relationship to human right. For example, UNESCO’s definition of inclusive education stated that every child has the rights to study in the regular educational system (UNESCO, 2009). It means that if a child is segregated from the regular school due to a form of ‘disability,’ such treatment is considered a violation of human rights, which is just as severe as other pressing issues such as gender discrimination and racism. However, Farrell (2000) demonstrated that inclusive education would have issues if the studies only consider human rights.

According to the research on inclusive education in the UK, Huang (2004) summarised three primary considerations that the research related to the UK have argued. Firstly, every student, indeed, must have the right to having an education in mainstream schools, but placing all students in regular schools is not a simple task. Runswick-Cole (2011) found that some children
with ‘learning difficulties’ are unhappy in mainstream schools because they are barely respected or understood by others. On the surface, placing children with disabilities or SENs in the mainstream schools protects their rights to have the education with their peers. However, if the inclusion value is not accepted by, say, social mainstream, they cannot easily achieve equal rights of education. Because if inclusive education only aims to achieve formalistic equality like enrolment rate, once the objective is achieved, no one would care whether the further stage is fair. Secondly, educational rights need to be considered carefully. Obviously, every student will be influenced by the learning circumstance more or less in the school, and all of them have rights to receive an education. If these students have a negative with each other, it would be difficult to guarantee that everyone is treated equally. Thirdly, the rights to choose the school. Huang (2004) claimed that if all special schools are closed, the parents, as well as the children, will lose their rights to choose the type of schools of their choice. It cannot be denied that some parents may not want to send their children to mainstream schools, which is also a human right. Through these considerations, only relying on human rights is insufficient to build or improve inclusion in education.

2.5.1.3 Summary

This section explores the several academic understandings and views of inclusive education in the UK by examining several pieces of literature and an interview. Many controversies are reflected, where the debates are not limited just in the UK but also around the world. Furthermore, this section looks at the inside of inclusive education to discuss the human rights of inclusive education, which may be one of the basics or origins of inclusive value.

Overall, despite the difficulty of finding a unified definition, the relevant theoretical research on inclusive education is necessary because inclusive value, as a positive attitude, should be spread and accepted by the society prior to executing it practically. Although inclusive education has a variety of understandings, there is no right or wrong because as Hodkinson’s claimed in 2011, the definitions of inclusive education are with locational characteristics. Professor BP1 also mentioned that the different conditions would have an impact on inclusive education,

‘There is a range of answers within every culture and every education system, ..., as far as I know, I can tell most cultures have a conflict.’

Thus, the following section will explore inclusive education in China, which will also be based on academic research and an interview with a Chinese professor (CP1).
2.5.2 Chinese scholars’ understandings of inclusive education

Inclusive education can be a relatively new theme in the Chinese educational field, although it has been proposed for more than twenty years. This is because as a country with a huge population, a new educational value could not be accepted quickly, especially from the different cultural background. When comparing China and UK of applying inclusive education, China seems to be lagging, which means Chinese inclusive education have much space for development currently and also in the future.

For a long time, a significant purpose of the Chinese educational system is to select a person with ability. It creates intense competition and exclusion within the Chinese education system. For example, teachers prefer to work with students with excellent academic performance and provide extra attention to such students. Also, having an outstanding academic achievement is a ‘ticket’ to receiving high education, which is the only way to achieve success according to the traditional Chinese mindset. Fortunately, this old trend is gradually weakened in the recent decade due to social development. It is a good signal that teachers may treat the student as an equal individual regardless of their academic performance, which is a progress in the field of inclusive education.

Similar to many countries, Chinese studies on inclusive education are concentrated on the development history, comparative studies, and practice evaluation (Zhang and Zhang, 2014). The research on the way to understand inclusive education emerges endlessly. In order to understand inclusive education in China, the professionals’ perspectives will be initially considered including several studies by Meng Deng, Zhicheng Huang as well as La, Li, and the interview with the professor (CP1) in a Chinese university. These scholars can be treated as experts of inclusive education in China.

2.5.2.1 Conception and discussion of inclusive education

Inclusive education in China could not be separated from special education, which is linked to the LRC model in practice. This strong relationship makes the understandings and relevant research on inclusive education be impacted by special education. According to some researchers’ works, their perceptions of inclusion are relevant in a broader perspective. For example, Huang (2004) demonstrated several points of inclusive education:
Inclusive education pays attention to human rights, democracy, equality, participation, and cooperation.

Inclusive education claims that the segregated special schools should be abolished, and the mainstream schools should accept all students.

Inclusive education objects to the discrimination and exclusion and concentrates on participation and cooperation in school.

Inclusive education encourages ordinary schools to pay more attention to students with learning difficulties.

Inclusive education not only requires the schools accepting all students, but also increases their participation and fulfils their needs.

Inclusive education admits the diversity in the school.

Inclusive education cultivates students in accordance with their aptitude.

Inclusive education deems the curricula need to adapt students, not the oppositely.

Inclusive education requires various teaching model.

Inclusive education challenges the educational system, practice, and value.

(Cover page)

These points reflect Huang’s understanding of inclusive education as a broad view that considers all students and diversities in education, although he particularly mentioned the segregated special schools. With the progress of inclusive education around the world, Huang (2010) claimed that inclusive education as a global tendency would be an approach to achieve social inclusion. In his article, inclusive education should be promoted to the social level, which is an extension of the former view of including society as well as the schools. This perspective of inclusive education is similar to many British standpoints that are observing it from the broad perspective of inclusion.

In another Chinese scholar’s studies, inclusive education seems to be tied with special education. Deng and Poon-McBrayer (2003) proposed that the definition of inclusive education and the boundary between inclusive education and mainstreaming or integration are vague. They argued that:

‘If we stand by the broad perspective of inclusive education, we could neglect the tiny differences among inclusion, integration, and mainstreaming. Thus, we can treat all attempts, that placing children with special education needs in the ordinary schools fully or selectively, as the inclusive education. If we say so, learning in the regular classroom should be a part of inclusive education.’ (p.4-5)
The scholars clearly understand that inclusive education has different ways to understand. However, their description above will mislead others, which inclusive education is equal to mainstreaming, integration, and even learning in the regular classroom. Although such ideas share some similar points, it neither means they are exactly the same, nor their difference can be neglected, especially regarding inclusive education. Deng and Poon-McBrayer further argue that:

‘In Western countries, whether the inclusive education, mainstreaming or integration, ..., the purposes are to make the special children attend the traditional schools with peers equally and receive appropriate education rely on their special needs; then to pursue the high-quality special education’ (p.5).

Based on this opinion, Deng and Poon-McBrayer may prefer the narrow notion of inclusive education that relates to the special education and students with special educational needs. However, Deng also presented the cultural and social conditions that influence the conception of inclusive education, which leads his attention to localising the term of inclusive education. Deng and Su (2012) pointed out that the notion of inclusive education relies on Western politics, economy, and culture, which is significantly different from the oriental tradition. Thus, inclusive education cannot be directly implemented in China in both theoretical understanding and practice. Furthermore, Deng and Jing (2013) distinguished that the LRC model (Sui ban jiu du) is conditional not the inclusive education, and also critiqued the Chinese word ‘sui,’ which means ‘with’ in English. It seems to be fine in English like ‘studying with peers,’ but in Chinese ‘with’ (sui) has different meanings that require the students with SENs to follow their peers’ step in education. If they cannot follow up, ‘sui’ means these students can stay at the regular school whatever they learn or not (ibid). They highlighted that the term, learning in the same class, should be better than learning in the regular classroom because ‘same’ means same rights, same environment, same status, and same education (ibid). Although Deng concentrated on creating an appropriate inclusive education in China, special education is still the centre focus in many Chinese studies. It is a common phenomenon that a researcher claims that inclusive education involves all students, but their examples are all about special education. It will be a barrier to improvement of inclusive education, especially the inclusive value and will also lead others’, such as pre-service and in-service teachers to have a different understanding of inclusive education and thus further impacting the practical side of inclusive education. Therefore, moving from a special group to general group is necessary to establish inclusive education and even inclusive value. To discuss the Chinese scholars’ understandings of inclusive education, Li (2009) argued that many researchers’ perspectives of inclusion in education are related to the LRC, and they believe that learning in the regular classroom is equal
to inclusive education. Hence, the scholars that support this opinion directly use inclusive education to describe LRC in their works. Li criticised that,

‘Inclusive education has no clear definition based on both Chinese and international studies ... Inclusive education is more like an idea or an educational philosophy, which is not a specific operation or a practical model.’ (ibid, p.5)

Most Chinese scholars know or accept inclusive education is about all individuals, and they believe that it is a beautiful prospect of education because of its democratic, equal, and comprehensive value. However, inclusive education has become a dominant topic in special education, which will bring many problems for readers to differentiate between these two fields. It makes a narrow understanding of inclusive education which could become an obstacle to the progress of inclusion in education and even in society. Therefore, Li (2011) further explained inclusive education, including its origin, research scope, idea, orientation, and practice by introducing the broad perspective of inclusive education. For example:

‘Inclusive education derives from education for all ... Its theoretical basis is not only from special education but the entire education field ... Its research scope is far more than special education, which covers the whole education and objects to all exclusion and discrimination. If inclusive education is restricted by special education, it will impact on both research field negatively.’ (p.16-17)

The Chinese professor (CP1) who accepted an interview has claimed that:

‘Inclusive education highlights the diversity, and education should serve all children, not specific children.’

Although the theoretical studies on inclusive education were conducted every year, Chinese researchers prefer to discuss the relationship between LRC and inclusive education rather than the inclusive value itself. In addition, whether such international values, especially Western perspectives, much attention is placed whether it could be practised in China.

2.5.2.2 Further discussion of inclusive education

According to the analysis above, it can be found that many Chinese researchers clearly understand inclusive education following a broad perspective. However, they cannot get rid of the influences of LRC and special education. Thus, this section will observe the details of inclusive education to evaluate inclusive education in China further.

Professor CP1 believed that:
In China, inclusive education was misunderstood, which treat our model, learning in the regular classroom, as same as inclusive education. However, these are two different things. Our LRC is a classified education, but inclusive education stresses the diversity in education.

He revealed that the essences of LRC and inclusive education are not of the same concept. The nature of LRC is a practical model of special education, which is to deal with the lack of special schools in the 1980s and impacted by mainstreaming and integration. Thus, the relations between LRC and inclusive education could be as similar to the mainstreaming and inclusive education. Considering Aniscow and Cesar’s (2006) five ways of considering inclusive education, the LRC should be related to the special educational needs, but it cannot represent inclusive education in its entirety. Therefore, the researchers directly use LRC instead of inclusive education.

Professor CP1 further analysed these two concepts and stated the following:

‘Learning in the regular classroom is designed to provide an opportunity, that sitting and learning with peers, to the children with disability. Inclusive education underlines the educational quality, which means all children must receive a quality education.’

It displays that there is a noticeable difference when pursuing the quantity and quality in education between LRC and inclusive education. Based on this point, LRC is more of an idea of placement that concentrates on providing places to the disabled children in mainstream schools initially, but less concerning whether they could learn in those schools’ environment. Inclusive education moves beyond the thought of placement because a single place is unable to make students feel involved at all, whether it is the students, or their peers are the one with the disability.

In recent years, a term, called ‘Rong He Jiao Yu,’ emerged in China, which could be translated as integration or inclusive education. Many Chinese researchers treat ‘Rong He Jiao Yu’ as inclusive education because they believe that the different Chinese words are the issue of translation (Ge and Yang, 2016). One term in English with different translations in Chinese would make the readers, especially the new researchers, confused. Oppositely, some researchers consider ‘Rong He Jiao Yu’ and inclusive education as entirely different (ibid). As a result, researchers claimed that ‘Rong He Jiao Yu’ is the same as ‘integration’ and ‘mainstreaming,’ which mainly provides the opportunity to the children with disability to have an education in mainstream schools with their peers. However, the discussion of translation is meaningless because explanation and practicality are the most important. Therefore, if the
Chinese researchers use the word ‘integration’ (Rong He Jiao Yu) and actually include the values of inclusive education, as those wordings are of course can be treated exactly to mean inclusive education and vice versa. Based on this opinion, it is understandable that LRC becomes the dominant practical model in the Chinese educational system because the integration (Rong He Jiao Yu) underpins the education rather than the broader inclusive value. It reflects that on the surface, Chinese researchers or governments advocate inclusive education, but still settle on the stage of ‘mainstreaming’ or ‘integration.’ In Professor CP1’s perspective: ‘In fact, there are two ways in China. We claim we should improve inclusive education, but the reality is we are developing special education. It can be found easily that all the measures and investment are serving special education ... Thus, inclusive education is a slogan.’

Regardless of the actual meaning from the discussion above or are understood by the Chinese scholars, it can be found that the development and understanding of inclusive education are restricted by special education. This means that some researchers may accept the broad perspective of inclusive education, but the public would barely understand the inclusive value. Most researchers recognise that the importance of promoting inclusive education is to broadcast the inclusive value (Jiang, 2013; Chen and Wang, 2016). However, if inclusive education cannot be separated from special education or LRC, ordinary individuals would not accept the inclusive value or even hear about it. Of course, there is a variety of obstacles of improving inclusive education in reality, such as the social development level, the financial condition, the cultural legacy, and even the personal experience despite the Chinese researchers’ efforts in trying to introduce it more broadly. Clearly, the propaganda of inclusive education needs an appropriate understanding containing both local characteristics and broad perspective before introducing it to the public, which is an essential purpose of this study.

Due to the global influence of inclusion, many Chinese researchers also pointed out that the debate of inclusive education’s understanding does not only includes where but also the who and how to be involved, which apparently are the primary question in inclusive education (Chen and Wang, 2016). Whether inclusive education should concern all children or a specific group and whether the children with disability should be enrolled in mainstream schools are the two aspects of responding to the question of ‘who’. According to the relevant studies, disabled students are the most common example (Deng and Poon-McBrayer, 2003; Huang, 2004; and Deng and Su, 2012). The evidence is not only present within these articles but also can be found in the statistics, which was completed by Zhang and Zhang in 2014. Although the statistics cannot pinpoint that the Chinese researchers are only concerned about the disabled children in inclusive education, it at least shows that the majority of discussions are based on disabled
students. On this, many scholars have an in-depth discussion as to whether disabled students should be involved in regular schools. The typical results are that they should be involved but not all disabled students because the practical model - LRC seems not to be competent enough. For example, Professor CP1 argued that: ‘We have practised learning in the regular classroom for decades, but we summarise sitting in the regular classroom seems to be more apropos to describe their states in schools.’

A single word difference makes a considerable discrepancy in practice, which reflects that the practice of inclusive education in China is ineffective; in particular the education quality. However, this model is still working and draws more attention than ever. It is easy to see that inclusive education involves disabled children in many articles, but the researchers do not deny that inclusive education should be broader than the examples that they have presented in their studies.

In much Chinese research, the term inclusive education is established based upon Western values, which may not be entirely suitable in Chinese society. Therefore, Deng and his colleagues profoundly argued that the localisation of inclusive education is significant in terms of its implementation in China (Deng and Su, 2012; Deng and Liu, 2013; Deng and Jing, 2013). ‘Many theoretical studies on inclusive education only stay at the level that describing and advocating human rights, diversity, equality, and individual freedom. In this academic circle, researchers lack the consideration and analysis of inclusive education from a specific cultural position.’ (Deng and Su, 2012, p.83)

From this perspective, it seems that the definition of inclusive education needs to cover as many values as possible because any tiny different point may have an influence on its meaning. Indeed, if inclusive education is about all, it could be treated as violating the inclusion by only using the Western value-based definition.

When mentioning cultural influence in China, Confucianism must still be the one that has an impact on Chinese education. As a legacy of feudalism, Confucianism advocates the implementation of the hierarchy, which would be a root of inequality and is contrary to the ideals of inclusive education (Deng and Su, 2012). They also evaluated that: ‘Confucianism encourages collectivistic value that individual interests must obey collective interests, so it impedes the personality development. Oppositely, inclusive education advocates the diversity in education should be respected.’ (p.86)
However, Chinese researchers consider that Confucianism is not one hundred per cent different from the idea of inclusive education. Therefore, it is significant to formulate the ideas of inclusive education in a different country, which will directly affect the local people’s understandings of inclusion and the practice in education.

2.5.2.3 Summary

This aspect evaluates the Chinese researchers’ understandings of inclusive education and found some similarities and differences in the studies conducted in the UK. Mainly, this section reflects that inclusive education needs to be modified in accordance with the different cultural backgrounds if it is to be accepted and practised throughout the world. It will not only benefit the understanding of inclusive value but also to gradually develop inclusive education for the better. Naturally, a direct copy in terms of ideals and practice will fail to achieve a satisfactory result. However, the experience of learning from others is also a necessary force to progress.

Through analysing the Chinese researchers’ ideas on inclusive education, it will be significant to build a proper meaning of inclusive education rather than simply following the Western way of implementation. It will introduce inclusive value by combining oriental thoughts, and an appropriate definition will be a guide to inclusive practice, which will make inclusive education to be readily accepted by the public. Furthermore, for inclusive education, considering more conditions will assist it to cover more elements and to further its comprehensiveness.

2.5.3 Comparison of inclusive education between Britain and China

This section will compare British and Chinese considerations and studies on inclusive education as laid out in the previous sections. The primary purpose is to discover the similar and different understandings of inclusive education from researchers, which is essential to have a proper definition of inclusive education.

1. Inclusive education is about all individuals rather than specific groups

This point is interesting that in most studies, researchers claimed that they do agree that inclusive education aims to deal with the problems of all children in education. However, it is also a point that is highly debated in this field because usually, researchers believe that inclusive education is excellent, but a utopian idea, which cannot be achieved within a short time. Although this controversy has existed for a long time, inclusive education should cover all
individuals, which seems to be an accepted understanding of theoretical terms. However, whether it is in China or the UK, exclusive phenomena still exist and may have negative influences on inclusion in education. Both the British and Chinese scholars mentioned that a phenomenon of exclusion is caused by academic performance.

‘I think it was the ranking of students through using notions of intelligence and ability to make some people feel they were better than others.’ Professor BP1 said.

It is also happening in China.

‘The exclusion in education is common (in China). Our entire educational system is not friendly to the students with learning difficulties. There is no tolerance, which in fact, a kind of exclusion ... Furthermore, the hierarchy of our educational system is abnormal, but we (Chinese) feel it is fine. You can go to Tsinghua with seven hundred academic scores; you can go to Peking University with six hundred academic scores; you can go to Beijing Normal University with five hundred academic scores, right? We believe it is normal, whether or not it is? We need to rethink this issue that apparently is an exclusive phenomenon in our educational system’ (Professor CP1).

Regardless of their opinions on inclusive education, they have illustrated that exclusion should not exist in education, although it cannot be achieved at this time. The value of inclusion cannot solely rely on mainstream schools because the public considers the status, which is a type of exclusion as a normal phenomenon. It will affect the development of inclusive value in a negative way that in other words, inclusion would be unnecessary because the exclusive phenomenon of academic performance is fair and effective within the education system. This point will also be reflected by some teachers’ opinions, which will be presented in the next section.

It can be found that the scholars share similar understandings of inclusion in education and similar exclusive phenomenon in education, which leads to a similar current situation of improving inclusive education. Although the Chinese and the British researchers consider inclusive education as identical from both the broad or narrow view, there is also a difference. Professor CP1 argued that:

‘I believe we are in the very early stage of inclusive education, so the whole society understands inclusive education as same as LRC honestly. I have mentioned that LRC is not inclusive education, right? Thus, the understanding of inclusive education and its cultivation in our country is staying at a moment of enlightenment ... If we consider the gap between the Western countries, I would say we are falling behind twenty to thirty years.’
This statement reflects the strong influence of LRC in Chinese society, and it directly affects the development of inclusive education. It reveals the narrow view that inclusive education is acceptable in the Chinese educational system at least on the surface. In his opinion, this understanding that LRC is equal to inclusive education is full of societal support, including teachers, governments, the public, and even a part of academic researchers. It can be proved by the previous articles on inclusive education mentioned in this research, in both theoretical and practical studies.

Overall, the perspective of inclusive education is about all, which is generally accepted by most researchers because they believe every individual has the rights to receive an education. However, whether this perspective is, achievable would still need to be studied further.

2. Inclusive education is difficult to practice

Implementing an educational theory into action is significant because of the theoretical acts as the guide to practice. In the interview, Professor BP1 highlighted that putting inclusive value into action is a crucial element of defining inclusive education. As previously mentioned, many barriers restrict the implementation of inclusive education, especially the broad view. Firstly, the narrow proceception of inclusion in the UK and China underpins the practice due to the narrow perspective of inclusive education is more natural to practice compared to the broader perspective. People’s energy is limited, which means that they are unable to cover everything in their lifetime. Thus, the researchers cannot focus on too many groups in their studies, and the teachers cannot pay equal attention to every student. In fact, even the practices mostly rely on the narrow view of inclusive education, and it still cannot be implemented well. It is because teachers’ negative attitudes may be a significant reason for this problem. Professor BP1 recognised that most British teachers might support exclusion value, and similarly, Howes et al. (2005) stated that:

‘Some teachers did refer to the difficulty of arguing against the idea of inclusion as a value, suggesting that they sometimes experienced it as a rather oppressive ideal.’ (p.135)

This situation is the same as Chinese teachers. Professor CP1 claimed:

‘Teachers’ attitudes on the students, particularly the special groups, are the most important in education. (Some) Teachers do not accept the students with special educational needs from their inside. If we force them to teach the students with special educational needs in a regular class, to be honest, it will impact on both teachers and students negatively.’
It can reflect the lack of inclusive value in society, which is caused by the short supply of professional teachers with sufficient training and have positive attitudes toward all students and even inclusion in education. Therefore, the second barrier of practising inclusion in education is the teachers’ attitudes on inclusive education.

3. The different background of inclusive education

The background of inclusive education consists of the thought, the legislation, and the educational environment; and all those elements can affect people’s perspectives. It is why Chinese scholars, such as Deng and his colleagues stressed the importance of localising the definition of inclusive education.

According to the discussion above, a significant view behind inclusive education is that every individual has a fundamental right to receive an education, particularly in Western countries. Therefore, education should be able to meet everyone’s requirement and characteristics. At present, individuals are only managing the very fundamental of their educational rights; which is the right to receive an education. Fulfilling individuals’ needs could still not be achieved because the development of education cannot match the conditions of inclusion in education. Nowadays, an effective way to protect human right is to establish the regulation or the policy. Indeed, the British government attached importance to develop inclusive education, and policy analysis is an important topic in this research field (Messiou, 2017). There is no doubt that policy is significant, which plays an essential role in broadcasting the definition and understanding of inclusion. Pijl et al. (1997) highlighted ‘a well-formulated policy’ that will have a high impact on the progress of inclusion, which will provide clear meaning and purposes to the public. The Green paper, Excellence for all Children: Meeting Special Educational Needs, emerged in 1997, which is treated as a core document by the researchers. The Department for Education and Employment (DfEE, 1997) formulates the standards of education for every child, including children with special educational needs. It can be a milestone of British inclusive education, which has modified several parts of its practices, such as the identification in the early stage, intervention, teachers’ cultivation, and other aspects. Although in the following years, the British government has issued several legislations to supplement and improve the previous policies, the results were ineffective (Armstrong, Armstrong and Spandagou, 2010). According to Lloyd’s analysis in 2008, such policies did not solve the exclusion in courses, evaluation system, and the mainstream regulations. This situation likely revealed that the changes are happening on the surface rather than having progress in its entirety. Despite some researchers consider the changes in British policies were limited, these verbal changes still have impacts in terms of promoting inclusive value to the society.
Comparing the Chinese situation with the UK, it can be found that the educational thoughts or philosophical point of views are different. As discussed above, the inveteracy of Confucianism has affected Chinese education for thousands of years, which cannot be easily changed. Thus, when the term inclusive education emerged in China, it was linked with Confucianism – ‘You Jiao Wu Lei,’ means that education should not be classified. Deng and Su (2012) argued that some traditional Chinese education values are opposite to inclusive education, such as social hierarchy and fatalism, but Confucianism also illustrates that the justice and diversity in education are similar to the Western values such as equity and human right. They further claimed that differently:

‘The Western values of justice underlines the accuracy, legislation, and individuality, but the Confucian justice stresses flexibility, morality, collective, and harmony.’ (p.87)

This analysis of the similarities and differences reveal that traditional Chinese education is similar to Western values, which could be the basics of promoting inclusive education. However, Chinese culture also has its particularity that may require time to combine with the Western values of inclusion. In view of the Chinese conditions, the government has also issued some policies to protect and develop inclusive education in Mainland China. Presently, there is no special law toward inclusive education, but there are some relevant policies. Typically, Chinese researchers consider compulsory education law as the beginning of national legislation that pays attention to disabled children in education (Li, 2015). Furthermore, Li presented other policies, including LRC, the most important practice policy. However, Professor CP1 stated that:

‘All policies are about developing special education, but the slogan is to improve inclusive education. Thus, our understandings of inclusive education are on the lip, but in fact, the policies are not implemented well.’

It is a reflection of the legislation, where the Chinese and UK conditions are similar, with difference only in the verbal descriptions. In contrast, the inclusive value seems to have a better promotion in the UK compared with China. Through interviewing with Professor CP1, it can be found that the recognition of inclusive education in Chinese society is unsubstantial because of some policies, which are supposed to link with inclusive education but are likely not relevant. Professor CP1 argued that:

‘Our educational policies mislead the understandings of inclusive education, which can be reflected by many documents from the Ministry of Education. For example, one principle is like that if we want to develop inclusive education, we must improve LRC. Obviously, it will cause
many misunderstandings of inclusive education.’

Thus, if inclusive education needs to be improved widely in China, the legislation must be changed from overly focusing on LRC to the broad range of inclusion.

Other sections of education, such as learning environment and schools’ characteristics, also have impacts on inclusive education. Though the educational environment in the UK and China are different, they still share some similar features. For example, Professor BP1 and CP1 both claimed that their countries have a competitive education environment that certainly have an impact on inclusive education. The highly competitive environment leads to the score-based education that is resulting in students with poor academic performance to receive less attention from their teachers. In both professors’ minds, this environment of learning is a type of historical legacy or traditional heritage. Genuinely, it could link to the purpose of education, which will directly affect the approach and the content of education. Professor BP1 stood by the position of social inclusion and introduced the following: ‘I think again, I mean, what I say the basic purpose of education is to respond to the two questions, which I am having the index for inclusion. The first question is to help us to live together or live together well, and the second is to learn those things which will help us to live together well, and the ‘we’ is the global community.’

This perspective may not be a representation of the British educational purpose, though it could reflect the understanding of the researchers who hold a broad view of inclusive education, which is deficient in Chinese education. On the Chinese side, Professor CP1 claimed that: ‘One of the most important purposes of our educational value is to cultivate people ... our education is classified education.’

Cultivating people is a vague statement, and it is merely a description of education. Here, Chinese education is to cultivate the elites rather than the public by considering the educational system; thus, it will undoubtedly contain the exclusion values. Significantly, the majority of Chinese believe that scored-based exclusion is acceptable and right, which is a typical attitude towards education in China. This attitude is an obstacle of inclusive education and seems difficult to change because it is a heritage and treated as the most suitable for contemporary China. Presently, this traditional attitude on education could be the most significant barrier to implement inclusive education as well as its associated values.

Furthermore, the large class size is another characteristic of Chinese education, which
consumes teachers’ energy. In this environment, Professor CP1 in the interview claimed that under the high stress, most teachers treat the learning of inclusive education as extra work; thus, they are not motivated to accept it. Therefore, the broad perspective of inclusive education, indeed, cannot be used directly in Chinese schools.

By evaluating the interviews with Professor BP1 and CP1, it is easy to find similar exclusive phenomena in education, particularly in high academic performance school or Chinese ‘Key schools,’ that were previously mentioned. Some parents require their children not to be with the ‘bad students,’ just because those students have low academic achievements. Although there are many differences between the UK and China, those similarities still prove that there is the possibility of developing the basics of inclusive education in China.

2.6 Concluding remarks

In general, the chapter firstly reviewed the relevant studies of inclusive education, including its general development as well as its progress in the United Kingdom and China. Besides, some exclusive phenomena in education and the British Index for inclusion were discussed. According to the literature review, it can be found that inclusive education has been developing since 1994. However, the debates on the definition and practice still exist. Typically, ‘who is in? … Who decides? … Who benefits from this? … What are we going to do about it?’ (Slee, 2001, p.175) are the core questions and controversies of inclusive education in different stages. Therefore, the research questions in this project aim to discover the understandings of inclusive education based on different levels and cultural backgrounds, which can directly contribute to the existing definition. Majority of all the articles’ definition of inclusive education heavily based on the academic viewpoints, from the scholars, but rarely do they include other stakeholders’ understandings of it. It limits its comprehensiveness and at the same time, may not be as robust as we all know.

Furthermore, in most studies on the practice of inclusive education, they are heavily focused on disabled students. Other exclusions in education have not been raised when discussing the issues of inclusive education. These studies have also narrowed down the understanding of inclusive education, and many scholars highlight this problem in their research. Until 2017, the debate of the reason that inclusive education focuses on the specific groups is still ambiguous. In this field, the reasons for the different understandings are barely considered in the previous research, which is part of this project’s aims by analysing the collected data and prior studies.
To achieve the purposes of this research, section 2.5 mainly seeks similarities and differences of inclusive education between Britain and China from a few experts’ views in this research field. According to the chosen definition of inclusive education, it can be found that in both countries, the researchers accept or begin to accept the broad understandings of it. Despite the existence of query on its practice and meaning, it could be a global trend of studying on inclusive education because having education, as one of the fundamental human rights, should be for everyone; and if the inclusive value does not exist in the public’s minds, it will never be achieved.

However, the broad view of inclusive education seems to be hardly accepted in society because some researchers and schoolteachers have doubts about its feasibility in practice. It is not only happening in China, but it is happening throughout the world, and of course, including the UK. Although the British researchers and schools provide ample experiences in both academic studies and practices, Chinese researchers, notably Deng, firmly claimed that China requires their own definition of inclusive education regardless of whether it is broad or narrow. If this idea is achieved, it will provide an excellent inroad into Chinese education, which could be more widely accepted by Chinese society. In addition, it will supplement the term of inclusive education by considering different cultures and conditions, which will comprehensively improve the definition of inclusive education.

The interesting point is that the value of underpinning inclusion in both countries should be carefully considered. It is because inclusive education derives from the idea of education for all and human rights in the UK. However, Chinese scholars prefer to link it to the Confucian thoughts such as ‘you jiao wu lei’ and ‘yin cai shi jiao,’ which are similar to education for all and respect the different ability in education. It can be viewed as a similar point of inclusive education between Britain and China. However, as aforementioned in this research, many researchers are concern that there is an obsession of hierarchy that exists Confucian thoughts. Therefore, the values behind inclusive education could also be seen as a difference between the two countries.

Meanwhile, different cultures and educational circumstance will also result in some divergences. Although the British and Chinese researchers share some points about inclusive education, including the theoretical and practical aspects, the gaps between the two countries are noticeable. Although inclusive education in China developed later than the Western countries, it has been improving rapidly already during the last decade. In some studies, the researchers firmly believe that inclusive education in China has developed well. However, if
in-depth consideration is taken, the reality is similar to Professor CP1’s idea that China is developing special education rather than inclusive education. This different description of Chinese inclusive education would help the Chinese side to face the situation that inclusive education in China still cannot get rid of special education. In other words, Chinese education should balance the relationship between inclusive education and LRC, which will improve inclusive education in both theoretical level and practice.

Through comparing the UK and China, the two countries have both similarities and differences in terms of the definition, practice and background. In order to develop and fulfil the gap of inclusive education, it is too simple to define inclusive education by only focusing on the opinions of researchers because the most critical aspect is to put the theory into action. Therefore, the perspectives of inclusive education from different stakeholders, schoolteachers, school leaders, pre-service teachers and relevant local authorities, are needed, which will be discussed in other sections.
Chapter 3 Research design

To reply the research questions and achieve the aims of this project, it is significant to clarify the meanings and to understand the research methodology before deciding which methodology will be appropriate for this study as well as the actual approaches. Therefore, this chapter will discuss the methodology and some specific approaches that could potentially be adopted in this research, based on personal understandings and relevant studies. Section 3.1 will explain the options and rational of methodology in this research, including both qualitative and quantitative concern. Section 3.2 will provide the specific methods for data collection, following by sampling, ethical and validity concern in section 3.3, 3.4 and 3.5. In section 3.6, a general route of establishing an index for inclusion with Chinese characters will be provided. Finally, the process of conducting this research will be presented in section 3.7.

3.1 Methodology

The critical factor in designing an investigation will be to analyse whether the research question(s) consist of collecting qualitative or quantitative data. The questions of this research mainly explore the subjective matters including participants’ understandings and thoughts toward inclusive education. For example, ‘what could be the barriers to participation?’ ‘What causes their specific understandings of inclusive education?’ However, another aim of this research is to establish an initial index for inclusion, which requires statistical analysis. Thus, based on the research questions, it is clear that both qualitative and quantitative methodologies will be applied to collect and analyse data to resolve those concerns raised by this study. The specific options and rationale will be presented in this section. In the beginning, some initial ideas should be considered, such as the options available for quantitative and qualitative paradigms for research. Therefore, in this section, the comparison of quantitative and qualitative characteristics will be discussed first.

A research paradigm is a view of conducting research, which is established by a series of assumption, conception, the view of value, and practice (Johnson and Christensen, 2011). Maykut and Morehouse (1994) defined paradigm as

‘A set of overarching and interconnected assumptions about the nature of reality ... a researcher might test what reality is must be based on some understanding of that reality. A philosophical assumption cannot be proved but may be stipulated.’ (p.4)

In other words, it is a way to consider and to conduct research. The conflict between qualitative
and quantitative method can be seen as the ‘oldest quarrel’ (Scoles et al., 2014). It seems that the two paradigms cannot be used together due to ontological and epistemological difference. Ontology is a concept based on the nature of reality and epistemology is about accessing knowledge (Bryman, 2012). Bryman further identifies the different ontological and epistemological orientations of qualitative and quantitative strategies. In general, qualitative research follows constructionism ontology and interpretivism epistemology. Oppositely, the quantitative study adheres to objectivism in the ontological field and positivism within the epistemological field in particular (ibid). Della Porta and Keating (2008) proposed that research that uses positivism aims to seek cause-effect relationships among variables, which researcher could generalise or discover the universal laws. They have also pointed out that an interpretive study concentrates on individuals’ understandings of the external world, which would have more depth compared to the studies that follow positivism. It reflects that quantitative research aims to test a specific hypothesis, but the qualitative study prefers to investigate the depth and breadth of a specified phenomenon.

Generally, the qualitative method will be adopted in this research, which aims to collect non-numerical data like text. The quantitative approach will also be used to explore and analyse numerical statistic. Therefore, in following sections, both qualitative research and quantitative will be specified to explain the specific options and rational in this research.

### 3.1.1 Qualitative method in this research

From the ontological position, qualitative paradigm assumes human behaviour has meaningful action, which can be interpreted through individuals’ awareness and emotion. Feng (2013) considered that human being does not only pursues self-achievement but also interact with others to endow meanings to the world. It reflects that each subject is not an independent unit, and their existence relies on the community, which means multiple connections construct the external world. Feng (2013) also stressed that the establishment of knowledge is impacted by both fundamental objective principles inside or inference and the interaction among individuals’ subjective consciousness, others, and external objects. In other words, knowledge is derived from human’s communication with external existence. Therefore, common sense is built on an integrated interpretation of every understanding. For example, the reason why the apple is called ‘apple’ is not only because this species exists, but also human beings give its meaning.

Following the logical process of social research, Babbie (2004) and Bryman (2012) claimed that social scientists prefer induction to an established theoretical system, which is a model of
getting a conclusion from various cases. Similarly, Johnson and Christensen (2011) also stated that the significant purpose of induction is discovery. It reveals that qualitative studies begin with a natural way to investigate the phenomena without artificial settings. Feng’s (2013) explanation of the relationships between theory and qualitative research also can reflect the induction chain, which means that the theory will be found and established gradually during the research. Thus, induction can be seen as a process of developing theory from individual to general level. (See Figure 4)

**Figure 4 Simple route of induction considered by this research**

Johnson and Christensen (2011) divided eight steps of qualitative research, including thematic selection, identifying the research question, research design, data collection, data analysis, findings, proving findings, and writing a report. It can also be simplified in five core stages which are question selection, research design, implementation, data analysis, and report findings (Feng, 2013). Similarly, Bryman (2012) outlined six steps that separate data analysis into interpretation and conceptual and theoretical work. Regardless of the number of steps and procedures, each of them is just one of the various models because every study is conducted under different objective conditions. Hence, those frameworks of qualitative research could be seen as references to this project. Patton (2002) concluded twelve characteristics of qualitative research and divided them into three main dimensions. The first dimension is the research design that emphasises natural setting, flexibility, and finality. The dimension of data collection underlines qualitative data, personal experience and participation, neutral emotion, and considering the dynamic factors. At the analysis dimension, Patton (2002) believed that qualitative research should have a unique case, inductive analysis, comprehensive view, sensibility, and reflection. All of those features can efficiently help this study to reflect on the different research process, which further ensures the quality of the project.
3.1.2 Quantitative strategy in this research

In order to evaluate participants’ choices of indicators in the index for inclusion, some numeral data will be analysed to discover the type of indicators that are measurable in Chinese schools. Therefore, this section will look into the quantitative study in details, which is only relevant to a specific aspect of the whole study.

Bryman (2012) explained that the ontological position of quantitative study is objectivism. In other words, every social phenomenon exists independently without the influence of social factors, which means that social will cannot decide the existence of a substance. Based on the different ontology, quantitative research follows positivism epistemology (ibid). This type of epistemology highlights the objective as its the most significant feature. For example, in qualitative research, student A could be described as the tallest in his / her school because A looks taller than other students. In a quantitative study, A is also the tallest student, but with a different definition as the researcher will measure every students’ height before reaching this conclusion. It seems that such a result is more convincing because it can be proven via a series of data. Of course, quantitative research is more complicated than the example mentioned above, as it also has a rigorous procedure with systematic methods (Hoy, 2012).

In terms of the quantitative logical process, both deductive and inductive approaches should be adopted. (See Figure 5)

![Figure 5 Simple route of quantitative method in this research](image)

In summary, the reason for selecting both qualitative and quantitative research mostly dependent on the types of result that the research intends to acquire. Bryman (2012) pointed out that some researchers have claimed that qualitative and quantitative strategies derive from the different philosophical position and the mixed method is more similar to an integration. It
cannot be denied that qualitative and quantitative research are complementary, and there is excellent potential in employing them together in research (Babbie, 2004; Hoy, 2012).

3.1.3 Field research

There are many different research methods such as conducting an experiment, survey, document study, field research, evaluation research, comparative research, and historical research (Babbie, 2004; Johnson and Christensen, 2011; Bryman, 2012; Feng, 2013). In these methods, the experiment is usually conducted in quantitative research. Meanwhile, field and historical research are typically conducted via qualitative research. All of them could be conducted by using both quantitative and qualitative research, where the final decision would be based on the type of research questions and aims. Lofland and Lofland (1995) discussed ten elements that could be suitable when conducting field research. These are social practice, episodes, encounters, roles, relationships, groups, organisations, settlements, social world, and subcultures. Therefore, looking back at the research themes and questions, the main choice for conducting the research would be qualitative field research (replaced by field research below).

Field research is different from a controlled experiment because it can provide a natural setting for the researcher to observe reality (Babbie, 2004; Maner, 2016). This type of research emphasises on researcher participation, which means the researcher has to participate in the observation personally and investigate the cases. Feng (2013) illustrated that the 'observation' here does not only represent observing the external factors but also as a mean to understand the reality by various ways such as hearing, thinking, feeling, and experience. The purposes of the field research are:

‘To gain insight into the way people, as individuals or groups, go about conducting their activities and tasks natural in their everyday lives, including activities related to any problems they might be experiencing; and

To better understand the context in which the behaviours of interest occur, rather than studying behavioural phenomena in isolation, as might occur in experimental studies or trials.’ (Soukup et al., 2017, pp.59).

One of the characteristics of field research is that the research can be conducted in a real environment for a relatively long time and to observe, interview, experience, feel, and finally to understand the phenomena. Maner (2016) advocated that field research allows researchers to assess research questions that may resolve potential issues in society. Furthermore, Soukup et al. (2017) demonstrated that fieldwork would support researchers to have a better
understanding of the complex system. For example, in this research, fieldwork may assist the author to gain insider opinions toward Chinese secondary school system, special educational system, and the educational legislation. Indeed, field research can provide researchers with a higher level of understandings compared with other types of research, which may make the researcher re-think and improve their project. In contrast, the intention of field research is to collect detailed data, which would restrict the sample size due to the research plan. Furthermore, it also needs to take consideration of how findings can be generalised (ibid). However, qualitative research per se usually provides a reference to other relevant research in the future rather than pay much more attention to generalisation. That is why this research will collect quantitative data as one of the fundamental elements. It is not only useful in terms of further establishing an index in the last research question but also support some qualitative results somehow.

In the field research scope, Babbie (2004) identified several paradigms such as ethnography, case study, grounded theory, action research, and some others. Evaluating these paradigms can find that case study could be chosen to resolve the questions and achieve the aims of this research.

3.1.4 Case study

Briefly, the case study is defined as providing details of one or more existing cases in order to conduct an analysis. Yin (2003, p.13, cited by Atkins and Wallace) described the case study as empirical enquires:

'Investigate a contemporary phenomenon with its real-life context, especially when the boundaries between phenomenon and context are not clearly evident.'

The term ‘case’ commonly used with a group setting such as a community or groups of individuals in case studies (Bryman, 2012). Therefore, conducting a case study research means having an in-depth analysis of a person, an event, an organisation as well as a social community. For example, a typical case could be a child with special educational needs, a natural science lesson, a special school, and even a national project. The advantages of case studies are apparent such as focused aspect, an in-depth and extensive understanding based on collected specific, rich and detailed information (Johnson and Christensen, 2011; Feng, 2013). Thus, Aitken and Marshall (2007, p132) claimed that ‘a case study should not only describe but also facilitate understanding and convey an educational message through explanation of the chosen aspect.’ They further post several vital purposes of case studies by using healthcare as an example:
• Provide informative critique of patient care,
• Facilitate learning from past experiences,
• Allow clinicians to share management plans for challenging patients,
• Develop problem-solving skills,
• Facilitate development of practice guidelines. (P.133)

However, the case study has always been castigated because the findings could not be generalised (Bryman, 2012); and many concerns of its validity, reliability, and sampling (Baskind, 2002). Those potential issues pertaining to validity, reliability, sampling, and ethics of this research will be evaluated in the following sampling and validity sections.

Three types of case studies were mentioned by Stake (1995), including intrinsic case study, instrumental case study, and collective case study. Johnson and Christensen (2011) asserted that the intrinsic case study is a classical single case design, which aims to explore and describe an unknown phenomenon in a single case. Of course, the researcher can spend all the funding and time on one case and to achieve a relatively deep understanding of that particular case. However, it is too unconvincing to conclude by using a single case. By contrast, Stake (1995) argues that a researcher, conducting an instrumental case study, initially focuses on a general rather than a specific sense. In other words, Johnson and Christensen (2011) commented that studying cases is an approach to achieve a general phenomenon. Here, the researcher seems to concentrate on the nature of the phenomenon is and the reasons behind it. Therefore, this type of case study attracts many academic researchers who are willing to extend the existing works (ibid). Lastly, a collective case study could be a comprehensive model because researchers believe that studying more than one case will provide a better understanding of the phenomenon. Apparently, working on different cases can provide different or similar views on the same phenomenon; furthermore, a conclusion from a batch of case studies is more convincing than a specific case. Inversely, the increasing number of cases will dilute the understanding of those particular cases because of the limitation of budget and time (ibid).

Importantly, one of the purposes of this study is to evaluate the different understandings of inclusive education from different groups, such as scholars, in-service teachers, school leaders and pre-service teachers. Also, by comparing and contrasting all the responses from those participants, an elementary index for improving the inclusive education of Chinese secondary schools will be established. It is clear that multiple cases can provide a better comparison than a single case. Hence, although the time and budget of this research are limited, the collective case study design is appropriate to this research, based upon the significant conditions.
3.2 Method adopted in this study

When the research design is completed, the researchers will take consideration into the method of collecting the data. In social science research, many types of data collection approaches would be applied, such as test, questionnaire, interview, focus group, observation, and secondary data. Each of them had a unique character and will be implemented differently. Johnson and Christensen (2011) have claimed that researchers that use case studies advocate using multiple methods and various sources. This is because if the data is collected by using a wide range of methods and achieve a similar result, this finding would be considered reliable. Therefore, it is essential to clarify the data collection method in this study. The data in this study will be mainly qualitative, which are to collect information pertaining to the understandings and opinions of experts, in-service teachers, school leaders, and local educational authorities. Thus, the interview will be a suitable choice for data collection purpose. Moreover, this research also intends to investigate the pre-service teachers’ perspectives in a university, which does not need as detailed as experts, pre-service teachers and school leaders. Hence, the questionnaire will be used because it can gather a bigger sample in a relatively short time.

3.2.1 Interview

3.2.1.1 Methodological approach on interview

In much social research, the interview is always being regarded as one of the core tools of data collection. ‘Interviewing as a research method typically involves you, as a researcher, asking questions and, hopefully, receiving answers from the people you are interviewing’ (Robson, 2011, p.278). The interview is treated as the most widely utilised method in social research, especially when it comes to qualitative studies (Robson, 2011; Bryman, 2016). Of course, the use of interview relies on the research questions that were tailored in order for the researcher to gain the required data. In general, the interview can be divided into three primary patterns, including unstructured, semi-structured, and structured interview (Creswell, 2013). Depending on which, there are various strategies in conducting an interview, which may change the outcome of the collected data. Therefore, researchers need to identify the characteristics of the interview because it will help them to choose a satisfactory type of interview.

In a structured interview, the researchers commonly use a large number of open-ended questions in a specific order. The semi-structured interview is more flexible than a structured interview. Although there are many pre-set questions, such questions are more similar to a
checklist of the interview’s theme, and the order is adjustable. An unstructured interview is an extreme version where an entirely informal conversation is being held (Robson, 2011). Bryman (2012, 2016) described the characteristics of the semi-structured interview, similar to Robson’s description where a list of questions is normally seen as an interview guide that covers all specific topics in research. Importantly, there is no need for the questions to be exactly as same as the list. Therefore, Johnson and Christensen (2011) asserted it with another name; interview guide approach, which reflects the semi-structured interview’s key features. When comparing these three interview styles, the structured and unstructured seem extreme. However, the semi-structured interview has the advantages of the other two and is widely used. An interview can be conducted in various ways, such as face to face, online, and telephone. Interviews can be held with one person to a group of people; also known as a focus group. Focus group, as it is named, is an interview conducted in a group that consist of a moderator and participants. In a focus group, the participants’ ideas can inspire each other and could provide many fresh viewpoints. Besides, it may help the researchers to gather an abundant amount of deep understandings in a relatively short time (Johnson and Christensen, 2011). Although the topics that are covered will be limited, this method can still be conducted to efficiently solve the second research question in this study.

3.2.1.2 Interview in this research

According to the styles of the interview mentioned above, face to face semi-structured interview will be employed in this study. It intends to conduct an in-depth investigation into the in-service secondary school teachers’ understandings of inclusive education in different areas in Beijing, China. Furthermore, the topics in a semi-structured interview can be used to collect their experiences of exclusive phenomena as well as their strategies of reducing such exclusions. Besides, the interview could also be an opportunity to understand the current situation of exclusion and policies’ implementation in their schools. The teachers’ attitudes and understandings can reflect the relationships among special education, LRC, and inclusive education.

Furthermore, their experiences and policies would reveal the factors that impact on their understandings of inclusive education. Finally, teachers’ reflection on current exclusive phenomena and strategies of handling those issues can contribute to the establishment of the initial index for inclusion in China. Gender and age factors are not the primary consideration, and interview will be conducted with the participants from various backgrounds for this research. More significantly, except for the in-service teachers and school leaders, some
professionals in this educational field will also be involved in the interview. The experts’ perspective on inclusive education and LRC will directly reflect their relationships and the influence factors of the perspective of inclusive education.

Specifically, the author has already built a rapport with several secondary schools in Beijing, which have implemented the LRC model for several years. The author has also built a rapport with the experts who were willing to help, due to discussions with them in previous studies. The current research will involve an interview guide list, which will be designed by evaluating the British index and the relevant Chinese studies. It will also be verified with the supervisor, several in-service teachers to test whether the list can reflect the Chinese conditions in this field. Before the interview, an ethical review must be approved because the research needs to consider all possible ethical issues. The meetings will be held in a vacant room to avoid external interference in each school. The audio record will only be collected upon the acceptance of the participants. The transcript is an indispensable part of the interview, and the author will randomly discuss the transcripts and notes with some participants to ensure the author’s understandings of the participants’ answers are accurate. Finally, the data will be evaluated with the research questions before being compared with other data.

3.2.1.3 Focus group in this research

The focus group will involve about ten participants, including schools’ principals and in-service teachers. While discussing with the schools, a few individuals have interests in this research, but the teachers have mentioned that they do not have sufficient time to participate in a one to one interview. Therefore, a group discussion is required, and the focus group would be the optimal choice with the same questions as the semi-structured interview. There will be a slight difference to the interviews because the participants will have the opportunities to evaluate each other’s thoughts and may bring some new ideas.

All participants will be selected based on their schedule and willingness. Furthermore, the meeting place will be set by negotiating with all the participants, which mainly take considerations on location and selecting a space with minimal external disruptions. The author will lead the discussion by assessing each question one by one and take notes during the entire discussion. Voice recording will only be used if all the participants agreed.
3.2.2 Questionnaire

3.2.2.1 Methodological approach on questionnaire

The questionnaire is one of the renowned research tools, which involves a number of designed questions and aims to measure some behaviours, attitudes, and social characteristics (Babbie, 2004; Feng, 2013). There are two questionnaire forms; open-ended and closed-ended questionnaire, which can be mainly distinguished by seeing whether the questions are multiple-choice questions. For example, ‘Which is your favourite football team?’

A. Manchester United
B. Real Madrid
C. Bayern Munich
D. Other

The example above is a closed-ended question, but if it is not a multiple-choice question and requires the participants to answer the question in their own words, it will be an open-ended question. Open-ended questions allow the participants to share their own opinions, but it will take the participants longer time to answer. On the other hand, closed-ended questions are much easier to reply, but the answer will not be as detail.

Decisions will need to be made on the type of data that is required before deciding on a suitable method. For its establishment, Babbie (2004) suggests that the questions in a questionnaire must be precise since it is not possible to eliminate misunderstandings. For instance, ‘Are you a local?’ Some people may interpret ‘local’ as having to be born in this place, but some individuals would interpret that as having an official certification such as residential or work permit. Babbie (2004) further pointed out that the researchers also need to consider the respondents’ capability of answering questions as well as whether they are willing to answer such questions. Avoiding the loaded question is crucial because it will affect the respondents’ answer and even the entire research (Johnson and Christensen, 2011). Such type of question may involve researchers’ bias, which encourages the participants to answer the question in a particular direction. Furthermore, the double negative is another pitfall that should be minimised because it would mislead the participants (Converses and Presser, 1986). Finally, a pilot test is a necessary process that can help the researcher to examine whether the questionnaire is appropriate.
3.2.2.2 Questionnaire in this research

Based on the research questions and purposes of this project, a self-administered questionnaire will be applied in this study, which includes both open-ended and closed-ended questions. The questionnaire in this research will be compiled by the researcher, which refer to the questions in the British index for inclusion and relevant Chinese studies. The data collected from the interview and focus group will be employed to design the questionnaire. When the questionnaire is completed and verified, the researcher will distribute it to the chosen universities and the secondary schools. The pre-service teachers’ opinion is equally important to creating an index for inclusion and also help the university to rethink their pre-service training curricula. Moreover, Feng (2013) argued that participants’ anonymity could make the data more objective because the influences of the researchers can be reduced. The self-administered questionnaire could also save time and budget.

To summarise, this research will firstly review the index for inclusion, several Chinese studies, and the interviews with the in-service teachers. The questionnaire will be formally applied by the researcher in the chosen universities and the secondary schools involving about eighty to one hundred participants. This questionnaire will involve three main parts; one of them is the British index for inclusion that will require all in-service and pre-service teachers to complete. The remaining two sections involve close-ended and open-ended questions; which is only applicable to the pre-service teachers to complete. Following that, the author will filter all questionnaires before evaluating the data. Those uncompleted and unsatisfactory questionnaires will be treated as invalid. The process will be flexible based on the situation when the research is conducted.

3.2.3 Other methods of data collection

This study also takes consideration into documentation, which is a tool of data collection and will compare the existing research and articles with the findings of the interview to understand the relevant factors that resulted in different understandings of inclusive education. Furthermore, by reviewing and analysing the current policies from both the government and the schools, this study could then be able to answer the question of ‘how does the education in China treats special education, LRC, and inclusive education.’ Comparing previous studies with this research would enable the current research to evaluate the existing accomplishment, which is significant to establish the index for inclusion with Chinese conditions. The previous studies can be found on the academic database CNKI and Star plus, the university’s library system,
which reassures the quality of the studies. The cities’ conditions, policies, and relevant statistic can easily be found on the government website. Finally, the schools’ information and rules will be found online and hard copies, which are available in the schools.

3.3 Selection of case study sites

3.3.1 Case level

This research component, case level, is relevant to the selection of participants and should have a clear rationale and meet the specific aims linked to the research questions (Collingridge and Gantt, 2008). It is significant to take consideration of who and how many participants should be involved when planning the research. Patton (1990, cited in Cleary et al., 2014) claimed that which participants and the number of participants should be dependent on ‘what you want to know, the purpose of the inquiry, what is at stake, what will be useful, what will have credibility.’ The term of sampling is defined as ‘the selection of specific data sources from which data collected to address the research objectives’ (Gentles et al., 2015, p.1775). This research concerns sampling in two levels consists of the cases and the data sources within the cases (ibid).

This study will be conducted in different districts in Beijing, including urban and suburban areas, to ensure that the research covers more conditions to a relative degree. Beijing is the political and cultural centre of China and also a mega international city that has a close connection with the world. Beijing is always being used in many Chinese studies in the various research field, and its developmental strategies are always treated as reference points to other places in China. The reason why urban and suburban regions have both been chosen is due to the gaps in development among Beijing’s districts. Thus, if the research only selects urban areas, it is not a representation of other places in China, even the rural areas in Beijing. It is because of the disparity of urban development of urbanisation, in particular, economy (Li, 2013). Compared the last year’s development in every province in China with the statistics of Beijing can find that some suburban districts in Beijing are similar to the national average developmental level (National Bureau of Statistics of China, 2017). It reflects that suburban areas of Beijing could represent many conditions of Chinese cities potentially.

Furthermore, as a significant point, Beijing involves various social factors. For example, multiple cultures, different ethnics, customs, and covers the majority of problems, such as migrants, wealth, which are existing in China currently. For instance, rapid urbanisation in
China has resulted in massive migration into Beijing (Gu et al., 2015). The majority of the migrants are living in suburban areas, and their children attend the schools in the same areas, which provides excellent examples to this research as the teachers in such schools have experiences of educating the students with various difficulties and needs. Thus, although Beijing may be an extreme example in some respects, it will be a good choice in providing a guide that leads to other cities to combat gaps when they face similar issues.

The reason why the secondary schools are selected because firstly, it is an essential stage of compulsory education in China, where every school-age child should be enrolled in the neighbour schools. Compared with elementary schools, secondary schools have a much more complex environment. For example, the students in secondary schools are more independent than the pupils in primary schools, and there is pressure in terms of the enrolment rate for high schools. In other words, the secondary schools should be inclusive to each student regardless of the external conditions, such as students’ background and academic performance. It may be the reason why the secondary schools are adopted as an example in many studies; as mentioned in the last chapter, they are mainly used in studies pertaining to the LRC model in China. Furthermore, the reason why the specific universities were chosen because they are a very common and essential place that cultivate teachers for primary and secondary schools in China. It means most pre-service teachers involved in this research would become teachers, and the knowledge that they gain about inclusion in education would have an impact on their teaching behaviours.

### 3.3.2 Purposive sampling and sampling size

Purposive sampling is an essential approach in selecting the specific cases, which is based on the researchers’ anticipated the relevance of data to research questions (Gentles et al., 2015). The purpose of this study is to understand the inclusive education in China and its influencing factors as well as setting up an index for inclusive education with Chinese conditions. Thus, as a significant stage of compulsory education in China, the secondary schools, implementing the ‘learning in a regular classroom’ model, will be involved. Moreover, this research will also investigate the attitudes of the pre-service teacher by getting them to respond to the questionnaire. Hence, Normal University will also be treated as a case in this research. The sampling strategy in this project will be the snowball to choose in-service teachers to participate in the interviews and focus group in the cases of secondary schools. The questionnaire that was distributed in the Normal Universities will be specifically targeted to the students that are on a course related to teacher training pathway.
The final consideration for sampling is the required size and saturation. The saturation will be seen as reaching theoretically when there are no new points emerge, which is hard to estimate the minimum size of the purposive sampling in qualitative research (Van Rijnsoever, 2017). Although there is no minimum size for sampling, it obviously should not be too small. Mason (2010, cited in Bryman, 2016) examined 560 doctoral theses and found that the sample size ranges from 1 to 95, with a mean of 31 and a median of 28. Gentles et al. (2015) concluded that a multiple case study, similar to this research, the adequate number of cases could be four to ten. Comparing this research with relevant studies, such as Deng’s reports in 2004 and Booth & Aniscow’s research in 2002, this study will involve five secondary schools and two Normal Universities in different districts of Beijing. Initially, this research will involve one or two schools’ leaders in each secondary school and about five in-service teachers, but the specific number will be dependent on the schools’ size. Furthermore, about a hundred questionnaires will be sent covering all participants in the chosen secondary schools and the universities to gather data for establishing the index with Chinese conditions.

3.4 Ethical issues

When the researchers conduct their studies, they have to face many ethical issues during the fieldwork, data analysis, and even the report writing. Four main aspects should be considered: whether there is harm to participants of the research; whether there is a lack of informed consent; ‘whether there is an invasion of privacy; whether deception is involved’ (Diener and Crandall, 1978, cited in Bryman, 2016, p.125). In these principles, the first consideration is to bring no harm to the participants, which is not limited to just physical harm but also mental harm such as inflicting harm to their self-esteem. The data collection methods for this research are questionnaire and interview, which evidently would not cause physical harm. However, the focus will be applied to eliminate mental harm to the participants. For example, Li (2016) mentioned that respecting the participants is a fundamental requirement of the researchers; the research must eliminate all forms of discriminations toward all the participants. The initial stage of considering respect and protection toward the candidates is to inform them what the study involves and allow them to decide whether to participate (Wolfensberger, 1967). For instance, this reason will give prior information to the participants such as the reason they were involved, the research content, the purposes of this project, the research constitution, the types of questions, and the participants’ rights to withdraw at any time. Another significant point is that all participants will need to be informed, and they will also need to give permission for the interview to be recorded.
Another significant component of ethical issues during the research is privacy. Behi and Nolan (1995, p.712) emphasised that ‘Every human being has the right to privacy. Therefore, research subjects may not want information about themselves, or their views and attitudes, to be identified and made available in the public domain.’ Thus, they suggest that the collected data need to be securely stored that would ensure that no-one could identify the participants (also see Parry and Mauthner, 2004). It reflects the pivotal role of anonymity in research, which has to be undertaken once the data collection begins. Therefore, in this research, all participants in the interviews will be given a serial number to replace their name. For those who fulfil the questionnaire, their names will not be presented on the paper, and similarly, a unique number will be assigned. Once the data collection is completed, all data will be securely stored where only the author could gain access.

3.5 Validity concern

When scholars are evaluating the quality of the research, they will use validity to describe the differences of quality of each study. Babbie (2004) and Porter (2007) defined validity as a concept that considers the extent of the findings, which can reflect the research questions precisely. Unlike quantitative research, qualitative research is more prone to subjective understandings impact, also known as researcher bias (Johnson and Christensen, 2011). They have further pointed out that descriptive validity, interpretive validity, theoretical validity, internal validity, and external validity are mainly concerned with qualitative research. Babbie (2004) also argued that conducting systematic fieldwork can have a more in-depth conception compared to a questionnaire and an experiment. It reveals that rigorous qualitative research can also be of good quality study as long as it is being handled correctly.

Nonetheless, being rigorous is a challenge, especially to a beginner, because there is no universal standard in determining qualitative research (Noble and Smith, 2015). For example, of a case study, Yin (2014) considered that meeting a specified criterion can improve research to be rigorous, but sometimes, the criterion is not easy to define. Thus, Bryman (2012) considered that the researchers on case study follow the qualitative research strategies sometimes may ignore validity concern, but oppositely, who influenced by quantitative strategies would treat them as an important part of their studies. However, Maxwell (1992) believed that if qualitative research cannot achieve a valid finding, then followed policies, process, and even prediction would be unfaithful. Hence, although the majority of this study research relies on qualitative strategies, validity is significant in order to ensure the quality of
One aim of this study is to establish an index for inclusion education, which acts as a guideline to improve the inclusive environment in secondary schools. If the study is deemed invalid, it will have a negative impact on the guidelines which would have an adverse impact on the guidelines designed for the schools.

There are some specific strategies to ensure the rigour in this study is valid based on Noble and Smith’s introduction in 2015. First of all, personal biases must be kept in check because such biases may influence the findings. Secondly, ‘meticulous record-keeping’ (p.35) and using the records directly. Then, the interpretation of data should be ‘consistent and transparent’ (p.35). Thirdly, this study will also receive feedback from the participants to ensure the accuracy of the author’s interpretation and further reduce personal biases. Finally, data triangulation requires this research to compare the data obtained from the questionnaire with the interview responses as well as previous relevant studies to evaluate the findings’ validity in this research.

3.6 The establishment of the index

According to the previous studies, this research will follow the key steps of establishing this index in Figure 6.

![Diagram of the establishment of the index with Chinese conditions]

Figure 6 The process of setting up the index for inclusion with Chinese conditions

It is a simple route to build the initial index, and each step in this research will be extended. For instance, the data collecting involves the interview, questionnaire, and some document analysis as well as the exploration of the chosen schools and university. There is a similar process when
comparing this routing map with studies conducted by Depperler and Harvey (2004), Alborno and Gaad (2014), and Mo et al. (2016), which means that this is a comparatively appropriate approach.

3.7 Research process

This section will mainly focus on the entire research process of conducting the design above, including basic information of the participants, the general schedule of this research, and data analysis.

3.7.1 The participants

As mentioned in the previous chapters, the participants, in-service teachers, pre-service teachers, schools’ leaders, experts, have been involved in this research, but the local authorities did not accept the interview in this research. Although, the local authorities did not attend the interview, a leader of the local education department has received the outline and responded.

In this research, the in-service teachers and schools’ leaders are from five different secondary schools and were located at three different administrative districts A, B, and C in Beijing. Specifically, district C is located at the central area of Beijing, where has advanced economic resource and education including both the facilities and quality. Generally, although inside, there still has the differences between key and non-key schools, the average level of education in district C could be the highest in Beijing and even entire China. Compared with district C, district A, as one of the urban areas, also has fairly good economic resource and high quality of education, but the discrepancies of educational quality are remarkable. Geographically, district A is much bigger than C, also a district that joins the central city and suburban areas of Beijing; and the distribution of economic and educational resources seem to be imbalanced in this district. Therefore, although the top secondary schools with the highest academic performance are mainly from district C and A, the average level of education in district A is slightly less well than C. The third selected district B is one of the suburban districts in Beijing, where is biggest district in this research, but no matter the economy or education is disadvantaged comparing with other two districts. In recent year, local authority of district B provides a new policy that has already attracted many key schools to establish some branch schools in district B, which will provide positive effect on their average level of educational quality in the following years. In district A and B, there are more than one million migrants
living in each district; and thus, it seems that the schools in district A and B may enrol more migrant children than schools in C.

Figure 7 Map of Beijing

There are five selected schools in this research, one is from district A, two are from district B, and the rest two are from district C. School one is chosen from district A but is further away from the city centre. Geographically, this school is located at an urban-rural fringe that means this place between urban and suburban areas. According to the leader’s introduction, this is a non-key school with an average level in district A. School two and five are located at district B, a suburban district; and school two, based on its location, is recognised as a countryside school by the participants from this school. School two also is a non-key school with slightly lower academic performance than average level in district B. Differently, school five is close to urban area and it is a key school with fairly good academic record in this district even in Beijing. The rest of schools, three and four, are selected from district C, a city central area. School three is a non-key school and have an average academic record in district C, and school four is a key school that is one of the schools having the good academic performance in district C even in Beijing. The participants’ basic information will be presented in the following table.
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Gender</th>
<th>Position</th>
<th>Subject</th>
<th>Years of teaching</th>
<th>Schools’ Number</th>
<th>District</th>
<th>Education</th>
<th>Pre-teacher education</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
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<td>Teacher</td>
<td>English</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>A</td>
<td>BA</td>
<td>Y</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>F</td>
<td>Leader</td>
<td>English</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>A</td>
<td>MA</td>
<td>N</td>
</tr>
<tr>
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<td>Teacher</td>
<td>Biology</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>1</td>
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<td>BA</td>
<td>Y</td>
</tr>
<tr>
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<td>7</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>A</td>
<td>MA</td>
<td>N</td>
</tr>
<tr>
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<td>F</td>
<td>Teacher</td>
<td>Chinese</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>A</td>
<td>BA</td>
<td>Y</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>F</td>
<td>Teacher</td>
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<td>11</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>A</td>
<td>BA</td>
<td>Y</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>M</td>
<td>Leader</td>
<td>Chinese</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>B</td>
<td>BA</td>
<td>N</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8</td>
<td>F</td>
<td>Teacher</td>
<td>Chinese</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>B</td>
<td>BA</td>
<td>Y</td>
</tr>
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<td>9</td>
<td>F</td>
<td>Teacher</td>
<td>Chinese</td>
<td>16</td>
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<td>B</td>
<td>BA</td>
<td>Y</td>
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<td>Teacher</td>
<td>English</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>B</td>
<td>BA</td>
<td>Y</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11</td>
<td>F</td>
<td>Teacher</td>
<td>Math</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>B</td>
<td>BA</td>
<td>Y</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12</td>
<td>F</td>
<td>Leader</td>
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<td>N/A</td>
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<td>B</td>
<td>BA</td>
<td>Y</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13</td>
<td>F</td>
<td>Teacher</td>
<td>Chinese</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>C</td>
<td>BA</td>
<td>Y</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>14</td>
<td>F</td>
<td>Teacher</td>
<td>Math</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>C</td>
<td>BA</td>
<td>Y</td>
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<td>15</td>
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<td>Y</td>
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<td>Leader</td>
<td>Chinese</td>
<td>23</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>C</td>
<td>BA</td>
<td>Y</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>17</td>
<td>F</td>
<td>Leader</td>
<td>Math</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>C</td>
<td>MA</td>
<td>Y</td>
</tr>
<tr>
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<td>F</td>
<td>Leader</td>
<td>Politics</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>C</td>
<td>BA</td>
<td>Y</td>
</tr>
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<td>19</td>
<td>F</td>
<td>Teacher</td>
<td>English</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>C</td>
<td>BA</td>
<td>Y</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>20</td>
<td>F</td>
<td>Teacher</td>
<td>Chinese</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>C</td>
<td>MA</td>
<td>Y</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>21</td>
<td>F</td>
<td>Teacher</td>
<td>Politics</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>B</td>
<td>BA</td>
<td>Y</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>22</td>
<td>M</td>
<td>Teacher</td>
<td>Math</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>B</td>
<td>BA</td>
<td>Y</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
These twenty-five participants consist of eight schools’ leader and seventeen in-service teachers, which are four males and twenty-one females. It is a likely reflection of Chinese schools, especially at compulsory education stage, where the female teachers are more than male teachers, which may be caused by a stereotype in China that the male should not be a secondary school teacher. Also, teachers’ salary in many schools is not good enough and resulting in teachers’ paying more attention to the evaluation system in their teaching careers, which will be discussed in the following chapters. In school two, a focus group was conducted as per the request of the teachers and the school’s leader. Furthermore, one of the six leaders is no longer teaching, while the remaining are still teaching classes. The chosen teachers are currently teaching the following subjects: Chinese, English, Maths, Biology, Physics, Chemistry, and Politics, which are the primary syllabus in Chinese secondary school.

As shown in this table, only one teacher has less than five years’ experience. Most participants have more than ten years of teaching experience, and in particular, six of them have more than twenty years of teaching experiences, which means that the participants are experienced in education. Four participants have a master’s degree while the others are graduated with a bachelor’s degree, which means that all teachers have received higher education. Pre-teachers education is an essential step for those that would like to become a teacher, especially in primary and secondary schools. In the Chinese system, if a person does not have pre-service cultivation in the university, this person must pass an exam in order to gain a teaching certificate. This table shows that there are only three participants that are not pre-teacher students in university education, which means that most of them know the specific pathway of becoming a teacher. During the whole research, fifteen participants’ responses were recorded, but the others did not permit to have an audio record of the interview.

According to the descriptions of the schools, it can be found that they have covered different areas of a modern city in China; and their academic performances also can be the representatives of different level. Based on table, all teachers’ general information reveals that this research concern teachers from different teaching subject, different teaching experiences, and different position. It reflects that the participants in this
research could generally represent the schools’ situation, particularly the city area. Due to the huge gap between the rural and urban regions in China, this research may not be able to clearly reflect the rural conditions of inclusive education. However, if an issue of education could not be solved well in urban area, it would also be a problem in rural regions in China. Although the critical issues in education are different in different places in China, they still share similar culture and conditions, which this research may also inspire them to rethink their issues.

With exception to the participants from secondary schools, those pre-service teachers are from the university that specialises in cultivating students to become a schoolteacher. Table 2 will present the details of pre-service teachers.

Table 2 The pre-service teachers’ information

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Number</th>
<th>Gender</th>
<th>Age</th>
<th>Grade</th>
<th>Living place</th>
<th>Studying place</th>
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<td>City</td>
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<tr>
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<td>F</td>
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<td>Junior</td>
<td>City</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>F</td>
<td>18-25</td>
<td>Junior</td>
<td>City</td>
<td>Urban-rural &amp; rural</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>F</td>
<td>18-25</td>
<td>Junior</td>
<td>City</td>
<td>Urban</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>F</td>
<td>18-25</td>
<td>Junior</td>
<td>City</td>
<td>Suburban</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>F</td>
<td>18-25</td>
<td>Junior</td>
<td>City</td>
<td>Urban</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>F</td>
<td>18-25</td>
<td>Junior</td>
<td>Countryside</td>
<td>Suburban</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8</td>
<td>F</td>
<td>18-25</td>
<td>Junior</td>
<td>Countryside</td>
<td>Suburban</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9</td>
<td>F</td>
<td>18-25</td>
<td>Junior</td>
<td>City</td>
<td>Urban-rural &amp; rural</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10</td>
<td>F</td>
<td>18-25</td>
<td>Junior</td>
<td>City</td>
<td>Urban</td>
</tr>
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<td>F</td>
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<td>Junior</td>
<td>Countryside</td>
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<tr>
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<td>F</td>
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<td>Junior</td>
<td>Countryside</td>
<td>Urban-rural &amp; rural</td>
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<tr>
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Table 2 presents the number of participants that are involved in the questionnaire, which are counted as effective. Prior to officially releasing the questionnaire, a pilot study was conducted, which included thirty students in a university. According to this process, several questions were modified to ensure the accuracy of words and each question’s meaning. For example, there is a question about the participants’ studying area, which initially have two options, urban and suburban areas. Through the pilot test, many students have advised that the question should provide at least one more option; either ‘urban-rural fringe’ or ‘rural area’. Thus, the urban-rural and rural area was added as a new option in the questionnaire.

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(Source: questionnaires)
A hundred and twenty questionnaires were distributed to two Chinese University that specialises in cultivating the students to teach. Among the questionnaires, thirty of them were distributed by the researcher self, including 10 copies online and twenty offline. Other ninety questionnaires were distributed in each university with an academic staff’s help. All of the participants returned their questionnaire because they had been informed their rights in this research, including refuse and withdraw, before they participated; and therefore, the pre-service teachers who participated were confirmed that they are willing to help. However, as shown in the table, one hundred and seven questionnaires were selected, and the remaining have been rejected due to invalid answers. For instance, one person has answered the questionnaire twice; and three participants did not complete the questionnaire. Furthermore, there are several relevant questions, and the responses from four students on these questions are ambivalent. Other ineffective questionnaires are completed by the students who are not pre-service teachers, which means they are not part of this the required sample for this research. Therefore, thirteen questionnaires in total were rejected in this research. Although there is no specific rate of the questionnaire’s recovery rate, approximate eighty-nine per cent valid recovery rate in this research seems to be good, based on Babbie (2004) who supposed that the fifty per cent is sufficient and over seventy is remarkable.

Within the one hundred and seven participants, there are twenty-seven males and eighty females, which is a reflection of the previous statement about the ratio of male-female teachers in secondary schools. The age of participants in this research ranges from seventeen to twenty-eight, and they are separated into three groups; under eighteen, eighteen to twenty-five, and above twenty-five. Only five students are under eighteen, and two are over twenty-five; thus, the majority of the participants’ age is between eighteen to twenty-five. 5.6 per cent of the participants are the first-year students in the university, and 32.7 per cent of them are in their last year. Also, the research involves twenty-five secondary-year students and forty-one third-year students. Covering all grade in the university can reflect their curricula and cultivation system comprehensively, which details will be considered in one of the next chapters.

The last two columns present the participants’ living and studying regions of the compulsory education stage, which potentially links to several questions about their learning experience in the Chinese educational system. Seventy-four participants are living in the city, and the majority of them studied in the urban area when they were in secondary schools. By contrast, thirty-three students’ homes are in the suburb and countryside, and the majority of them did not have the opportunity to study in a city during their secondary education because of some
policies. Their experience would be able to relate to the Chinese educational regulation and household registration system; both of which could be influencing inclusive education in Chinese development. Further analysis will also be presented in the following chapters.

According to the analysis of inclusive education in previous chapter, the experts invited in this research are professors from Beijing Normal University and the University of Cambridge with academic achievement of inclusive education studies. The last participant is a leader of the Beijing Educational Commission, who refused the interview, but this individual has kindly responded to this research question via messages. The details of these candidates will be shown in table 3 below.

Table 3 Experts’ information

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</table>

(Source: interview)

This table shows an expert from China that has twenty years of experiences of learning and working on inclusive education, although his original academic research field is special education. Another expert, from Britain, also has rich experience of inclusive education, and his works have influences on Chinese and even the world’s research of inclusive education.

3.7.2 Research schedule

Before conducting the interview and questionnaire, the author has finished an application to receive an ethical approval for this research. This application includes some basic information of this research, such as purpose, method, participants, and potential ethical issues. The University of Sheffield will evaluate it to ensure the entire research can meet the requirements of ethical standards. Except for the University’s supervision, the School of East Asian Studies also ask author to fulfil a form of fieldwork to make sure the researcher and research avoid unnecessary risks. The fieldwork began at the end of April, after receiving ethical approval, and completed on November. The entire process will be demonstrated in Table 4.
Table 4 Research process

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<th>Task</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>May</td>
<td>Pilot test by using interview questions; modified the questions wording and questions order.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Jun</td>
<td>Conducted the interview in school one; sorting data</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>July</td>
<td>Established questionnaire; pilot test the questionnaire</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>August</td>
<td>Edited questionnaire via the feedback</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>September</td>
<td>Conducted the interview in school two and three; released the questionnaire in University one; Conducted an interview with experts one.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>October</td>
<td>Conducted interview in school four and five; released the questionnaire in University two; contacted with local educational authorities; sorting data</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>November</td>
<td>Conducted an interview with experts two; sorting data</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

July and August were the months of the summer holiday; therefore, the research did not conduct the interview or distribute the questionnaire during these months. The table outlines the pilot study in May involving four secondary teachers that are not from the chosen schools to test whether the interview questions were appropriate. For example, the first draft of the interview questions includes many questions with the words ‘inclusive education’. However, when the pilot study was conducted, the teachers commented less about inclusive education because they do not have sufficient understanding of the topic. In conjunction with this finding with Professor BP1’s suggestion, the questions’ wordings were changed. Similarly, the questionnaire was also tested prior to becoming released to the university students in July. The amended version of the questionnaire uses general words; for instance, using ‘educational phenomena’ to replace using ‘inclusive education’.

The data of this fieldwork contain verbal content and numerical information. Therefore, there is a need to sort the data via transcripts and input the result of the questionnaire. Prior to the data analysis, the author randomly selected several participants to discuss the transcripts to ensure the records are accurate; that it is according to what they wish to express. Furthermore, the questionnaires’ validity was also filtered by several related questions. Similar to the interview, the questionnaire has changed slightly in using language based on pilot studies. The approach of data analysing will be introduced in the next section.
3.7.3 Data analysis

In this research, the data will be analysed through thematic analysis and weight calculation. Naturally, the two patterns of analyses focus on different data; qualitative and quantitative.

3.7.3.1 Thematic analysis and qualitative data

Thematic analysis (TA) can be applied to identify, analyse, and interpret the meaning of the qualitative data (Clark and Braun, 2017, pp.297). They have further emphasised that the purpose of TA is not limited to summarising data, but it could also be used to explain and identify the data. According to Clark and Braun (2017), it can be found that the central aspect of TA is to explore the data beyond the surface, which would help the researchers to understand the thinking and feeling of the research participants.

The characteristic of thematic analysis is the flexibility in ‘research questions, sample size and constitution, data collection method, and approaches to meaning generation’ (ibid). Those characteristics have resulted in TA become a widely used analysis method for qualitative data. TA can be separated into six phases, and in such processes, the stage two and three, generating initial codes and searching for themes, seem to be the essential part of the whole analysis’ work, which provides potential themes and gathers related data (Braun and Clarke, 2006).

In this research, the data of research question one to three are qualitative, which could be disposed of by thematic analysis that would provide details and in-depth information on the complex data.

3.7.3.2 Weight calculation and quantitative data

The last research question in this project is to establish a framework of an index for inclusion education that adapts to Chinese conditions but also based on the British index. However, the indicators within the British index cannot be directly used due to different social characteristics. Therefore, this research will use vague set and weight calculation to evaluate the suitable indicators that could fulfil the needs of the Chinese schools. The vague set, and weight calculation process from the fuzzy comprehensive evaluation model will be selected because the two different methods can be a cross contrast test that would improve the validity and
reliability.

Zhang et al. (2009) explained that the vague set is defined by a truth membership function and a false membership function. Lu et al. (2016) supposed that $X = \{x_1, x_2, \ldots, x_n\}$, a vague set $A$ on $X$ would be described by true membership $t_A$ and false membership $f_A$. By using the vague set, it can discover whether an indicator has an important or nonimportant influence on the upper level, which is widely employed in many aspects such as decision-making analysis and expert system. Therefore, this method will be used to evaluate the participants’ level of significance of each indicator in different dimensions of the index for inclusion. Furthermore, it could filter out and reveal some appropriate indicators for the Chinese schools. The result will be compared with the weight calculation to ensure data accuracy and comprehensiveness.

The fuzzy comprehensive evaluation is a method that is impacted by various factors, to decide and comprehensively evaluate a project (Xue and Yang, 2014). In many studies, the influence factors are diverse, which means that the evaluation should consider multiple factors. For example, in this research, there is a Likert scale in the questionnaire, which including three major dimensions and six sub-dimensions with total seventy factors. Wang et al. (2012) also utilised the improved fuzzy comprehensive model to calculate every indicator’s weight and further evaluate the teaching quality. Although in this research, the evaluation does not occur at the initial stage, the method of calculating indicator’s weight will be useful to decide the factors that could be retained. Therefore, the fuzzy comprehensive evaluation seems to be an excellent method to explore the indicators that are appropriate to Chinese education. The quantitative data collected by questionnaire will be analysed by using SPSS and Excel, and the details of the calculation will be presented in the relevant chapter.

3.8 Concluding remarks

Overall, research methodology is an important consideration that guides a whole research process that provides rational supports from selecting a data collection method to data analysis. According to the purposes of this research, both qualitative and quantitative data collection methods are appropriate. Furthermore, while analysing the critical research questions and the methods, it is evident that the questionnaire, the interview, focus group, and the previous studies is most suitable in order to obtain responses to the research questions. The purposive sampling is chosen based on its characteristics because this research requires in-service teachers and pre-service teachers. The specific participants in those schools and the Normal University will be picked accordingly. The semi-structure interview and the focus group will be conducted in
order to gather data; where the participants involve schools’ principals, teachers, and experts, which can provide detailed and in-depth information that are relevant. In order to establish an initial framework of Chinese index for inclusive education, the questionnaire is also chosen to collect a large scale of data. The ethical concern and validity of this research are also discussed, where a discussion has been made to avoid or minimise issues.

The last sector generally introduces the entire plan of conducting this research and provides a clear visual impression by using several tables. It would help the readers to follow the steps of this study and to ensure the relevance and purposes in each stage is kept. In addition, it will provide a trackable route to the researchers that have interests to check this study step by step. At the end of this chapter, the techniques that are adopted to analyse collected data, have been explained, and these data analysis methods should be a familiar method used in relative studies. However, using fuzzy comprehensive evaluation model and vague set to filter indicators and establish an index for inclusion in Chinese schools could be treated as a novel trial in comparison. In the following chapters, each research question set in this research will be evaluated by fully considering both qualitative and quantitative data.
Chapter 4 Inclusive education in Chinese education

This chapter will focus on China, in terms of its application of inclusive education in schools. It will mainly link to schools’ leaders and in-service teachers because these are the critical roles in implementing inclusive education, and they are the individuals that are familiar with the conditions of Chinese education. Thus, these participants’ perspectives of inclusive education must be evaluated to discover their understandings of inclusive education with Chinese physical conditions. All the schools’ leaders and teachers are selected from three areas in Beijing because these districts’ conditions, such as economy, educational quality and students’ quality, are different. Thus, their consideration of inclusive education would be different based on the various external elements, where it could set as an example to some other areas in China and even some regions in Asia.

With the exception of those having a job in education, some universities’ students are specifically trained to become the primary and secondary schools’ teachers. Therefore, their opinions of inclusive education are also significant because it will not only present their attitudes toward this subject but also reflect the university’s attitudes and the prospect of inclusive education in the following years. This is because when the pre-service teachers are promoted to in-service teachers, their perspectives will directly impact on inclusive education in both theoretical and practical progress. The other two groups of stakeholders, the students and their parents, will not be considered in this research because according to the Chinese educational system, they are more likely to have a passive role in schools. It means they may not have enough influence to cause a change in inclusive education.

This chapter will be divided into two aspects: educational value in Section 4.1, and participants’ experiences, understandings, and attitudes of inclusive education in Section 4.2. These elements could reflect how oriental value, particularly the Chinese value, influence the teachers’ perspectives of inclusive education. Subsequently, analysis is conducted on the different understandings between the scholars and other participants and further develop the concept of inclusive education by considering the theoretical and practical situations with Eastern culture.

4.1 Educational value in secondary schools

Educational value plays a crucial role in guiding education, particularly the schools’ operations, which reflects the features of an educational system. For example, in China, based on historical records and people’s experiences, the examination is an essential route to achieving success.
This makes passing the examination and getting a high score is the most critical purpose of studying in China. However, in the new era, the Chinese government has already enacted several policies to modify this traditional educational consideration, such as fun in education, quality-oriented education, and reducing study load. Most of the policies have been issued for decades and affecting most Chinese schools. Therefore, the values that are underpinning the Chinese schools’ operations and processes should be treated as a characteristic of education.

The educational value must be considered as an important condition for the schools when attempts are made to localise inclusive education. It may also be the power or barrier to developing inclusive education in China. This part discusses all the leaders and in-service teachers’ opinions toward Chinese educational value in selected schools. It mainly includes two aspects; which education values underpin the daily operation of the Chinese education and how it impacts on their teaching.

### 4.1.1 The value of exam-oriented education

Examinations seem to be the iconic educational value of the Chinese educational system, whether it is the imperial examination system during the past centuries or the senior high school and college entrance examination in contemporary China. In the recent decade, the Chinese government highly claims that education should be joyful to every student, and many policies of reducing students’ studying pressures are enacted, which has moderately changed the education environment. However, the predominance of exam-oriented value is still persistent and would not be shaken in the short term, despite having a few participants who have advocated for different ideas. A school leader (7) stated that the educational value in China as:

‘There are two main points, and the first and the most important is considering academic record only. In other words, as a teacher, leader in school or a leader in LEA, their performance largely depends on their students’ academic results. The second one is obeying administrative order only. Our government realises the defects of only considering academic performance gradually, many new orders emerged for training students’ mental health and morality ..., but most of those orders are implementing without concerning the effects. Therefore, we could say the academic result is the only orientation that includes promoting students’ score and completing orders.’

Another schools’ leader (23) also underlined the significance of examination in Chinese schools’ system as follows,

‘I believe schools’ value in our country aims to (help students to) pass the entrance examination for the senior high school and university. Decades ago, entering primary school also needs to
pass the examination, which, fortunately, has been cancelled for several years. However, parents impose their views of studying on their children, so it causes exam-oriented value still dominating the education.

The leader (17) provided a very similar idea to participant (7) and (23), ‘Basically, the value of education is a process that following the tasks and orders ... Although we are trying to decrease the impacts of the score in education, (students in) the secondary school still has high stress because of the entrance examination for senior high school. In the situation of unduly considering score, all missions are set and managed toward to achieve a higher score, which will lead utilitarianism.’

The leader (16) in the same school also has the same view as the leader (17) regarding the secondary teachers’, whose core task is to assist the students to pass the exam and achieve the highest result possible. However, the participant (16) and (17) highlighted that although exam-oriented education exists, it is no longer the dominant value in their schools. The other leader (24) also agreed that there is a change in education and have mentioned that 20 years ago, there was a far more intense atmosphere of learning just for the purpose of achieving a high result in their examination. It is possible to see that presently; improvements are being made, but the education system is still based on the exam-oriented value. This is a typical educational value in Chinese schools, especially in the secondary and senior high schools because the last examinations in these two stages are critical to students’ future enrolment to prestigious schools. Also, if a secondary or senior high school cultivated a large number of students with high academic performance, it will represent the high educational quality and attract parents’ attention, which would bring profits to schools. It is because the majority of Chinese parents still believe that education is the only way to change their children’s lives or make their lives better. It makes the school with a high reputation have opportunities to choose students by setting a standard, which can be seen as breaking the rule of equality in education. According to the interviews, although the leader (2) and (12) did not specifically mention exam-oriented value, they did claim that the importance of syllabus, which mainly focuses on the exam. Clearly, almost all school leaders acknowledged so far that the essential value in the Chinese education system is exam oriented. However, there were a few leaders that believed that other values are guiding their daily work. For example, leader (18) claimed that, ‘Our school believe in education for all, which not only teaches basic knowledge and skills but also leads students to establish their values that will conform to social morality.’

The leader’s opinion shows that cultivating students are more important than focusing on their
academic performance. Other leaders also mentioned this idea, but it seems to remain at the early stages. As a leader (7) mentioned, compared with students’ academic results, nobody pays attention to the requirements of other policies. Indeed, in the past two decades, the Chinese educational authorities have issued various policies and instructions to change the education environment, but the critical examinations of the two stages are still the most dominant. Therefore, the schools, parents and even education are still restricted because they need to concentrate on the children’s academic performance. Undoubtedly, the children in this form of education are similar to a factory product that produce academic results rather than possessing any individual characteristics and even cultural inheritance. Clearly, the elementary inclusive education is not appropriate to the Chinese educational practice, because whether it is the broad or narrow understanding of inclusive education, its principal value is to accept and respect the diversity in education. However, all the school leaders admit that only consider the score in education could be an obstacle to the students’ development, especially in the compulsory stage, and this should be changed.

Interestingly, most participants mentioned the significance of examination in their daily work, especially the teachers that are working in the suburban schools. The participants from school one, two, and five are working in suburban areas, and most of them present the influence of examination of their schools. For instance, the teachers in the school one, have mentioned the following,

‘Our education system distinguishes students through examination that mainly tests students’ memory and level of intelligence.’ (Teacher1)

‘The key point is to help students’ improvement, and the most important thing is to achieve a higher score.’ (Teacher 4)

Also, teacher (5) in school one stated the education value is chasing educational fairness, and the most important example she gives is to establish an equal system of examination. Only teacher (3) in this school believed that the exam orientation environment belongs to the past. She advocated that the macro view of educational value is to cultivate individuals, and the micro opinion is that being a teacher is just an occupation for us. Similarly, the teachers and leader, which are participants (8), (9), (10), (11) and (12), are from school two, and they also mentioned that the examination is still the main focus of the Chinese education system. According to their discussion in the focus group, the examination reform, including contents and patterns, is happening, but the exam is still a necessity and important. There are five participants in school five; and three of them, teacher (22), leader (23) and (24), stated that the exam-oriented value is a ‘baton’ to guide the Chinese education system. When teacher (25) was asked the question
about the Chinese educational value, she was smiling and refused to answer. However, she introduced her teaching experience that is relevant to the exam system, which reflects that her teaching task is to follow the examination orientation. It can be understood that the leaders in this school treat the exam as a primary focus of education; the teachers would also have to support this notion in their teaching. Oppositely, teacher (21) presented an idea that,

‘Our educational value is to cultivate students to be moral and creative. I think we hope our children can develop healthily and comprehensively.’

It reveals another perspective in educational value within the current Chinese education as known as quality-oriented education, which has received many public’s attention and been accepted. Through analysing the interviews, the other participants in urban schools tend to apply this value to guide their work. The next section will evaluate this in detail and discover the reasons for their support in different educational values.

As aforementioned, the participants, both teachers and leaders, recognised that the exam-oriented education has disadvantages to education, but it does not mean that the examination system is entirely worthless. They believe that exam-oriented education should still exist. Teacher (1) shared his following opinion,

‘Our system is too simple, crude and cruel, which is not friendly to the students with defects. However, it (exam-oriented education) is a fair system at least in the current situation because it is suitable for Chinese conditions, like the huge size of the population and unbalanced resources allocation.’

Similarly, Leader (2) claimed that,

‘Our old system (exam-oriented education) makes students learn knowledge solidly and perfectly. After the new educational consideration emerged, it brings more aspects to education, like skills and emotion, it is excellent because the students can improve their personality and value. However, students cannot learn academic knowledge solidly like before.’

Furthermore, teacher (4) were comparing exam-oriented education with quality-oriented value,

‘Quality-Oriented education is a perfect opinion that emphasises on overall development. Every teaching and managing measures must focus on the students’ comprehensive development, which is good but is not practicable. Moreover, the one, we call quality-oriented education, still pay more attention to academic performance.’

With the exception of those teachers, teacher (5) think highly of the reform of examination,
‘Because some new policies of exam and students’ recruitment provide more opportunities for students to be enrolled in the key schools than ever before.’

The participants in school two, in a focus group, discussed that the education in their school aims to cultivate students comprehensively, establish socialist core values, inherit culture. They also stress that knowledge application becomes the principal purpose of education rather than focusing on achieving high grades in examinations, which will be better for students to develop their characters and interests compared to the traditional exam-oriented education. Interestingly, these teachers advocated that a mixed value of education is perfect. However, a leader (7) in this school highly criticised the exam-oriented education,

‘For me, it is not good because there are many issues in education and society influenced by our educational method. Many of our values are wrong; for example, people believe that a good academic score means everything is good and vice versa. This type of education will obstruct the comprehensive development of students, which is the reason that we highly propose to provide quality-oriented education, but this remains at the surface. Clearly, I implement the order, but the result is not important, and differently, I solely care about students’ academic score, which is still only good for students learning knowledge from our curricula.’

Basically, the participants know the disadvantages of exam-oriented education. For instance, the previous chapter has discussed an exclusive phenomenon, where the key school or key class can be seen as a typical product of exam-oriented education, to which students are classified by the educational system based on their academic score. It may be understandable in senior high school due to the highly competitive stress of the university enrolment test, but it should not be in the compulsory stage of education. Unfortunately, despite that the government has banned the classification of schools, some schools with high academic ranking are still ideal for students to enrol and their parents still regard that there is a gap among schools and key schools. Indeed, according to the interviews, these high achieving schools could receive more quality resources than other schools. This reflects many participants’ idea that some educational policies only apply to the surface of education. Although the exam-oriented seems to be contradictory to the consideration of inclusive education in some ways, most of the participants can find its advantages and necessity based on the current Chinese conditions. Therefore, it is significant to explore how inclusive education should be improved theoretically and practically in China.

As a summary, this section demonstrates part of participants’ considerations of exam-oriented education. It is generally treated as a system that deviates from society’s and individual’s
development because the students in this system have to obey the teachers entirely if they want to achieve enough score. Comparing this value with inclusive education can find that an individual’s progress is neglected by educators and even the children’s parents. It means the individuals may lose their ability to be independent in their thoughts and critical thinking skills, and this would have a further negative impact on their studies. For instance, most Chinese students that are studying at an international university with students from the rest of the world would barely question and even ask the lecturers compared with their peers. Does that mean the Chinese students do not have any questions? It is hard to judge whether they all understand, but the education they have received would affect them and discouraging them from asking questions. This passive model of receiving education and exam-oriented education means that teachers remain at the core of the education rather than students. It can be seen as a type of exclusion in education because students are restricted without personal interests and participation, which reveals the schools’ lack of consideration in education inclusion. Leader (23) and (24) has a similar viewpoint that under the exam-oriented value, students could not easily find their interests, and they could only follow the educational purpose; which is to pass the exam. It has already been determined the moment they have stepped into the school environment. This phenomenon reflects that the value of inclusive education in China has not been taken seriously. In other words, inclusive education remains at the fundamental level, which is a slightly different situation when compared with conclusions that are drawn from some Chinese scholars’ research and will be fully discussed later. It can be found that the three schools, located at suburban areas around Beijing, have been discussed separately from the other two schools because most participants in two of the schools believe exam-oriented education is out of date and the quality-oriented education is their first working value. Therefore, the next section will discuss the quality-oriented education on account of the teachers and leaders’ answers in the two chosen urban schools.

4.1.2 The value of quality-oriented education

Quality education, also known as ‘su zhi jiao yu’ in Chinese, means rounded education that does not only focus on a simple skill or orientation but aims at a person’s life-long development (Fu, 2018). It is another significant value in the current Chinese schools and even more important than the exam-oriented education in policies. As its name suggests, quality education focuses on the students’ comprehensive development rather than a sole focus on their academic achievement. It is a process that changes from an exam-oriented environment to an environment that promotes quality education and personal development. The participants in school three said that they are experiencing the changes and are following quality education’s requirements. The
leader (17) highlighted the exam’s influence on their schools and the whole educational environment, but at the same time, she also pointed out the changes as follow,

‘Because we advocate quality education, so the influence of academic score is decreasing ...
Now, this situation is changing, and the influence of score is less considering.’

Another leader (16) in school gave a similar answer that they believe in ‘sunshine education,’ quality education, comprehensive education. In other words, it is part of their school environment where the exam takes less precedence in compulsory education despite its importance in the Chinese education system. Their school concentrates on learning in practice to gain knowledge; thus, they create a less pressured environment for the students. This leader also pointed out that the exam is only a method of education, not the sole purpose, and therefore, excessive emphasis on the exams will have a negative impact on education. Teacher (14) and (15) explained their understandings of Chinese educational value by comparing exam and quality education. They claimed that education is changing from exam orientation to quality of education, and their school concentrates on improving the students’ quality recently. However, teacher (13) presented a different view,

‘I think the educational value in school is to cultivate students, which relies on teachers’ ethics and whether teachers love their job or not, of course, they need to be patient to the students as well.’

This view is similar to the teacher (3)’s concern that education is only a job for teachers, and the state of the school’s education will be dependent on their actions and attitudes. This type of opinion seems not to be within the mainstream thought in schools at this moment but is still mentioned by a few teachers. This reflects that the teachers’ cultivation is necessary because their values will have a further impact on their students.

In another urban school, the leader (18) stated that,

‘(Education) should be for all. For students, they should acquire some very basic knowledge and skills. They also need a guide for their values that mainly should accord with social principles. In general, they learn fundamental and superficial things.’

This perspective shares similar sense to education for all, which reflects that quality-oriented education value is in accordance with inclusive education. It shows that inclusive education and Chinese education have some similarities. In other words, practising quality education provides the possibility and positive condition of improving inclusive education in the Chinese education system. However, exam-oriented education would still obstruct inclusive education in some
Teacher (19) separated their daily works in two parts: teaching and education, ‘In both teaching and education, our values are traditional. For teaching, we hope that our children could learn the knowledge as much as they can. At the same time, our school’s essential concern is to cultivate their moral behaviour.’

Teacher (20) presented her idea that is similar to the teacher (19), ‘Teaching and education are different. I think teaching mainly concerns the cultivation of basic knowledge, skills and other qualities. For instance, Chinese courses cultivate students with abilities like linguistic performance, literature appreciation, and basic thoughts, which are fundamental. For education, our school always guide students to build the strong and positive values of the world and view of life.’

Teacher (19) and (20) believe that the school should be a primary place where cultivating morality as primary and teaching knowledge should be the secondary purpose. Most importantly, education’s purpose should be to benefit an individual’s improvement rather than to test their knowledge. She (teacher 20) claimed that a correct value (suitable for Chinese social morality) is fundamental to learn and develop. It will provide an excellent condition to promote inclusive value because cultivating students’ values should be treated as an essential purpose in a quality education environment. This period of secondary school is a significant stage for children to build their values toward society. If the inclusive value can be taught and accepted by secondary students, inclusive education and even the inclusion in society would be developed in the following years because the inclusive value would be rooted in their heart and impact on their behaviours.

When comparing the two typical education values in China, it is possible to see that quality education is more comprehensive than exam-oriented education. As in accordance to the leader (16)’s opinion, the purpose of education is not to test the students but to cultivate them, which means that students are the core of education rather than their examination results. According to Fu’s statements (2018), quality education is relevant to various parts of students’ learning, which would be easy for students to find their genuine needs in education. This point is close to an idea of inclusive education, which is to acknowledge and accept diversity in education. Clearly, the requirements of students in education are varied, and therefore, a specific aspect (pass the exam) will not be able to meet all the requirements. In other words, the academic score should not be the only standard that evaluates a student’s achievement and ability. Through
interviews with the participants, quality education is a value that aims to teach students based on their characteristics. However, in reality, whether it is quality education or exam-oriented education, the focus is still on teaching and learning knowledge. The most important aspect is that examination is the core of the process of teaching and learning, which means that quality education is developing within the shadows of exam-oriented education. For example, some parents and schools consider quality-oriented education is to organise students to join an interest-based group or class after school time or at the weekend.

Furthermore, the LEA and schools also consider that quality education is about reducing the students’ homework. Regardless of the changes that have been made, the senior high school and university entrance examinations still exist. Thus, the general education will still focus on achieving good academic results and examinations scores. Therefore, many students’ interests and education needs may not be fulfilled, which means that there is little meaning to the slogan of ‘quality education’ if the standards are not changed. However, it is hard to judge which value is definitely better than another because both have their own advantages and disadvantages. Analysing such merit and demerit of typical values in Chinese schools will support inclusive education to adapt to Chinese educational environment. Also, it will further help the conception of inclusive education to absorb different values and conditions.

4.1.3 The pros and cons of Chinese educational values

Every existing value of education has its advantages and disadvantages, and it not possible to determine a value that is right or wrong. In the last section, the importance of analysing educational value is repeatedly stressed because one of the purposes of this research is to build an idea of inclusive education with Chinese conditions, and the educational value can be treated as the essential elements of the condition. According to the participants’ understanding of educational values, some pros and cons of each value may have similarities or contrasts comparing to the conception of inclusive education. Thus, to analyse these good or bad influences can have insight into the Chinese educational circumstance and conditions, and further to supply new blood to the term inclusive education.

4.1.3.1 Consideration of Exam-oriented education value

With regards to the exam-oriented value, an essential point that the teachers have mentioned is its feasibility. As aforementioned, teacher (1) considered that exam-oriented education is
suitable for the Chinese environment, especially due to the size of the population and the allocation of limited educational resources. Thus, it is considered as an appropriate system. Furthermore, leader (2) said that when exam-oriented education is the guideline, it will lay a solid foundation of knowledge for students. Obviously, the participants, in school one, believe that at present, exam-oriented education is suitable for the social environment and requirement. Likewise, the leader (23) claimed that the exam is a suitable fit for social requirements.

*The first merit of exam-oriented education is to stratify the students roundly, which is easy to proceed on a large scale. Then the different industries and departments can choose the person with abilities and further cultivate them follow their requirements.*

In a positive way of the understanding exam, the leader (24) mentioned that,

*The purpose of exam-oriented education is very clear to let the student pass the exam with a certain scope of education, which can be seen as a simple mission that we could just follow.*

According to the answers above, the issue is back in considering the purpose of education in the compulsory stage. Compulsory education in China is the elementary process that selection should not be the primary purpose, which means that exam-oriented value should not be the dominant aspect of compulsory education. However, passing the exam is the most important step in secondary school because the first selective exam is at the end of the students’ three-year of studying. This creates additional stress to the secondary students, and teachers would focus on students’ academic performance. Furthermore, it forces the educational purpose of secondary school turned to pass the exam rather than spreading knowledge during the stage of compulsory education. However, if we consider the nature of compulsory education, the exam certainly will cause unfair in education. Therefore, modifying the evaluation criteria in compulsory education may be an effective way to avoid many exclusive phenomena, such as the existence of key schools, key classes, and student labelling in education. Although at present, the examination is criticised by the public, many participants considered that exam is still a relatively fair method to select or test students, based on Chinese characteristics. It is an important reason that examinations exist in the educational system not only in China but also in many other countries.

Although the participants in school one, two and five adopt the exam-oriented value as their school system, they also presented critical opinions toward exam-oriented education, in particular, the teachers in school two and five. As mentioned above, leader (7) considers that the exam-oriented value causes many social and educational issues because people distinguish children as good or bad largely by solely looking at their scores in the exam. Therefore, other
participants in school two argued that it is improper to focus on the exam in their daily work solely;

“Our educational value or education in school should not focus on the rigid knowledge but cultivate students’ general quality that can be used flexibly in their lives. Also, the core value of socialism and our traditional culture should be taught to students. Although the exam-oriented education is also noticeable in our educational system, the government is trying to reform it, which could benefit individuals’ development.’ (Teacher 8,9,10,11 and Leader 12)

The teachers have objected the simple evaluation of a student based on their exam results because they believe that absorbing knowledge is not the only way to achieve success. Currently, the exam score seems not only to be the standard of evaluating the students but also a criterion for judging the quality of the teacher. This forces the teachers to create even more focus on students to study and focus on the examinations, thereby neglecting the students’ need in education.

“The biggest weakness of exam-oriented education is that our students will lose their personalised learning needs. Under this educational system, the range of learning is limited, and students may not have sufficient ability and passion for studying in-depth. Most children’s endeavour on studying, we call it personalised learning, but the aim is clear to pass the exam, which utilitarian is fairly marked.’ (Leader 23)

Besides, leader (24) stated that,

‘The defect of exam-oriented value is lack of concerning the individuals’ learning characteristics ... Students’ future should not be the same but various.’

Overall, exam-oriented value is an education pattern where everything that is done is for the purpose of entering higher-level education. There is less concern with the improvement of individuals’ thoughts, creativity, and interests, which causes all students to become similar to a product produced by the education factory. Several exclusions in education emerge gradually, such as key schools and key class that classify the students by only considering their academic performance. Also, teachers may pay more attention to the ‘good’ students who have better scores in the exam than others. It can be found that exam-oriented education is not suitable for students’ comprehensive development and bring extra pressure to students and teachers. It will even lead to unfairness in education, but the exams still exist because it seems to be the most equal method of selection in the highly competitive educational circumstance. Thus, in order to promote inclusive education in Chinese educational environment, the influence of exam-
oriented value and the way of combining various values requires full consideration effectively.

### 4.1.3.2 Consideration of Quality education value

Another significant educational value in a Chinese school is quality education that highlights that the primary purpose of education should be to cultivate children’s overall rather than gaining high scores in exams. As its name suggests, quality education underlines a student’s rounded cultivation rather than solely focus on academic study; this may include physical, mental, moral, aesthetic, and legal education. Having good physical and psychological health is essential to all students, but participants barely mentioned these two parts. Teachers may have already believed that these two parts had acknowledged as the footstone of education by the public; thus, there was no need for them to mention it. It has been proofed by several teachers who accept ‘call-back’ after their interview,

‘Physical and psychological health are significant, and I mean they are not only essential considerations of quality education but also exam-oriented education. Because without health, our students cannot achieve anything.’ (Teacher 1)

‘As I said before, our country is implementing some policies that would benefit students’ physical and mental health. I cannot say such policies are working indeed, but at least we do care students’ health without any doubt.’ (Leader 7)

Based on their replies, children’s health is the most crucial, regardless of which educational value has been implemented. However, how schools can genuinely practise the relevant policies, not just doing surface work must be re-concerned by every educator.

According to the interviews, moral education is likely to receive the most attention from the teachers, especially from school four in the urban area. The participants (18), (19) and (20), paid great attention to students’ moral education. As aforementioned, participant (18), a leader, claimed that the students in secondary school only need to learn some basic knowledge and skills, but all the knowledge and skills must conform to social morality. Teacher (19) evaluated the quality education value in her school as follows,

‘All students should learn how to be a human being before they learn other things. A good or healthy personality will guarantee personal development in the future and of course, including their academic achievement.’

Teacher 20 drew more attention to the school’s role in quality education and stressed that,
'In my opinion, the school is a significant place to shape our students’ value of lives and takes a major part of education. Therefore, I believe it is necessary that our school and even all schools should provide positive perspectives to the student because, in the school, our students can be seen as learning and living in an organised group environment that impacts on every child.'

Apparently, quality education does not focus intently on passing the exam as a fundamental educational purpose. It advocates opportunity for children to find their interests, which is a notable advantage of quality education compared to exam-oriented value. It further reflects that minimising the focus on the exam in the secondary school stage will benefit the children’s long-term progress, which is also considered by the teacher (14) and (15). Similarly, leader (16) argued that quality education could provide various directions, rather than just academic supports. At the same time, students have more opportunities to show their talents by following quality education. Although the quality-oriented education emerged at the beginning of the 21st century, which has passed a decade, it appears to remain at the superficial level.

Several issues or defects could block its development. First of all, it has been mentioned in the previous paragraph that the public may misunderstand quality education. It does not mean learning more is better, although quality education emphasises on comprehensive development. Nowadays, in China, there are massive’ interest classes’ outside the school to cultivate children with all types of programs, including English, Chinese, mathematics, drawing, musical instruments, and some other courses. However, it is difficult to define that the purpose of these programs is to support the cultivation of children. This is because these programs are still focusing on examinations, in particular the school and university entrance exams. This makes the public treat these ‘interest classes’ as ‘tutorial classes.’ The phenomenon of ‘interest classes’ is common and widely accepted by Chinese parents, which reflects that the exam-oriented value is a deep-rooted notion even though the government actively promotes quality education. For this reason, the outside school’s classes will cause a further issue of educational fairness, which can be evidenced by the leader (17) who mentioned that,

‘Nowadays, our school only teaches basic knowledge to students, which is fair inside the school. However, the ‘interest classes’ outside school are exclusive and unfair.’

She pointed out that the class is classified as interest-oriented, but the courses are highly relevant to the examinations. She stressed that these external interest classes force students to pay extra money to learn, which is a type of exclusion in education, particularly for the students coming from low-income families. She further noted an example of her experience in an
interests-based class off-campus, and she bluntly acknowledged that inequality is remarkable. In the case of this participant, she illustrated that in order to respond to quality education, most schools must only provide fundamental knowledge to students in their daily studying. It means there is insufficient time to focus on every detail in the syllabus that would appear in the examinations. Therefore, the off-campus classes become increasingly popular, and frequently, the teachers in the interest classes, especially the large educational institution, are having comparative experience of helping students' examination. It means that if a student attends the classes outside the school, this student will learn more knowledge and skills about the exam and have more advantages in the exams compared to the others who do not attend the off-campus classes. As shown in the example, the original intention of quality education is fantastic and indeed, makes education in most schools reasonably equal and the teachers to recognise the various students' abilities gradually. It reveals that quality education shares a similar purpose of education with inclusive education, although admitting and respecting the diversity of students is just the first step of improving inclusive education.

In addition, the far-reaching influence of exam-oriented education, individuals’ misunderstanding of quality education, and the government’s requirements of quality education lead to the divergences of school education between the parents and teachers. This will have a negative influence on the implementation of quality education in the school. Teacher (20) is struggling with the relationships between school and parents, and she mentioned that,

‘The disadvantage of quality education in our school ... I think there is something that may not be resolved well. For instance, schools and parents cannot achieve an agreement that the ways and purposes of cultivating children because the adults’ values are varied. We, as teachers, teach our students base on teaching material, but their parents will further consider the children’s more complicated futures. It always leads to some difficulties in our (teachers and parents) communications on their children’s performance in school.’

The school obeys the policies of quality education to teach the children comprehensively and reduces the emphasis on the examination. However, the current situation in China is that the examination is still an essential process in education, which parents regard it as important and is the only way for their children to have access to opportunities. This shows that changing people’s perceptions is the most important as well as the first stage in order to be able to practise and make improvements on the new entities, such as quality education and inclusive education. However, it is difficult to implement because the public’s acceptance of a new idea does not only base on the public’s experiences but also depends on the advantages and feasibility within the current environment. Comparing with quality education value could find that inclusive
education is a fresher value in the educational field. It will be more difficult to be adopted by the Chinese public if the scholars and government simply copy the broad definition implemented by the Western countries. Thus, the consideration of the educational values can provide an insight into the local educational conditions. This can further accelerate the development of inclusive education under local regulation.

Through these interviews, all participants have evaluated the educational value in their respective schools with Chinese education environment in mind. With an exception for those two central values mentioned above, two teachers, (3) and (13), have deemed that the school’s operation is based on teachers love of their job; thus, largely depends on the teachers’ likes and dislikes. Although this value is different compared to the mainstream views, exam-oriented and quality education, all these opinions seem to reflect a similar thing that students in the current Chinese educational system are passive. It reveals a compelling reason as to why the quality education cannot be implemented as the people’s wishes. This is because passive learning will restrict the students’ way of thinking and cover the students’ real needs and speciality, which restricts the improvement of quality-oriented education. According to all these interviews and the broad perspective of inclusive education, both exam-oriented and quality education have both similarities and differences to inclusive education. This will impact both the positive and negative development of inclusion in the Chinese educational system.

4.1.4 The links between Chinese educational value and inclusive education

In this research, although the secondary school is part of the compulsory education, the students and teachers also need to confront the first selective exam, which indeed causes many exclusive phenomena in this stage. Many exclusive actions are contrary to the purposes of compulsory education and the requirements of the Compulsory Education Law in China, and of course, do not meet the standard of inclusive education. However, there is a delicate relationship between Chinese educational value and inclusive education. Achieving educational equality is vital to inclusive education, but so far, examination seems to be the most appropriate approach to protect educational fairness because equality cannot be absolute but relative. Most teachers’ responses can prove that other methods at this moment cannot replace the exam if the public pursues an equal education. The public always criticises that education in China is not equal because the examination only reflects the learning and the ability to memorise. However, without the exams or tests, what is the alternative method for schools to acknowledge the students’ talents? Importantly, learning and memory also are part of the abilities that are required within quality education. Thus, if the public simply emphasises Chinese education
should turn to quality education, the educational system cultivates students’ abilities of learning and memory should not be criticised because they are also parts of students’ quality. In recent years, many schools have provided opportunities to students nurture their abilities, such as drawing, dancing, sports, and musical instruments. This has led some students to spend their time to join interest classes after school and indeed offers extra opportunities for them to focus on their hobbies. However, the process of showing their talents to schools also become competitive, which does not mean that a student that could dance or play a musical instrument has a guaranteed place in a more prestigious school. As a result, Children learn extra activities which appear to satisfy the ‘comprehensive’ in education, but in fact, all these trainings would still ultimately aim to deal with an examination or test. It is easy to find that examination in Chinese education is important regardless of any educational values that they possess. However, if the primary aim of education is to pass exams, education will lose its significance. Therefore, in the process of chasing education equality, the examination should only be one of the methods rather than an aim. With this in mind, quality education is closer to inclusive education than exam-oriented education because it is insufficient to take equality into consideration solely.

Although quality education has emerged for almost two decades, the public’s attitudes are different. Some people believe that quality education is the hallmarks of a real education, which is to cultivate children to learn a range of skills instead of just passing the examination. On the other side, quality education seems to be regarded as a series of policies that makes inequality appear in education frequently and further reinforce the status of social class. On the positive side, the quality education enables students to have more options to learn different skills and parents are willing to provide opportunities to their children to accept rounded cultivation. However, sometimes, it is difficult to define that whether attending an extra course is children’s willingness or their parents’ intents. There is no doubt that regardless of what the children have learned, their qualities would be improved. However, considering the current condition in China, the essential purpose of their entire learning is to pass exams, which means increasing students’ other skills is only a complimentary offset.

Furthermore, quality education in both school and interest class attempts to cultivate the students’ hobbies and interests. However, students must obey the educators’ instructions which may not be the real interests of the students. If quality education is understood as cultivating students’ interests, it would be a narrow view because the student is an essential part of the education; their interests should be discovered rather than cultivated. It further reveals that the process of discovering students’ interests is a process of accepting educational diversity, which is similar to inclusive education. Moreover, the public schools must obey the policies to focus
less on examinations, but selection based on exam performance still exist, which have led to
the creation of various off-campus classes. The negative side of this is that not all students could
afford such classes, and even the teachers’ quality in those classes are uneven. This shows that
quality education breeds unfairness in education.

According to the interviews, it can be found that education in China, especially in Beijing, is
primarily impacted by both exam-oriented and quality education. Specifically, school one, two,
and five in the suburban area focus more on the examination, while school three and four pay
more attention to quality education. Although Beijing, as the capital city has significant
advantages for the allocation of educational resources, the distribution is not equal because of
the diverse conditions of the sixteen administration districts. Hou and Yi (2011) evaluated that
in Beijing, most high-quality educational resources, mainly teachers’ quality are located at the
city areas, which means that the children that live in the urban region can benefit from such
resources. The high-quality teacher resources would directly result in high-quality education
that will further benefit the students’ performances in their examinations. It means that the
suburban schools have to spend more effort to achieve a similar academic result. The
participants that work in suburban areas believe that the exam-oriented value guides their
schools’ operations; however, they also hope that their students can be comprehensively
cultivated. However, the conditions of the schools would be a barrier to their hopes because the
academic performance is not only the standard to assess the students’ learning but also to
evaluate the teachers’ teaching.

Furthermore, the government stresses that all primary and secondary schools must reduce study
load continually with many policies that force the schools to do so. This makes the suburban
schools having to spend more time on the study to prepare for examinations because of the
Chinese selective educational system. Oppositely, urban schools with higher-quality
educational resources translate to less stress on the result brought by the policies of reducing
study load. This means that these schools could have more time compared to suburban schools
to work toward quality education during school time. At the same time, according to the
interview with a leader (7) in a suburban school, the family background also affects a school’s
education. He claimed that in the compulsory stage, the policy, ‘nearest school’ stipulates that
children can study at a neighbouring school. Most students around suburban schools are from
a rural and migrant family where parents do not have a high expectation or enough time to
discipline their children to study. Therefore, they are less concern whether their children
participate in off-campus courses, and thus a reduction of study load to these students is a real
reduction in terms of accessing quality education.
In contrast, students in urban schools may not spend much time to study in their schools. However, many of them have off-campus classes, including exam-oriented knowledge and interests’ cultivation. This would enable them to gain additional skills for future competition while not having a real decrease in learning. Thus, it is difficult to define that quality education is better than exam-oriented education because it seems to be a comprehensive education but has limitations and misunderstandings in practice. Once a student has stepped out of a school, the external education would not be fair, thus causes some exclusive phenomena in education, which is against the broad understanding of inclusive education.

A comparison between the dominant Chinese educational values to the broad understanding of inclusive education can find an interesting point relevant to the cover range of inclusive education. According to UNESCO’s definition of inclusive education, the conventional educational system should take the responsibility of cultivating all children (UNESCO, 2009). This reflects that regular school is the place to practise inclusive education, but it does not apply to off-campus classes. Does these outside schools’ education also need to follow the idea of inclusive education? It is difficult to decide because based on the term of inclusive education and the cognition of human rights, education is for all. Thus, as far as education itself is concerned, both school education and off-campus classes are all part of education and thus should be considered as part of inclusive education. However, most off-campus courses do not only aim to cultivate children, but they have a commerce intention, which is different from public education in a regular school. Hence, the interest classes outside the school may not be a suitable example of inclusive value because of its commercial nature that makes these courses have an extra threshold fee. Although off-campus education is different from the regular educational system, some perspectives of inclusive education are still considered by these commercial educations. For instance, these classes should respect rather than reject all the students’ characteristics and needs in education, even if these students belong to special educational needs.

Furthermore, in China, both quality education and exam-oriented education cultivate students in a unified pathway, which results in student gradually losing their uniqueness. Although the government highly advocates quality education and students’ comprehensive development, which are partly similar to inclusive education, the diversity in education appears not adequately respected by teachers. It is easy to find that practising inclusive education in China has both advantage and disadvantage, which means that original inclusive education values require some changes before it can be adopted into the Chinese education. In addition, some of
those changes can be a supplement to the broad perspective of inclusive education. Therefore, considering the current condition of Chinese education and inclusive education, it is possible to conclude that inclusive education should not be solely responsible for the regular educational system but also need to be considered and maximised by all types of education.

Last but not least, as a dynamic process, inclusive education should not be a simple statement. Therefore, it could be changed anytime anywhere by combining with other educational ideas together because of the various conditions in different cultural background. As per its definition, diversity should be respected, and once this is accomplished, the perspective of inclusive education could be spread, and the local educational environment can be improved effectively. Thus, inclusive education should be an educational value that should match the local conditions and conform to social morality. Considering local conditions is an essential precondition of researching and practising inclusion in education, which will benefit the action of inclusive education.

4.2 The understandings and attitudes of inclusive education

The previous chapter has evaluated many academic perspectives on inclusive education in Britain and China. However, the researchers may not be the actual individuals who practise the inclusive value in teaching areas. Therefore, only considering the 'scholars' understandings of inclusion is insufficient in order to fully comprehend inclusive education in its entirety. In addition, it is more significant to know the in-service teachers' understandings and attitudes on inclusive education because they can directly impact on the practice of inclusive education and define inclusive education. As a result, combining researchers’ and teachers’ understandings of inclusive education will make inclusive education more comprehensive, practical, and acceptable.

This section is one of the essential parts of this research because it will initially reflect the gaps between academic researchers and in-service teachers by mainly evaluating the teachers’ understandings of inclusive education. This will reveal the development of inclusive education in China and bring inclusive education closer to reality. The primary aspect in this part is the critical analysis of the participants' understandings of inclusive education, and this will be compared with some of the researchers’ opinions. The aims are to seek out the teachers’ understandings and attitudes on inclusive education and further explore how their perspective can affect the term of inclusive education at the academic level. Some pre-service teachers’ views will also be focused on this segment because most of these participants will become
teachers after graduation. It means their perspectives of inclusive education will not only reflect the situation of their universities’ cultivation toward pre-service teachers but also could impact on their future action in their first teaching career. Potentially, some barriers to improving inclusive education would be found during the evaluation.

4.2.1 In-service teachers’ understandings and attitudes toward inclusive education

Teachers are not similar to researchers; they may not have sufficient knowledge about the definitions of inclusive education and even the LRC, but they are the people who directly practise inclusive education and LRC. Most teachers claim that they are too busy to learn about inclusive education, which means that their understandings may not be as thorough as the researchers. Through investigating all participants’ answers of their understandings of inclusive education, it can be found that their descriptions of inclusive education are similar, simple and straightforward, but their attitudes toward inclusive education or LRC are different. It is crucial to evaluate the teachers’ understandings and attitudes, which can reflect the developmental level of inclusive education in the Chinese education system, supplement the notion of inclusive education with more local consideration, and further improve inclusive education with cultural characteristics.

4.2.1.1 Education is for all

‘Education for all’ is an iconic feature of inclusive education, especially for the researchers who support its broad perspective. All the teachers and school leaders that have participated in this research can literally understand inclusive education with the broad perspective based on the Chinese translation of inclusive education. In detailed, their explanations of it are simple at the beginning of this research because most of them have no idea what inclusive education is. This shows that inclusive education is not a widely known educational idea in schools and even within the entire education system in China. However, all participants agree with the value where education should be for all.

‘I have not heard about inclusive education and integration (Rong he jiao yu), but I know LRC. Inclusive education seems to say we should accept all, which means everyone can receive an education. I assume that inclusive education is equal to compulsory education.’ (Teacher 1)

The simple term, inclusive education, can be easily understood by participants,

‘I do not know inclusive education before this interview, but I know the LRC, not in my class.'
You mentioned integration (Rong he jiao yu), so I think inclusive education covers integrated, and I mean inclusive education covers all. For example, all learners should be involved in education, no matter where you from, and how your family is, which is broader than integration’ (Leader 2)

Other teachers in school one express similar understandings of inclusive education where they have not heard of it until the interview except for teacher (6) who believed that she heard of it previously. However, compared with other participants in school one, her understanding of inclusive education also relied on the literal meaning of the Chinese translation. She frankly presented that she only heard about the words, but no one explained to her. Teacher (4) considered that although she did not know the exact definition of inclusive education, she has heard of some similar values. Teacher (3)’s understanding was slightly different from others, ‘Inclusive education seems to put a lot of students’ needs (in education), and all of these contents need to be done in school.’

Although she pointed out that the students have different needs in education, her understanding of inclusive education was relatively partial and limited. Some participants’ understandings in another rural area school are not precisely the same, leader (7) commented, ‘I have no idea about inclusive education and integration (Rong he jiao yu), but I know LRC. ‘Inclusive’ is to accept all, but I am not sure in which dimensions. Thus, either it aims to include all knowledge and curricula in education or to accept all students in education … I think inclusive education is a term stressing equity in education, right? We should provide education to all school-age students regardless of poverty, disease and other elements. I do not whether my understanding is right or wrong.’

In the focus group, only leader (12) reported she had known about this concept while other teachers were not sure about this concept. However, all of them have insights into LRC because they are practising this model in their school. Therefore, their understandings of inclusive education are influenced by LRC, ‘Inclusive education means to accept all students, including those with intellectual and physical difficulty. Teachers should not treat them as special individuals but need some special approaches that cannot cause special treatment.’ (Teacher 8,9,10, and 11).

Furthermore, teacher (8) and (9) claimed that inclusive education is more than LRC because it covers all students, and it advocates equality to most learners in education. Teacher (10) considered inclusive education as being more detailed than the current educational system, and
it can be a classification education, which can link back to the Chinese professor’s description of current LRC in Chinese education. It reflects that the current educational conditions have an impact on teachers’ understandings of inclusive education, and participants are also affected by the LRC because when they explained about inclusive education, they mainly emphasised the disabled students, which is likely because their school has been practising LRC model for many years. However, they can understand that education is a fundamental human right that everyone should receive.

The school five is also located in a rural area but not far from the urban region and a few participants here have heard of inclusive education. Teacher (21) claimed, ‘I had learned about inclusive education when I prepared for my exam, but I cannot remember the clear notion now. I think it mainly aims to provide education through applying the specific approach to cultivate students based on their conditions and needs, and further to make them learn and develop.’

She was the first rural school’s participant who mentioned that school education should not only focus on enrolment but also respect students’ diversity. A leader (24) also learned inclusive education in her previous training, and she stated the following, ‘From the Chinese words, inclusive education is to accept students comprehensively, which including the students’ types (mainly referring to the different types of disability), the current educational development, and the development of the various students’ characteristics.’

Although her idea of inclusive education also includes the disabled students, she treated it as a part of inclusive education. It seems that in this research, she has a broader view compared to the other participants who highlight disabled group in this concept. In contrast, other participants, teacher (22), (25) and a leader (23) that work in this school do not know anything about inclusive education, but through explain the Chinese translation of inclusive education, all of them claimed that it is an idea that education is not for some but for all.

According to the interviews and focus group in these rural schools, it appears that most teachers do not have any knowledge about inclusive education, but they could still understand its literal meaning. Several participants who claimed that they heard about it before, but only two of them report something more than the literal meaning of inclusive education, which does not only consider education for all but also concern the students’ diversity in education. Most participants in these schools understand the LRC model because most of them are practising or have practised it in their teaching experience that impact on many participants’ understandings.
The other two urban schools have a similar situation where participants barely knew about inclusive education but do understand the LRC model and integration (Rong he jiao yu).

‘I do not know inclusive education, but I have experience of practising integration. The local educational authority dispatched a professional teacher to our school, and there was a student with a disability in my class, so I have an opportunity to know integration during the period of communicating with that teacher. Inclusive education, for me, aims to accept all kinds of students without any conditions.’ (Teacher 13)

It reflects from this teacher’s opinion that the translation of inclusive education and integration seem to make teachers confused. She understood that integration (Rong he jiao yu) in China is for the students with a disability, and inclusive education is for all. Teacher (14) and (15) also have no prior knowledge of inclusive education, but they knew about integration (Rong he jiao yu) and LRC. In contrast, teacher (14) and (15) believed that integration (Rong he jiao yu) is the same as inclusive education, but they treated this term in a narrow way by focusing on the disabled students. It is important to stress that the wordings may not be 100% accurate during translation, but the most important element is that they could understand the underlying principle of inclusive education. A typical case in this school is a leader’s understanding of inclusive education, which is

‘I have learned something about inclusive education, which is a social trend that individual difference can be integrated into society as early as possible. It will lead our children to respect the diversity and let them help each other.’ (16)

This participant also highlighted in Chinese schools, whether inclusive education or integration should take consideration of all students, which is different from teachers’ understandings above. Although she used both terms of inclusive education and integration in Chinese, the essence of those two terms is the same in her response. The last participant (leader 17) in school three also claimed that she knew about inclusive education,

‘I think in the early years when we did not implement inclusive education, our education system would classify the students precisely. For instance, the students without disabilities should study at the mainstream schools and the disabled students like an intellectual barrier and hearing issue could go to special schools, but recently, the mainstream schools enrol many children with special needs gradually, which would have two significant meanings for all students. Firstly, for those students with disabilities, they need to adapt to the society, I mean the real society that requires them to learn how to communicate with others and how to treat other’s view properly. Secondly, for their peers, they also need to know and understand those
different groups and to learn how to respect and live with them. It is a mutual process for all students to gain different experiences, which is the meaning of inclusive education in my mind.’

She treated inclusive education as a process that teaches everyone how to live together well, which does not only take consideration into education but also all the students’ future lives, although her understanding stressed about the disabled children in education.

Participants in school four reported that they are familiar with integration (Rong he jiao yu) and LRC because every year, the local education authority releases some tasks that are related. At the same time, the participants could still understand inclusive education by explaining the translation words of inclusive education and their experience. A leader (18) claimed that, ‘Inclusive education is likely to say (we) should accept all students, especially for those students with special needs. We can accept them without any conditions and treat them as same as their peers.’

Her understanding of inclusive education emphasised disabled students in education, although she recognised the concept of education for all. It further reflects that ‘Rong he jiao yu’ (integration) in Chinese schools is about the students with special needs, which is not a different translation of inclusive education. According to the Chinese term, ‘Quan na jiao yu’ (inclusive education), teacher (19) and (20) defined it as, ‘Inclusive education requires us to accept all students to study at mainstream schools regardless of their conditions.’

‘Inclusive education? Every child should participate (in education), something like that, and they all have the right or opportunity to receive an education.’

The participants do not seem to have systematic understandings of inclusive education. However, clearly, all of them believed in an alternative expression of inclusive education where ‘education for all’ is an essential point of inclusion in education.

Overall, as an independent notion, inclusive education is rarely known by most participants; particularly the rural schools’ teachers. However, some leaders have an initial understanding of it. All participants reported inclusive education should be applied to all students, though some of them only focused on the disabled students in their schools. This reflects that the Chinese education has a fundamental condition to adopt inclusive education, where the teachers believe that everyone should receive an education, and some of them have advocated the diversity should be respected. There is a slight difference between suburban and urban schools, where
urban schools’ teachers know more about inclusive education than the suburban schools’ teachers. However, there is no difference in terms of their understandings of LRC. This can be related to the previous discussion on educational values because the exam-oriented value has influenced those three suburban schools to concentrate on the students’ academic performance whereas the other two schools adopt quality education, which makes them hold a relatively open mind to new ideas. With regards to the LRC, as some leaders have argued, they must follow the LRC’s requirements because it is an administrative order to their schools. This is the reasons for most participants to report that they know about LRC, and there is less difference between their understandings of LRC concept.

However, teachers’ broad understanding of inclusive education is at the fundamental level; since they have insufficient details of it thus could not have an in-depth understanding of such a concept. Some of them linked inclusive education with special education, and they were influenced by the ‘Rong he jiao yu’ (integration) and LRC. This leads them to focus on disabled students as the only group under inclusive education. It revealed some negative factors that may impede the improvement of the broad perspective of inclusive education, which is caused by the policy, practice, and some researchers’ studies. Many relevant policies employ the words ‘Rong he jiao yu’ to describe their expectations of LRC, which is closely related to integration and mainstreaming. At the same time, some researchers have translated inclusive education to Chinese words ‘Rong he jiao yu.’ It is confusing because in English, integration and inclusive education are totally different definitions, but in Chinese education, they share the same translation.

Furthermore, many researchers supported the notion for LRC to replace inclusive education, which would mislead readers to treat both terms as being the same. All of those factors create misunderstandings amongst the teachers regarding inclusive education. This is because the policies, practices, and the studies on inclusive education are the primary ways for the teachers to learn about inclusive education and more importantly, teachers do not have sufficient time to have an in-depth study of those concepts. This means that there is a higher probability that the materials that they read would become what they understand.

4.2.1.2 Inclusive education and LRC are different

There is a need to explore how in-service teachers understand inclusive education and what their attitudes are. However, it is not sufficient to solely focus on their perspective by examining their view word to word. UNESCO’s definition of inclusive education is introduced to the
A noticeable result is that most participants recognise the difference between inclusive education and LRC for example,

‘For me, LRC is a policy to let the students with a disability stay at school with their peers, but their studying situations are neglected or excluded in their schools. Of course, if some students bully them in the school, teachers and leaders will prevent them officially, but it is a surface practice. Inclusive education, based on that definition, the school should have some specific methods to cultivate the students with any special needs ... I should not say special, but what I mean is school should have some teaching methods to meet the students’ characteristics and further to provide an appropriate education to students.’ (Teacher 1)

Clearly, this teacher believed that inclusive education is broader than LRC, which is only a part of inclusive education knowledge. However, teacher (1) is still unable to eliminate the influence of special education because inclusive education is still related to the students with a disability, which may be influenced by the previous experience of practising LRC. Teacher (4) evaluated the current Chinese environment and claimed the following,

‘Inclusive education seems to be broader than LRC, and as I said, inclusive education literally means that (education) fully accept every individual ... So far, LRC is an excellent action to deal with education in China because the resource is deficient in China. However, if one day the society is developed, and the resource is sufficient, the students with a disability should receive specific education.’

She can distinguish the difference between inclusive education and LRC, but her opinion also reflects that there are still some barriers that impede the implementation of inclusive education. This should be noted when researchers attempt to localise the term and put it into action. The other participants in school one realised that the views about inclusive education covers more than LRC, for instance, a leader (2) presented the following,

‘Inclusive education and LRC should be an inclusion relationship where inclusive education covers all ... inclusive education contains not only physical and intellectual problem but also the races, religion, and so on. LRC is only a piece of practising inclusive education.’

Teacher (5) and (6) directly pointed out that inclusive education does not simply refer to disabled students. Teacher (3) further pointed out that,

‘inclusive education is to accept all student and to deploy all resources ... LRC is to find a
proper level to those students (with a disability) and to place them studying with their peers.’

Analyses that have been performed on all the participants in urban and suburban schools show that inclusive education is not limited to just practising LRC. The participants in urban schools have a comprehensive understanding of inclusive education rather than focusing on individuals with disabilities. For instances, teacher (13) presented that,

‘I think LRC is only a part of inclusive education because inclusive education likely has a big group or a big range, but LRC only concentrates on the students with special needs.’

In these urban schools, two leaders also clearly advocated that inclusive education is different from LRC,

‘Inclusive education can be treated as an educational value to guide teachers, which has an inclusion relationship with LRC. LRC is only a model to practise a part of the idea of inclusive education, and it is a breach of putting inclusive education into action.’ (Leader 17)

Another leader (16) shared a similar viewpoint that achieving inclusion in education is a process, and LRC, as a stage of this process in Chinese schools, is at an early stage. Participants in another urban school shared that,

‘LRC is a simple part (of inclusive education), which in my mind, is an extra consideration toward the special or disabled children. However, as you have mentioned, it is difficult to achieve participation in education widely so far.’ (Leader 18)

Teacher (19) and (20) compared the UNESCO’s definition of inclusive education with their practice of LRC. They have presented ideas such as community, and cultural participation are beyond the LRC’s consideration. Teacher (21) is experienced in practising LRC and was able to differentiate it with inclusive education,

‘The foreign conception (of inclusive education) does not classify our students but provides the opportunity to all students to develop through different courses and teaching strategies. Oppositely, LRC is to offer a chance to the children, diagnosed (as disabled), to study with their peers at traditional school, which has significant differences between those two things.’

A leader (24) illustrated that,

‘Inclusive education requires more from teachers and schools, which makes the school environment and standards more detailed and complicated.’

These two opinions are slightly different from others because both of them believe that
inclusive education requires the school to adapt to their students rather than having the students to meet the school’s standards. This reflection is based on their experience; LRC seems to concern the placement of the students with disabilities rather than students’ diversity.

In summary, most teachers find that LRC partly practises inclusive education when compared with UNESCO’s definition of inclusive education. The participants do not only recognise that the ranges of both ideas are different but also the teaching methods and strategies. Based on participants’ understandings of inclusive education and LRC, it can prove that some Chinese researchers use LRC to replace inclusive education in their studies is inaccurate. Importantly, LRC is more similar to a practice of the narrow notion of inclusive education, but the teachers know the differences between these two terms. This will benefit the broad understanding of inclusive educations to eliminate the influence of special education.

4.2.1.3 Exclusion still exists in Chinese education

Exclusion is the opposite of inclusive education, and Chinese education indeed has attempted to decrease the exclusive value. However, some symbolic phenomena remain, which can be seen as barriers to improve inclusive education and further impact on inclusion or equity in education. The in-service teachers have reported many exclusive phenomena during their studies to become a teacher. In addition, a few of them pointed out that such phenomena are happening in their schools now, though they understand that such issues are not fair in education.

The most remarkable problem is the student classification in education based on their academic performance, and it leads to many different exclusive issues. Teacher (3), who has twenty-four years of teaching experience, recalled her experience when she was studying history in secondary school,

'I was born in the 1970s, which is a period of elite education, not like education for all. Thus, some students’ academic performance could not catch up with their classmates. However, for teachers, they only pay attention to a few elites and neglect other students who have poor academic results.'

As a result, those students that do not receive attention from the teachers would experience a gradual decline in their education. For example, a student would have to repeat the year’s work if he or she has long lacked attention from teachers. Teacher (4) shared the same phenomenon as follows,

'The relationship between teacher and student was fine, and well, of course, the teacher would
show preference to students with high academic performance. When I was in the compulsory education stage, the rate of drop-out was high because of their poor academic performance or poverty.’

In the focus group, teacher (11) pointed out that teachers treat students differently based on their academic performance, which directly creates the ‘key class’ and ‘key school,’ thus resulting in the students to receive the different quality of education. Although she did not mention the more serious incident such as drop-out, this participant argued that such educational classification should not exist; at the very least during the compulsory stage. In the same school, a leader (7) proclaimed that,

‘There are two conditions, including different treatments and resource allocation. Here, I am not saying the general meaning of resource, but what I mean is teacher pays more attention and provides more support to the ‘good kid’ who has an outstanding academic level. Oppositely, for those students without a good exam score, the teacher barely provides support to them and treatment is also simple and crude, which normally, is to beat and scold.’

This participant is one of the youngest interviewees in this research, which means that his experience of studying at the compulsory stage was in the early twenty-first century. However, comparing his viewpoint with the teacher (3) shows that during the 1980s to the early 2000s, academic score priority has not been changed. Even nowadays, although Chinese education undergoes the implementation of various actions to reduce the influence of examination, academic performance remains an essential consideration to teachers and schools due to the existence of exam-oriented value. As aforementioned, the exam system brings equality when selecting the students, but it also brings exclusion to those students who do not perform at the traditional subjects.

As the interview went further, more participant mentioned that academic result is a significant standard to teachers when evaluating their students, resulting in many inappropriate actions taken against the students. For example, teacher (19) gave her experience in detail,

“I can remember that one of my teachers classified students by our academic performance strictly. In an exam, this teacher said ‘the students with good academic result sat on the left, and they would not cheat because they knew what they had learned. Other students sat on the right, and I would not care whether you cheat or not because all of you could not get the right answers.’”

Although the participant did not mention the students’ reactions, such negativity would result
in those students to isolate each other and could lead to a difficult situation. The participants mentioned that the teachers label their students with ‘good’ and ‘bad’ depending on the students’ academic performance. Besides, teacher (1) claimed that his own schoolteacher classified a student with low academic performance as ‘intellectual problem’ without any diagnosis. With the exception for the exclusive phenomena caused by the students’ academic performance, the participants have also raised some problems, including gender discrimination, poverty, unbalanced educational resource allocation, teachers’ prejudice, and other issues. For instance, a leader (2) said that her teacher firmly believed that boys perform better than girls in a secondary school. Teacher 10 stated that there was a big gap in education quality between a wealthy family and a financially struggling family. Teacher 9 reported that an urban school could receive more resource than a suburban school even at the present moment. The other participants, (13), (14), (15), and (17), argued that their teachers would express their personal emotion and preference when they were teaching. This leads to unfair treatment both to the participants themselves and their classmates. Most interviewees believed that their experience of exclusion in education was from teachers, except for teacher (5) and (20) who mentioned that they had been isolated by their classmates.

Considering all participants’ basic information, it is possible to see that despite studying at a different time during their compulsory education stage, the majority of them have reported some similar issues. This means that in the past decades, the purpose of Chinese education has not been fundamentally changed. At present, most participants said that they could still find exclusion in education, but its influence seems to be decreasing. Most participants acknowledged that such problems should not exist in education, particularly in compulsory education. However, they mentioned that it is a problem of the society and as a part of this society, they are unable to violate the social value. In contrast, teacher (4) agreed with setting ‘key school’ and ‘key class’ based on students’ academic performance,

‘I do not think the existing key school or key class is an exclusive phenomenon in education. In a certain degree, it is a model that teach students in accordance with their aptitude, but it cannot be excessive.’

Cultivating students, by considering their abilities, is likely to be an expression of respecting diversity in education. However, the classification of key school or key class that only focus on the students’ academic performance has no relevance to students’ diversity.

Furthermore, some participants mentioned the bullying and isolation in the school, where they believe that the relationship between students is not as close compared to their schooldays.
Teacher (5) directly said that the exclusive phenomenon such as bully or isolation is highly relevant to students’ personality and family education. It reflects an issue that Chinese education lacks cooperation with other parties, and this type of communication would benefit not only to the students but also the school. Many interviewees have stressed that they do need to cooperate with students’ families and find an appropriate strategy to cultivate the students. However, the teachers and parents have different expectations toward the students that would result in them to be excluded in education. Teacher (20) and (21) argued that some parents cultivate their children in the wrong way.

‘Some students’ parents communicate with others by using ironic words, and their parents always judge others negatively, which impacts on their children badly.’

‘There is a child in my class and always steal his (her) classmates’ stuff, which makes others isolate this student. However, his (her) parents believe the exclusion is my fault, not their child, ... Also, they find many excuses for their child’s stealing behaviour. It is seriously wrong to teach children, and it directly leads others to exclude this child because of his (her) behaviour.’

Indeed, it is difficult to reduce exclusion among students if only the efforts solely rely on the schools and teachers, and like participant (19) and (24) suggested, educational can only be solved if the parents and schools work together.

Moreover, a few participants evaluated the influence of family background and policy could result in exclusive phenomena such as different resource allocation and teachers’ treatment toward the students. The leader (23) provided an example that in Beijing if a student does not have a registered permanent residence, this student is unable to enrol in the high school entrance examination. This means that this student does not have the chance to have education in a high school in Beijing. He argued that this is a form of discrimination, but it is caused by the Chinese resident policy that forces the students to have to receive an education with different quality. Chines education resources are indeed allocated unevenly, and most high-quality educational resources are allocated to well-developed areas.

Meanwhile, educational resources are also limited in cities such as Beijing, Shanghai, Guangzhou, Shenzhen, and some other big cities. It raises a problem where the local education authority has to protect and prioritise the local students’ rights to education, but at the same time, it will also violate other non-local students’ right to receive an education. A Chinese citizen should have equal right in every province and city. Therefore, when the government links resident permission to the educational right, it creates a barrier to inclusive education.
However, taking consideration of the huge population and limited educational resources in China, one can find that this education policy attempts to protect students’ education right under the special conditions in China. Hence, it is not possible for inclusive education to have an accurate judgement of Chinese education due to limited resources available to a large population. Another existing exclusive or unfair phenomenon in education is that due to the students’ family, which is reported by the participant (13) and (17) who believe that the different social classes have an impact on the students’ learning.

Finally, the focus group raised another point of exclusion, where the teacher is actually the vulnerable group in the school at the moment. Participants (8) and (10) claimed that the current standard of teacher evaluation is rigorous, thus causing vulnerability to teachers. For example, teachers cannot punish students, and if they do, teachers would be denounced by the parents and even the public. Teacher (10) further argued that the teachers’ language and even eye contact might harm our students and of course, resulting in increased difficulty for teachers to cultivate students in the school. The focus group provided an example that happened in other school and attracted the public’s attention,

‘There was an online picture showing a student who holds up an umbrella for a teacher, which seems to be fine, but many comments online consider the teacher abuse that student. We cannot understand how they know it is abuse, not respect.’

Their discussion reveals that the direction of public opinion is biased, which leads to increased pressures to Chinese schools from both the family and society. The idea that everyone is equal in education is appropriate to this situation, which indeed, everyone in education includes not only the students but also the teachers and other staff.

4.2.1.4 It is a long journey to the full implementation of inclusive education

Most participants have provided relatively positive attitudes toward inclusive education or LRC because of the correlated policies issued by the government to improve inclusive education, particularly the LRC model. Therefore, several participants have shown that their attitude toward inclusive education is actually part of LRC because many schools have been practising it for many years, and they are familiar with LRC. This has made them consider and understand inclusive education draw upon their regular practice in the classroom. The most remarkable perspective is that inclusive education or LRC cannot be achieved in the short term. So far, the relevant policies are only applicable at the fundamental stage of inclusive education.

‘The government or the relevant department would like to gain a good comment from society.'
For me, I do not believe that any traditional schools are readily willing to enrol the disabled students, and our country also has special schools for those students, so…’ (Teacher 1)

The negative attitudes do not only exist in practice; it is also a theoretical concern,
‘If the conception of inclusive education is to all students, I will say it is utopian excessively, and I barely remember the definition presented by UNESCO because I could not remember anything at all about it.’ (Teacher 5)

It is the same consideration to the theoretical debate of inclusive education which is to practise this value comprehensively. However, if inclusive education is treated as a process rather than a statement, practice it is a vital step of this process. As Professor BP1 suggested in his interview, a vital component of inclusive education is to put its value into action. Two participants in the suburban schools and another two from urban school criticised that.
‘So far, the educational value, like inclusive education, would be an administrative order, which is treated as another task for teachers only, and I think they (schools) may not faithfully implement the order for students’ development.’ (Leader 7)
‘The practice is empty, like LRC, because those students with disability for the top, they are empty (of little use). Thus, it should be generalised from the top of our educational system.’ (Leader 23)
‘The LRC or inclusive education is just a policy that guarantees the education rights to students, particularly disabled students.’ (Teacher 13)
“’I think teachers barely know ‘Rong he jiao yu,’ so its influence is limited. For me, it should be necessary to know and understand as a conception and theory, but it is too professional to practise so far.’” (Leader 18)

Some participants worried about the effects of inclusive education in practice,
‘It is Okay, I mean regardless of whether it is LRC or inclusive education, it has limited influence on our works. For LRC, there are only three students with disability or difficulty in our school, so the impact will not be much.’ (Teacher 21)

Their attitudes reflect that inclusive value is barely known by schools, which is the primary barrier to the practice of inclusive education. This is not to say that these participants do not agree with the idea of inclusive education. However, they concern that it is challenging to implement inclusive education into their daily teaching works at this present moment. Except for negative attitudes, there are many neutral ideas that the school can partly adopt to implement inclusive education or LRC under current conditions.
‘If the school is big enough, it would be fine because the students with disability may not have a significant impact on this school’s academic performance. However, if a normal size school (like us), there will be enormous pressure. So, which kind of school these students should go largely depends on whether or not the students can control themselves.’ (Leader 2)

It reflects that an academic performance standard restricts the effects of practising LRC in a school. The students’ academic performance not only related to themselves but also directly links to an evaluation of school and teachers’ teaching performance. This means that schools and teacher will have to balance the implementation of inclusion and their teaching performance. Thus, the school would investigate the elements of inclusive education that may not have a negative impact on their academic performance prior to acceptance and implementation. Of course, the evaluation standard is not the only condition that concerned by the teachers, and teacher (4) highlighted the lack of resources in education,

‘It is a good conception and the practice, LRC, is fine because, during the years, our school has accepted many children with disability. The LRC is the best choice at this moment because our educational resources are limited, so if one day the society improved well, the education toward the disabled students could become better.’

Her opinion has revealed the significance of understanding and practise inclusive education, which is to combine the theory with local conditions. However, many participants have demonstrated that inclusive education is similar to some actions in Chinese schools at present. Teacher 3 firstly mentioned that,

“It is like our slogan ‘does not give up any child’ and compulsory education, which is not only for the protection of our country but also our obligation of the children. Obviously, it can be seen as inclusive education, and I think some exclusive phenomena among students are inevitable.”

In the focus group, participants from a suburban school also highlighted that,

“Inclusive education should be implemented, and our country is carrying out the ‘Rong he jiao yu’ that is similar to inclusive education.” (Teacher 8, 9, 10, 11, and Leader 12)

Many participants recognise LRC and ‘Rong he jiao yu’ in regulations that are only concerning the disabled students. At the same time, they can recognise the similarities and differences between those terms, LRC, ‘Rong he jiao yu,’ and inclusive education. It makes them hold positive attitudes toward inclusive education, based on their experience. Two leaders (16) and (17) mentioned that,
‘Inclusive education is suitable for our compulsory education, which can improve quality education to all citizen. Based on our huge population, LRC is an excellent practice that is not only an essential part of education but also reduces the burden toward families and societies.’

‘Inclusive education is necessary and should be generalised. (Relevant authority is) Conducting many actions now, and there will be more documents. For example, professional teachers can guide our teachers and then organising training to the teachers who do not have relevant knowledge and experiences.’

Teacher 20 also stated that inclusive education is closely related to Chinese education,

‘We are practising both LRC and inclusive education, but there is no specific wording of what it actually is. No matter LRC or inclusive education has already affected the school’s environment, school’s culture, and so on. I believe if the conception of (inclusive education) is more systematic and become a topic in our teachers’ meeting, it would provide more details and make our development more purposeful.’

It reflects that the Chinese education environment has huge potential to successfully adopt and develop inclusive education as some values about inclusive education have already been recognised and conducted by relevant authorities. The current weakness is just a lack of a complete system, and this research could assist in terms of setting such a system.

In conclusion, participants have different attitudes toward inclusive education and LRC model. However, it is easy to find that most participants who knew inclusive education prior showed a more positive perspective than those who have heard it for the first time. The negative opinions concerned that the practice of inclusive education mainly LRC can be seen as a ‘surface work’ in the school. Some participants believe current policies are not really caring about the students who have special educational needs. Their concern is reasonable because if LRC is not implemented well, the practice of the broad conception of inclusive education will be more difficult to implement. According to these participants’ opinions, academic performance attracts teachers’ major attention, and the evaluation toward schools and teachers’ performance is also based on students’ academic result. This directly impacts on implementing inclusive education because the teachers have to concentrate on students’ learning, and at the same time, they are unable to meet every single students’ needs. Therefore, the excessive emphasis on academic record is a noticeable barrier of practising inclusive education in China because teachers need to meet their teaching tasks set by the relevant authority.

Furthermore, most interviewees claimed that they had not heard of inclusive education until the
interviews, which means when they were studying at their university, there were no curricula that have detailed introduction of inclusion in education and even LRC. This may mean the teachers may not be ready for the diversity in education when they teach for the first time. In addition, they also need to spend extra time to prepare and learn such endeavours. However, the evaluation of their performance based on academic results still exists, and teachers’ energies are limited, the combination of all these instances is a barrier to implement inclusive education in China.

Meanwhile, some participants claimed that inclusive education is necessary, and some have details that they are currently are practising it. Unlike the participants above, these participants compared the broader perspective of inclusive education with many Chinese policies and strategies to judge the value of inclusive education to Chinese education. It reflects that under the Chinese education system, the broad understanding of inclusive education is practicable. However, there are some undeniable problems raised by teachers; therefore, when some participants provide their positive views, teacher (19) countered,

‘I think many details of inclusive education, that UNESCO defined, we are practising now throughout our education, which is good value. However, if there is a standard to judge teachers’ work, it could be treated as extra stress.’

It is not difficult to see that teachers are afraid of a new standard that forces them to learn something new but have no contributions to their core evaluation. It is because they are restricted by the official requirements of their students’ academic records and their limitation of energy. Having mentioned that, teachers’ positive reflection also reveals that understanding inclusive education is an essential step of its promotion, which again, mirrors the significance of a proper understanding of inclusive education with local characteristics but at the same time, to follow the original frameworks.

Based on both considerations of inclusive education, the barriers of inclusive education cannot be twisted in a short-term because teachers have insufficient knowledge of inclusive education or only treat it the same as LRC, though many existing Chinese policies and actions are similar to the broad opinion of inclusive education. As a teacher (25) summarised that,

‘If (we) put inclusive education into action, there will be a long journey to establish people’s value of inclusion first.’

Hence, the pre-service teachers’ understanding is vital to the development of inclusive education because they will undertake the responsibility of popularising and practising it when
they become to teachers as well as having the time to prepare for it while they are studying at university now. The following section will aim to evaluate the pre-service teachers’ understandings of inclusive education and their experience of several typical exclusion in education raised by in-service teachers above. This will not only provide different perspectives of inclusion in education to supplement inclusive education but will also reflect the current situation of professional education in the relevant field.

4.2.2 Pre-service teachers’ opinions of inclusive education

After conducting interviews with the in-service teachers, the investigation toward pre-service teachers employs a questionnaire that consists of both quantitative and qualitative questions. It will mainly explore whether they know or understand inclusive (or LRC) education according to their learning experience in university.

4.2.2.1 Participants’ basic reflection on inclusion and exclusion

According to the interviews, in-service teachers barely understand the concept of inclusive education, and most of them understand it through their work. This implies that when those in-service teachers were university students, they did not have programs that are relevant to inclusion in education. Presently, this situation has not significantly changed in the university, as shown in Table 5 below.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Table 5 Relevant Curriculum of inclusive education or LRC</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Number</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Yes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Not sure</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

(Source: questionnaire)

The participants are from two main universities that cultivate pre-service teachers in Beijing. As shown in the table, less than fifty per cent of them confirmed that they had related courses about inclusive education or learning in the regular classroom. Thirty-eight participants firmly noted that they do not have a related program and about twenty-two per cent pre-service
teachers report that they are unsure. The lack of relevant program directly impacts the pre-service teachers’ knowledge of inclusive education or LRC. Table 6 presents that whether the selected pre-service teachers know inclusive education before this research.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Number</th>
<th>Rate (%)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>40</td>
<td>37.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No</td>
<td>61</td>
<td>57</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Not sure</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>5.6</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

(Source: questionnaire)

Over sixty participants have no knowledge about inclusive education out of the one-hundred and seven questionnaires. It is similar to the in-service teachers’ experience where the majority of them have not to hear about inclusive education before this research. Although forty pre-service teachers claimed that they heard of inclusive education, most of them are only from two departments, which includes twenty-two participants studying ‘special education’ and eleven participants studying ‘early childhood education’ at their university. It proves that the research pertaining to inclusive education in China is closely related to special education. Also, it seems to have more focus on the early stage of education than a compulsory stage. Table 7 shows that whether the selected pre-service teachers heard of LRC before this research. This can be seen that the data is similar to the situation of inclusive education.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Number</th>
<th>Rate (%)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>35</td>
<td>32.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No</td>
<td>23</td>
<td>21.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Not sure</td>
<td>49</td>
<td>45.8</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

(Source: questionnaire)

About fifty participants’ answer is unsure because they cannot confirm whether they have heard of ‘learning in the regular classroom’ prior, and only about thirty-three per cent of participants have reported that they have heard of LRC prior to this research. In contrast to the situation of
inclusive education, the eleven participants in ‘early childhood education’ were not familiar with LRC. However, the participants in ‘special education’ have heard of it. Through analysing these three situations in the two universities, it can be found that inclusive education or LRC do not attract the teacher education system’s attention. It is because none of the three questions has more than half ‘Yes’ answers that are exactly same to the in-service teachers’ reflection on it. Importantly, most pre-service teachers who have knowledge about inclusive education in universities are mainly from two departments. The combination of these factors restricts the development of inclusive education.

According to the interviews, the questionnaire also investigates several exclusive phenomena, mentioned by in-service teachers, to explore whether those exclusions have changed. Most in-service teachers argued that when they were students in compulsory education, the academic records will cause exclusion in education, such as the phenomena of key schools and student labelling. These notions are still existing in the present day.

Table 8 shows the number of pre-service teachers that have enrolled in key school during their compulsory education.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Number</th>
<th>Rate (%)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>98</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Not sure</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

(Source: questionnaire)

Table 9 reflects the situation of pre-service teachers that are concerned with the phenomenon of key school under current Chinese education circumstance.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Number</th>
<th>Rate (%)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>95</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
The classification of students that is based on their academic performances is a remarkable exclusive phenomenon from the perspective of inclusive education, especially during the compulsory education stage. There is more than ninety per cent of pre-service teachers that claimed that they had experienced this type of classification in education. In addition, about eighty-nine per cent of participants answered that the key school and key class still exist in compulsory education, which is extraordinarily higher than the other two options.

Another phenomenon that is relevant to academic record is labelling, mainly ‘good student’ and ‘bad student.’ Table 10 shows the participants’ experiences of labelling.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Labelled as ‘good’ or ‘bad’ student in compulsory education</th>
<th>Number</th>
<th>Rate (%)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>81</td>
<td>75.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>17.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Not sure</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>6.5</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Clearly, most of the participants were labelled when they were studying at primary and secondary school. They also claimed that this type of labelling still exists in education, which can be found in Table 11.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>‘Good’ or ‘bad’ student label still exist</th>
<th>Number</th>
<th>Rate (%)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>89</td>
<td>83.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>1.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Not sure</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>15</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Students’ learning performance cannot entirely reflect a child’s abilities, but merely using the
academic record to judge a student seems to be widely accepted by Chinese teachers, parents and even the students themselves. This type of classification could result in students receiving the different quality of education, which is not based on their diversity but their past academic performance. It definitely can be regarded as an exclusive phenomenon in education and leads to another exclusive phenomenon where the students were only allowed to mix with the ‘good’ students. The data has proved that half the participants answer ‘yes’ on the question that is related to this phenomenon.

There are some other exclusive phenomena mentioned by in-service teachers, such as bullying and isolation. Pre-service teachers regard that bullying is more serious than some in-service teachers who believed that bullying is unusual in their schools. However, over half of the pre-service teachers in this research claimed that they have experienced or seen bullying during the period of compulsory education, and ninety-three of the participants affirmed that bullying still exists in Chinese schools. Similarly, with other exclusion in education above, isolation is also significant in Chinese education, where eighty-eight participants provided an affirmative answer to this question.

Although until now, many exclusive phenomena exist in Chinese education, people are not against such issues that are mainly caused by an evaluation that is based on academic performance. People in China still treat the exam score as the most significant factor in education. Consequently, the public will show tolerance to the exclusive phenomenon when a child is isolated because of poor academic performance. More importantly, most people do not recognise those issues are part of exclusion. It cannot be denied that the development of inclusive education exists in China. However, the value of inclusion requires more time to be gradually accepted by the Chinese, and the value is an initial step to study and practise inclusive education.

4.2.2 Pre-service teachers’ understandings of inclusive education

Many words appeared in the open-ended question regarding their understanding of inclusive education, mainly including everyone, all people, respect, diversity, and equality, although many of them have no knowledge of such terms prior. It is interesting that special education or special education needs are barely mentioned by these participants, which is sharply different from the research of inclusive education that is always related to special education.

Mainly, common knowledge of inclusive education from those pre-service teachers are similar
to the following,

‘Everyone should receive an education.’ (Participant 71)
‘Understand, respect, and accept all.’ (Participant 77)
‘No one should be excluded from education, no matter any reasons.’ (Participant 83)

Most pre-service teachers, including some participants who reported they have knowledge about inclusive education, have a similar understanding of the term and is based on the Chinese words ‘Quan na jiao yu.’ Again, it reveals the lack of relevant training that makes their understandings fairly simple and plain, similar to some in-service teachers in this research.

In contrast with participants with such simple understandings, many participants in ‘special education’ subject presented more details, such as diversity in education, the quality of education, human right, and even a comparison between inclusive education, integration, and LRC. For instances, the participant (87) argued that,

‘It is an idea of education that hopes the educational system can accept all children and learners, and then provides equal and proper educational opportunities, resources, and supports to them.’

“All children have their ‘special needs.’ Generally, Inclusion is about understanding and respecting differences and further moving to an inclusive society.” (Participant 106)

There are also many expressions of inclusive education that are similar to the two participants above that have a more in-depth concern with all students. Indeed, in the current circumstance, the school and even society are unable to fulfil everyone’s requirements of ‘special needs.’ However, it should not be a reason to disregard others that are different; in other words, there is no ‘special’, but only some students’ needs that cannot be fulfilled at this moment.

Although combining inclusive education with special education may not be part of the understanding of mainstream education, it is still mentioned by several participants. Typically, the participant (100) illustrated that,

‘Quan na jiao yu is similar to Rong he jiao yu, which is inclusive education or integration. Inclusive education breaks the traditional segregation between mainstream school and special school, which includes physical, curricular, and social segregation. Inclusive education provides an opportunity for students with special educational needs to learn and live with their peers in mainstream school.’

In the beginning, the author used Chinese phonetic alphabets instead of inclusive education and
integration because participant (100)’s answer had the issue caused by different translations that mentioned previously. She believed that the Chinese text ‘Quan na jiao yu’ and “Rong he jiao yu” is translated from inclusive education in English. According to her understanding, it can be found that she used the word inclusive education (Quan na jiao yu), but the associated data are actually related to integration (Rong he jiao yu). Some participants distinguish inclusive education with special education, for example, ‘Inclusive education could be a system that provides the opportunity to every child with different characters and needs to participate in fully, which reveals the equality and humanistic care in education, and is more general than special education.’ (Participant 89)

Furthermore, the participant (93) claimed the following, ‘It is a complete system and opposite to the dual-track education system. It is not only about physical level but also about curriculum, mental field. So, the development of inclusive education can depend on not only special education but also the whole educational system reforms from top to bottom positively.’

They recognise inclusive education does not only have a broader range than special education, but it is an independent system, which will benefit its broad understanding progress in China.

In conclusion, the development of inclusive education in China is limited only in several specific subjects at the university level. Similar to the in-service teachers, most pre-service teachers can understand inclusive education with a fairly broad perspective through the analysis of the Chinese translation. The participants that know about inclusive education can distinguish the difference between inclusive education and special education. However, some of them link it to special education and special educational needs, which may be impacted by the educational slogan ‘Rong he jiao yu’ in China and the issue of translation. This situation will be combined with participants’ understandings of inclusive education to contribute a proper content of inclusive education in Chinese education.

4.3 Discussion

Considering in-service teacher as an essential role in education, this part of research mainly conducts interviews and focus group with in-service teachers to gain insight into secondary education. Additionally, this research also has noticed that in Chinese research and even the field of inclusive education, the pre-service teachers’ opinions and views seem to be neglected more or less. However, it should also be significant to promote inclusion in education. Since
they have learned about inclusive education from the university or institutes that cultivate teachers, it would potentially impact on their teaching behaviours in their further career.

4.3.1 The value behind Chinese education

Firstly, this research investigates the most significant factor, which is the educational value that underpins participants’ daily teaching, which could be an essential power to shape the current educational conditions. According to the interviews, two main educational values, exam-oriented and quality-oriented value affect participants’ teaching. Comparing both educational values to inclusive education, it can be found that some factors of Chinese education impede its development, but some others can be the catalyst. For example, exam-oriented education requires that a high academic score is more important than other performance. This brings many exclusive phenomena in education and will be a barrier to improving inclusive education. However, as several teachers suggest as part of the Chinese educational circumstance, examination provides a relatively equal opportunity to all learners. This is in accordance with a crucial factor of inclusive education – equality. Chinese education is still trying to make changes from exam-oriented education to quality education, but it will probably remain at this stage for a few years. It will be an opportunity to combine inclusive education with Chinese development to build an appropriate value for Chinese education and expand inclusive education with different cultural considerations and viewpoints. Exam or academic performance should not be the starting point or destination of education, but education should be the means to assist individuals to achieve their dreams. Nowadays, according to some opinions of participants, only stressing the effects of regular school is not enough for inclusive education because the educational marketisation outside the school is gradually influencing the education. In order to define inclusive education with Chinese conditions, the focus should be applied to all types of education, rather than just focusing on education in regular school. In other words, inclusive education requires all sorts of education to respect the learners’ diversity and choices rather than deciding the path on their behalf. In addition, support can be provided to their choices as much as possible because it is their rights to be able to select their developmental orientation.

4.3.2 Participants’ impression on Chinese inclusion

In addition, comparing those in-service teachers’ understandings of inclusive education with the scholars’ perspectives, it can be seen that inclusive education is developing slowly and
The most significant evidence is as an individual that should practise inclusion in education, most participants have no prior knowledge about inclusive education in both the narrow and broad aspect. However, all of them can understand inclusive education through analysing the Chinese text ‘Quan na jiao yu’ following the broad perspective; and they also know the LRC is Chinese practice model. Although most participants do not have a systematic understanding of inclusive education, they could still distinguish the difference between the broad understanding of it and LRC. Participants’ feedback is different from some research on inclusive education in China, particularly to those that directly practice LRC to replace inclusive education studies. The situation that participants can distinguish inclusive education and LRC is a positive signal of pursuing inclusion in Chinese education because teachers’ understandings will directly impact on the practice of inclusive education. In order to enable the participants to have a clear understanding of the broad perspective of inclusive education, UNESCO’s definition is presented to them. After a brief introduction, teachers can recognise the exclusive phenomenon in education more rather than merely focusing on the disabled group in their schools. For example, many common phenomena in Chinese education, such as key school, bullying, isolation, and labelling is not being treated as exclusion by most participants at the beginning. However, they can now evaluate these issues of education with inclusive value by revisiting their experiences and inclusive education. Here, this research achieves an important impact that is investigating and spreading the broad perspective of inclusive education to China. Based on their feedback, all of the participants (in-service teachers) seemingly have more explicit understandings of exclusion than before, and even some of them show their positive attitudes toward inclusive education. Combining the scholars’ opinions and the in-service teachers’ statements, several points of inclusive education can be adopted by Chinese education directly. Generally, inclusive education aims to help all students rather than focusing on specific groups. However, teachers can concern different students due to the priority of issues in teaching because education may face different problems in different areas and periods. For instance, when Western countries were focusing on the racial problem, China might be still struggling with gender discrimination.

Moreover, a few in-service teachers find some ideas of inclusive education that is similar to Chinese policies, which will benefit inclusive education’s progress, but several schools’ leaders reluctantly illustrate that many policies are ineffective in education. Although many in-service teachers and scholars argued that inclusive education is difficult to practice, they do admit inclusive value is excellent and should be accepted. According to the pre-service teachers’ questionnaires, the inefficiency of inclusive education in China has clearly appeared, which is a significant reason that in-service teachers do not have adequate knowledge of inclusive
education and even LRC. Therefore, as the most important place to train teachers, the university, training institute and even relevant local educational authorities need an efficient program to cultivate the students to know and understand inclusive education.

4.4 Concluding remarks

This chapter mainly evaluates in-service teachers’ understandings of current Chinese educational situation and inclusive education. It aims to reveal the progress of inclusion education in China’s education and its perceptions from a non-academic angle. In addition, many pre-service teachers’ ideas of inclusive education are also investigated. Therefore, analysing the scholars’ ideas with in-service and pre-service teachers’ understandings of inclusive education would not only reflect the real situation of promoting inclusive education but also benefit the study in terms of defining it with different perspectives and conditions.

This research has found that only several in-service teachers and pre-service teachers have heard of inclusive education prior. Generally, in-service teachers acknowledged that inclusive education is about all, and they can distinguish the differences between inclusive education and Chinese practical mode of LRC. Through reviewing the UNESCO’s definition of inclusive education, in-service teachers can recognise many common phenomena, such as labelling, key school, and gender stereotype, should also be considered as part of inclusive education rather than focused on disabled students in their schools. They also argued that it would be a long period before inclusive education could be achieved because there are limited resources within the current educational conditions. Although most in-service teachers can broadly understand inclusive education based on the Chinese words, they do not have a comprehensive system of knowledge.

There are little differences in terms of knowledge of inclusive education between pre-service teachers and in-service teachers. According to the questionnaire, it can be found that the pre-service teachers studying special education and early childhood program report they heard something about inclusive education. However, this does not mean that each of them could explain the complete definition of inclusive education regardless of whether it is the broad or the narrow way. Apparently, based on their explanations, some of their understandings of inclusive education are fundamental. It appears that they literally understand the Chinese translation of inclusive education. This chapter clearly evaluates the way in-service teachers understand inclusive education rather than simply explores whether they have heard of inclusive education and their attitudes on it. This part could not only provide some non-
Through comparing and contrasting the research question one and two, this research reveals that based on the perspectives of teachers in Chinese secondary schools, inclusive education can be defined as a process of discovering and resolving exclusion. It seems to be more accurate to reflect its dynamic character than reducing and eliminating exclusion because the world keeps changing, and people should prepare for new exclusive phenomena at any time and place. Furthermore, the responsibility of implementing inclusive education should rest on not only the regular educational system but also the society. It means as a part of education, and the regular educational system could carry major responsibility, not all works because teachers’ energies and time are too limited to cover all students every minute. More importantly, using the term of the regular educational system is likely to have already separated education into ‘regular’ and ‘non-regular,’ which is probably against the definition of inclusive education itself. Hence, inclusive education should be not only a responsibility for any single institution or system but also the whole society. According to the interviews, it can be found that the popularisation of inclusive education cannot be achieved only by scholars’ articles or related training to teachers. Indeed, there will be many factors that will shape people’s understandings and affecting practice. Therefore, the next chapter will explore and analyse the elements that may influence people’s opinion of inclusive education and the underlying problems that may undermine inclusive education.
Chapter 5 The practice in Chinese schools: barriers of practice and factors affecting understandings of inclusive education

There is an issue that seemingly perplexes the improvement of inclusive education. Messiou (2017, p.152) quoted that, ‘if inclusion is about all, why do we still mostly focus on some,’ and namely, what makes individuals persistently hold the narrow view of inclusive education. Through evaluating some researchers, in-service teachers, and pre-service teachers’ attitudes and understandings of inclusive education in this research, there are many similarities and differences between Western countries and China. Such differences include individuals consist of academic scholars and teachers, as well as various factors that may influence the understandings of these participants about inclusive education. Therefore, through the evaluation of those factors mentioned by participants would provide some rational reasons to explain why the understanding of inclusive education mostly concentrates on specific groups in many studies. In this chapter, the Chinese practice of inclusive education will also be discussed to present its current development. Significantly, according to the participants’ reflection on the practice of inclusive education, which is ‘learning in the regular classroom,’ this research will mainly investigate the difficulties between theory and practice based on the Chinese educational conditions. As a result, it will lead to teachers, and even scholars to rethink how inclusive value could be put into actions properly through overcoming such barriers, and further offer a suggestion to some other regions potentially.

This chapter will be separated into three main sections. Section 5.1 will present the Chinese practice of inclusive education and to explore how inclusive education is being practised in Chinese schools. It focuses on the students’ learning situation in schools and the participants’ attitudes. Subsequently, according to participants’ reflections toward the practice of inclusion, Section 5.2 will figure out the gap between theory and reality. Section 5.3 will speculate the factors that may influence individuals’ understanding of inclusive education through questionnaire and interview with participants.

5.1 The practice – LRC

‘Learning in the regular classroom’ has been treated by the majority of researchers in China as an example of practising inclusive education. According to its definition, LRC primarily aims to solve the educational issues for disabled students, which provides an opportunity for those
students to study with their peers. In 2016, the Chinese Ministry of Education had posted that the enrolment rate of LRC was about fifty-five per cent, which means more than half of students with disability met the standards of ‘regular classroom.’ Although LRC is not equal to inclusive education, its contribution to developing inclusive education cannot be neglected in China. The teachers play a key role of it in practice, and their perspective of LRC could directly reflect the current situation; however, in Chinese research, the relevant studies on inclusive education are limited, particularly regarding the teachers’ considerations (Yan and Deng, 2019). In this research, both in-service teachers and pre-service teachers have mentioned their experiences of learning or teaching with the students who have SENs; and the following sections will further present their feelings and attitudes toward LRC.

5.1.1 Students’ situation in LRC

‘Learning in the regular classroom’ has been practised in China since the 1980s, where its initial aim was to solve the issue of special education. However, after the idea of inclusive education has spread into China, the LRC is seen as the practice of inclusive education. During this long period of time, LRC has a far-reaching influence on inclusive education in China. It could be understood that the development or current situation of LRC also can be seen as the progress of inclusive education in China, though this is more of a narrow understanding of it.

The situations of disabled students in mainstream schools are different. However, the participants opined that most of these students could not reach the initial expectation of LRC, where they really can learn in the class. According to the Chinese professor and some participants’ ideas, ‘Learning in the regular classroom’ seems not to be practised well so far. Teacher (1) said that,

‘Children’s reactions are real, and normally, they tend to ignore the children with disability, which is a kind of isolation. Some students make fun of their disabled peer because they think it is funny. For me, disabled students are suffering from or struggling with their school lives.’

Teacher (4) argued,

‘Except for learning, the disabled students in the school seems to be fine, but teachers’ teaching plan mainly aims at the majority of students; thus, the disabled students cannot learn anything.’

Under the Chinese educational circumstance, most participants have reported that almost all disabled students in their schools cannot entirely adapt to the classroom atmosphere. Teacher (21) said,
‘They are quite difficult to join (the school) because some of them cannot take care of themselves in their daily lives. For example, a disabled child in my class asks a teacher to help him (her) to tie shoes, and another one in another class cannot go to the toilet independently. It is difficult.’

Similarly, with the summary of the teacher (22) and leader (23), the disabled students are ‘invisible’ in the class; no one bullies them, but at the same time everyone pretends that the disabled students are not even there.

By contrast, a leader (2) shared her experience that,

‘It lies in what types of disabled student and the whole environment of the class are. In this grade, there is a child categorised as ADHD, and you never know why and when he will get angry. Consequently, he will lose his temper at his classmates, but his peers cannot understand, and then he will be isolated ... So, a student with extreme behaviour will not be easy to stay because his or her performance will negatively impact others. As a result, they will be excluded and ridiculed when he or she makes a mistake, but if he or she does not disturb others, the classmates will be more tolerant.’

This participant believed that a precondition of LRC or inclusive education is to avoid harming others. Teacher (14), (15), and Leader (16) also claimed that although teachers and other students are willing to accept the disabled student, the tolerance level is largely depending on their actions toward others. It is a dilemma in practice, and indeed, it is difficult to find a balanced outcome because the teacher can neither punishes the students with disabilities nor indulge other students in isolating them. Furthermore, it is the other students’ right whether to accept the disabled student. Therefore, the teachers are required to treat all the students as equal as possible and spread inclusive education to other students as much as they can. Regardless of the types of the disabled students, a part of the participants has reason to believe that those students are unhappy in their schools, as similar to the suggestion of teacher (1), where these students do struggle and suffer. Teacher (3) and (5) mentioned that the disabled students are usually self-abased,

‘In my class, she (a girl with special educational needs) will have inferiority feeling because, under the current situation of education, she always has a sense of failure in learning. We cannot treat her differently, for example, her classmates use the test paper A, and she uses B, which will hurt her self-esteem because of the different treatment.’ (Teacher 5)

Leader (18) also claimed that,
'In my opinion, the majority of them are unhappy. Children at this age hope to gain a sense of identity from their peers through excellent performance. Therefore, in the school, all students will also treat the academic record as the most significant standard of evaluating their performance, which is not under the influence of the teachers.'

Oppositely, teacher (19) believed that students with disability are happy every day because these students cannot recognise their own problems.

‘You know the children have a trend today that they do not have a sense of shame, and precisely, they do not feel they get bad academic results (is wrong as a student). I cannot say all of them are like that, but the one in my class is. I find he (she) does not feel disgrace, and instead, he (she) is happy and yells that he (she) is tired every day.’

The disabled students that are in a negative situation is a predictable phenomenon where they cannot be accepted entirely by their peers and even teachers in the mainstream schools, although the LRC encourages the schools to enrol them. It reflects an issue that such form of acceptance is not a real practice of inclusive education because many teachers and children Without impairments could not understand the true feelings of the disabled students; thus, it is difficult for them to be welcoming.

Almost all participants mentioned that most children with disability in their schools could not achieve an excellent academic result. Furthermore, some teachers do not require them to exert themselves during learning. In terms of learning, the most common action of teachers is to reduce the requirement for them, teacher (4) said that,

‘I definitely will not use the same standard to require the disabled students’ to learn. The requirement is shallow, and I assume they could learn something more or less.’

Leader (18) and teacher (24) believed that in learning, reducing the requirement for the disabled students is the only thing they could do at the present moment. Some participants reported they would not spend too much time on the disabled students’ learning because their academic records are excluded from local authority’s evaluation of the schools. Teacher (20) reluctantly expressed that,

‘Sometimes, teachers will give up because the students with a disability (particularly the mental issue) cannot understand what the teachers are talking about.’

A leader (23) even directly claimed that,

‘I barely help them (disabled students) in their learning because their results are not recorded
as our schools’ academic performance, but I will fulfil their requirements or needs as much as possible.’

Teacher (25) stated that she has no idea what she should do to help the disabled students. In addition, she must also take consideration to other students in the class, which means she could only spend minimal time with the disabled students. In the focus group discussion, they complained that they unwillingly to give up on the disabled students’ learning, but the teachers are unable to take care of them all. This is because in most regular classes, there are about thirty students, and only one of them has special educational needs, which means the teachers have to focus on the majority. Overall, the teachers do not have the necessary knowledge of cultivating the students with special educational needs, which directly makes teachers feel losing their way of how to help those students’ learning. This could also mean that the only support the teacher could offer is to assist students with special education needs to get through the school without expecting them to achieve a remarkable academic result.

There is one shocking feedback of practising LRC in the school. The participant required not to publish his or her number if this research would talk about this issue. Therefore, the number will not be mentioned here. This participant, based on his or her teaching experiences and hearing from others, provided a radically negative opinion that,

‘The situation of such disabled students in regular school is caused by Chinese conditions. The policy of LRC is excellent to provide an opportunity for those disabled students to study in a nice environment. However, so far, according to my experiences of teaching and hearing, LRC is not for the students but the schools’ profit.’

This participant further explained the reason that LRC could be related to schools’ profits; the school’s grant allocation by the government is proportional to the number of disabled students enrolled. Furthermore, the disabled students’ academic record will not have a negative impact on the school; thus, this becomes a ‘strategy’ to improve the school’s academic performance. The participant argued that,

‘For teachers and schools, their students’ academic score of examination is the only standard to evaluate their works. Therefore, some schools will ask some students to get proof of disability through schools’ relationship between the hospital, but these students may just have bad performance in the exam. So, the only purpose of it now is to improve schools’ academic records, and I believe without this condition, nobody (parents) would like to get that certificate to their children.’
Although there is no evidence to prove such a shocking perspective, it could exist because at least one participant has mentioned it. In addition, the replies from interviews can reflect that many schools neglect the disabled students’ learning. It is difficult to judge without any formal investigation, which should be considered carefully in further research on LRC and even inclusive education. According to the participants’ opinions, it seems that the teachers prefer to attribute the issues of teaching disabled students to those students’ impairment, but few of them blame education itself. Imagine, if one day, education can fulfil children’s different needs, there would not be any needs in teaching called ‘special.’ The following sector will present the noticeable difficulties of teachers in LRC and evaluate their perspective on such problems, which may potentially reflect their attitudes toward to the practice of inclusive education and LRC by combining with the current situation.

5.1.2 The difficulties in daily teaching

When discussing LRC in the teachers’ respective schools, most in-service teachers claimed that its effect is limited because of the number of students with disability in their schools is limited; usually less than ten. In the participants’ mind, most of the disabled students are in special schools, which seems to be far from the enrolment rate of LRC (55.1%) calculated by the Ministry of Education in 2016. There are seven types of disabilities in the recent LRC model; including ‘intellectual disabilities, visual impairment, hearing impairment, physical disabilities, speech and language disabilities, mental disorders, and multiple disabilities (Su et al., 2018). Despite that there are not too many students with disability in their schools, it is not easy for teachers to meet the challenge of teaching this group of disabled students. A leader (2) from school one reported that,

‘When I was a student, there were no such students with disabilities, but I taught some ... The communication with (them) is difficult because some students with mental issues sometimes cannot control their temper and they do not know how to communicate with teachers, which, what I mean, is their questions are inexplicable.’

Teacher (3) also presented the same issue, when she teaches the students with disabilities;

‘They are bad at expression. I mean most of them do not like to express their (willingness), but a few of them like to do so, although all of their academic records are terrible.’

The interaction difficulty can be the most significant issue of practising LRC, other three teachers (21, 23, 24 and 25) argued that it is challenging to communicate with the children with disabilities because they cannot understand the teachers’ expression or class.
Regardless of the reason, most participants are more or less suffering from communication with disabled children. However, the majority of the participants consider this problem is caused by the students’ disabilities. For instance, teacher (13) mentioned that,

‘Sometimes, I feel hard to communicate with the disabled student in my class because their own conditions make their thoughts different from their peers.’

Teacher (4) analysed in detail and assumed that,

‘The difficulty largely depends on the children’s conditions. If he (or she) only has the problem of IQ, but EQ is normal, which we do have children like this, there will be no difficulties in communication. On the other side, some children do not have a basic communication ability, and it will be very tough for teachers to chat with them.’

However, treating students’ disabilities as the reason for causing such difficulties of LRC is not reasonable and seems to be against the idea of inclusive education. A leader (17) based on her experience of exchange learning in Canada and discussion with others gave her opinion of communication difficulty between teachers and disabled students, which is,

‘For me, I think it is fine (to communicate with disabled students), but I find some teachers have the difficulties of communication with disabled children. For example, what is the boundary and language in your communications? How you treat them in LRC, as same as others or they do need extra help. (It is important) because if you pay more attention to a disabled child, you may hurt his (or her) self-esteem.’

Comparing some participants’ ideas with leader (17) can find that her opinion is slightly different. She pays more attention to what teachers should do rather than what students caused. Although the difference is small on the surface, it reveals a distinctive consideration, where the difficulty is on the teachers, schools and even society rather than being placed on those children.

There are also some different issues in participants’ daily teaching, and the most conspicuous is that their schools are unable to provide sufficient support to them when they have problems teaching children with disabilities. Almost all participants, in-service teachers and leaders, gave a negative response to the question about receiving help from schools. Teacher (1) pointed out that,

‘In fact, (I have not received any bits of help) and schools do not have relevant coping strategies, or (we) could say schools do not care.’
Although other participants in this school did not mention that their schools do not care about students with SENs, they agree that they have not received any help from their schools so far. However, teacher (3) and (4) mentioned that their school have a psychology teacher that provides counselling to the students with disabilities and of course, to other students at the same time. According to the discussion with all the participants, most schools in Beijing have set a psychology teacher position for several years. The psychology teacher enables the schools’ to be able to assist all children to have good mental health in their learning environment and to be integrated into the school. In addition, teacher (20) added that their school provides a special fund to the disabled students and reduce the academic requirement for them, but there is no support for teachers. The leader (16) believed that if the school can provide opportunities to teachers to have some relevant training, teachers would feel more comfortable to teach the disabled, which could be a simple but effective way to help the teachers. A few of the participants wish to have a short-term training if they have the time because they believe such training can offer both the theoretical knowledge and practical experience, which are the exact things that they need. For example, leader (23) stressed that,

‘*I suppose that in-service teachers’ training could help teachers to recognise the idea. Let teachers accept an advanced perspective first, and then they could change their educational values gradually if the idea is helpful.*’

Moreover, leader (24) agreed with this notion and said,

‘*It would be easier to accept and teach the different types of students if I could learn many fresh ideas or practice.*’

Teachers (5), (13), and (20) would prefer to learn some strategies and measures that can directly help them to cultivate the disabled students in their class. To summarise, it generates two issues; most teachers feel confused and have difficulty when teaching the disabled students because they lack professional knowledge. At the same time, the school may not attach importance to LRC because of the low number of students with disabilities in these schools. These two issues are the barriers of practice, which derives several new problems to impede the development of inclusive education, even LRC. As such, these issues will be discussed later.

### 5.1.3 The attitudes toward LRC

The participants have a cautious attitude toward LRC and have expressed some positive perspectives and negative concerns. Yao et al. (2018) mentioned that most teachers believe that children with mild disabilities can possibly receive some simple education in regular schools.
This research has similar results coming from several participants such as leader (2) and (16), teacher (14) and (15), also claimed that the children’s situations would decide whether they can study in the regular schools. Leader (18) claimed that,

‘If the disabled students can catch up with their peers’ learning, I think they can stay at the regular schools. Oppositely, if they do have severe problems of vision and hearing, the regular school will not be a proper place for them.’

It is one of the typical attitudes among the participants, which requires the students with disabilities to meet a specific standard to be enrolled in regular schools. For instance, leader (24) also considered that schools need a clear criterion of who or what type of disabled students can be accepted.

Although some participants hold positive ideas, the mainstream attitude is passive, especially from the practical aspect. It is because based on the interviews, most disabled children in their schools are not according to teachers’ positive anticipation. Thus, teacher (13) argued that,

‘Everything has both advantages and disadvantages that the LRC can provide an opportunity to adapt to society, but it also will have a negative influence on their mental and personality. I think it is unsuitable so far because teachers need to consider other students in a class.’

Interestingly, the LRC is treated as a practice of inclusive education. However, at present, if the teachers spend more time on the disabled students in the class, it will impact on other students’ learning, which is not an ideal for the implementation of inclusive education at all. Therefore, the LRC cannot be treated as a practice of inclusive education, particularly about the broad understanding of it, because if the LRC is to be practised precisely, teachers will undertake more tasks in the same period. It means that the teachers’ attention to other students will be reduced, which create inequality within a regular class. Basically, most teachers do not seem to think highly of its impacts in practice because of their lack of necessary knowledge. This makes them feel apprehensive in teaching children with special educational needs in regular schools. Teacher (19) mentioned that,

‘Honestly, I do not think it is a proper option because, for those (disabled students), they really need the one to one specific education. However, we do not have any specific teachers that can do this, which means that although there are many disabled students in our classes, the teachers do not have the ability to handle them.’

The insufficient knowledge of teaching children with disabilities could be an essential reason for the participants that expressed negative opinions. Teacher (21), (22), and leader (23)
reported that the students with disabilities in a regular class are wasting both students and teachers’ time because ordinary teachers do not know how to inspire those students.

‘I think it (LRC) will delay their progress because I cannot take care of all of them in class ... We do not have many actions to help their growth and education’ (Teacher 21)

‘They are difficult to develop well, and our teachers cannot guide those students easily.’ (Teacher 22)

‘I think the disabled students cannot fit in our regular class, and indeed, they need a specific school ... In a traditional school, no one can inspire and help them to achieve their sunshine, which makes me feel that they are wasting their lives.’ (Leader 23)

It is not difficult to find that most teachers’ attitudes, both positive and negative, depending on the conditions of the children and whether they can be cultivated in regular schools. Even though they are not sufficiently inclusive, especially for the disabled students, the teachers’ intention is still to provide an appropriate education to those students with disabilities and to ensure all students in their schools can be cultivated. Considering the discussion above, it is possible to see that the way to practice inclusive education needs to be rethought and evaluated. Importantly, it reflects that the LRC model cannot be treated as inclusive education in academic, which also emphasises that the broad understanding of inclusive education needs to be spread before it is put into actions.

Teacher (3), however, provided another opinion that considers children’s choices as preconditions and proposed that,

‘It depends on specific situations because some students with disabilities would rather stay at regular schools than other schools (special school). If those students feel this is fine to them, it will be okay for me. Of course, if they prefer to study with some others who have similar disabilities, it will be better for them ... I will not exclude anyone, and it is mainly about respecting the children’s choices because we are teaching human beings who should have their own ideas.’

There is no unified attitude toward LRC, but all participants’ considerations have different preconditions. It indicates that the LRC or inclusive education is not doing well in Chinese schools because most teachers do not have the knowledge of both terms and do not receive sufficient help from school and relevant authorities. Significantly, after the participants hearing the definition of inclusive education, some of them revealed that inclusive education would be extraordinary, but cannot be achieved at this moment, and even a teacher directly claimed that the definition is empty.
5.1.4 Pre-service teachers’ attitudes toward LRC

The questionnaire in this research contains several questions that intend to investigate the pre-service teachers’ experience of learning with the disabled students in compulsory education and their opinions toward these peers. Firstly, in Table 12, there is 52.3 per cent of pre-service teachers in this research that know there were some students with learning difficulties in their class. Twenty-six pre-service teachers claimed that their classmates did not have any SENs, and rest of the pre-service teachers were not so sure about it.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Experience of studying with students with learning difficulties</th>
<th>Number</th>
<th>Rate (%)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>56</td>
<td>52.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No</td>
<td>26</td>
<td>24.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Not sure</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>23.4</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

(Source: questionnaire)

Although the government does not force schools to accept students with SENs, the result, from pre-service teachers, reflects that many schools are genuinely implementing LRC model. It means at least; there are many mainstream schools where are willing to provide an opportunity to these children. Most pre-service teachers who have experience of learning with disabled classmate consider them as lazy, see Table 13.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Learning status of the students with disabilities</th>
<th>Number</th>
<th>Rate (%)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Endeavour</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>23.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lazy</td>
<td>33</td>
<td>58.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Not sure</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>17.9</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

(Source: questionnaire)

The in-service participants have similar feedback regarding the learning situation of the disabled students in their schools. Furthermore, the result verifies that many Chinese scholars’
perspective that the students with SENs in the regular classroom are more like ‘sitting’ there rather than ‘learning,’ which can be found in the previous chapters. Except for the situation of learning, only seventeen pre-service participants think that the students with disabilities can form a positive rapport with their peers, see Table 14 below.

Table 14 Social status in regular school

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Number</th>
<th>Rate (%)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Gregarious</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>30.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Asocial</td>
<td>27</td>
<td>48.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Not sure</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>21.4</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

(Source: questionnaire)

Most pre-service participants hold negative attitudes toward the disabled students’ social contact in regular schools, which is similar to some in-service teachers’ idea that they are likely totally ignored in the class. Besides, most pre-service participants are unsure the disabled students could study properly at regular schools.

Table 15 Whether the regular school is a proper place

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Number</th>
<th>Rate (%)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Appropriate</td>
<td>39</td>
<td>36.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Inappropriate</td>
<td>29</td>
<td>27.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Not sure</td>
<td>39</td>
<td>36.4</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

(Source: questionnaire)

With regards to this issue, the pre-service participants seem to have controversial views, and most students that have studied special education at university consider that a regular school is a proper place for the disabled students. However, there still are 36.4 per cent of pre-service teacher that cannot decide. Combining the answers about the disabled students in regular school from both in-service and pre-service participants and their attitudes can find many different elements that have impacted on the participants’ understandings and practising inclusive education. Hence, the barriers between inclusive education and the real situation in education will be investigated in the following section, which can generate some specific strategies to
improve LRC and inclusive education in Chinese education.

5.2 Barriers between theory and reality

5.2.1 The lack of knowledge

Firstly, according to the previous sections, it can easily be found that the lack of relevant knowledge is a significant barrier to practise inclusive education. Indeed, it is difficult to require the teachers to implement an action that they entirely have no knowledge about it. In fact, the participants’ replied have already reflected this problem in education, which is not only reported by in-service teachers but also proven by pre-service teachers and academic researchers. Teacher (8) shared a typical idea that, ‘I am not professional, so how could I help others?’

Leader (2) and (16) held the same perspective that they do not have the relevant knowledge. For example, how to evaluate the students’ conditions, and how to guide them scientifically. Such issues force the teachers to learn the strategies by themselves when they encounter students with SENs. In many Chinese scholars’ views, teachers do not have sufficient knowledge to fulfil the requirements of the implementation of inclusive education. Deng (2008, p.477) reported this phenomenon in his research, ‘most of them had not received any training, and only 1.8 per cent reported that they had some intensive training during summer or winter holidays.’ This situation has not undergone development; for instance, Yu et al. (2011) argued that teachers training toward inclusive education still require improvements to satisfy the educational requirements. Ten years later, Yan and Deng (2019) again claimed that, ‘Most regular education teachers are not equipped with adequate expertise to meet the diverse learning needs in regular education classrooms yet.’ (p.398)

Professor CP1 shared a similar idea that Chinese teachers are not prepared to practice inclusive education. It reflects that the relevant training of inclusive education to teachers in the past ten years is inadequate or inefficient because according to the researchers’ reports, there are no significant changes in this field. For example, in school one, only the participant (2) and (6) reported that they have limited experience of the relevant training on inclusive education; some other teachers have not even heard of this type of training. Most participants from school one, three, four and five confirmed that they have never attended any training of inclusive education before. Oppositely, in school two, only a leader claims he does not have relevant training, but other five participants, including four teachers and one leader, claimed that their school
provided training. However, according to their discussion in the focus group, the training is just a lecture that gives them more details of the different type of disabled students, but the content is somewhat restricted.

Clearly, most in-service teachers in this research have not received any relevant training yet. Only several school leaders such as participant (16), (17), (18), and (24) have opportunities to attend some short-term training because they are in charge of LRC in their school, which is similar to Deng’s research in 2008. Yu, Su and Liu (2011) recommended that teachers’ knowledge on inclusive education at the university level should be strengthened. However, it is difficult to ascertain the universities have inputted the amount of effort. Based on the questionnaire, the students who have studied special education and early childhood education gave a relatively definite answer that they have the relevant course. However, the others seem not to be familiar with neither inclusive education nor LRC. This is a severe barrier to practise inclusion in education and cannot be resolved easily because unlike facilities, the knowledge will take a long time to learn and understand before it can be put into action. So far, inclusive education in China is stuck at learning the conception, which means the term of inclusive education in China needs to be introduced widely to the public, not just the researchers and officers in the relevant field.

5.2.2 The unsound support system

In the previous paragraph in this chapter, it can be found that the teachers are encountering many issues in their daily teaching, but their schools may not have the abilities to offer sufficient help. Teacher (3) argued that

‘Our school just requires us to do not give up on any children, but there is no meaningful help to us so far.’

A leader (2) in the same school reluctantly answered that

‘Not much (help). How can I say? Our school will tell the teachers to take care of those students with disability and tolerate them.’

In fact, all participants in suburban schools reported that they do not have any help from their schools and some of them state that they could only ask the experienced teachers for help when they have problems related to disabled children. However, the situations in school three and four are different because the teachers can receive schools’ help. Teacher (13) claimed that,

‘There was a teacher who is working for the educational department in C district, provided
supports to me. When this teacher was in my class to assess the course, he (she) noticed a child with a disability. Then this teacher found me to discuss the child’s condition and give me some professional instruction. Furthermore, one of our leaders you will meet after, she takes responsibility for LRC in our school and helps us.’

With the exception of this teacher, a leader (17) in the same school presented her experience as follows,

‘Although we do not have related (regulation to help teachers), there is a professional teacher in the district C. This teacher is not in our school this year, but our school always discuss with he (she) about our students who need help. Then this teacher will help us to evaluate these students’ status through playing games and talking with them.’

According to the participants’ feedback in this urban school, it can be found that their school attempt to help their teachers to resolve the teaching difficulties toward the children with special educational needs. However, they do not have settled rules or guidance, and they also require assistance from the higher tier of the educational system. It reveals that an effective and stable system has not been established in terms of learning in the regular classroom in Chinese school. In other words, although some districts in Beijing have experts to help schools, one professional teacher in a district is responsible for more than one school, and of course, some teachers’ dilemma cannot be solved in time. Therefore, most of the time, schools need to solve the issues of students’ SENs without any professional guide, but they may not have the abilities to overcome the problems of practising LRC independently. Another urban school (four) in the same district also provides some help to their teachers, but they did not mention any support provided by any professional teachers. It seems to reveal the defect of the support system of learning in the regular classroom and the lack of knowledgeable teachers. In school four, the issues that the teachers cannot resolve are mainly depended on the intervention of the school leader. For instance, leader (18) illustrated that,

‘We have a dean working on moral education, so when we deal with students’ difficulties, this principal and his or her group will work together with teachers. We will communicate with parents and students and analyse the ponderance of issues we are facing. Sometimes, we need a criterion to those students like the academic result.’

It is proved by the teacher (19), who mentioned that when she was unable to fulfil the students’ special needs, all the teachers of the entire grade will discuss together before establishing an acceptable standard to these students. On the surface, a specific issue is resolved at this moment, but the students’ needs are still not fulfilled, which means the same difficulty would potentially
emerge in teachers’ future educational process.

5.2.3 The limited resources

Teacher (20) claimed that their school would provide special funding to assist them in resolving the teaching difficulty with disabled students. However, according to interviews, the relevant funding from the government is neither sufficient nor equally distributed even in Beijing. In the suburban area, leader (2) and teacher (3) were concerned about the insufficient educational resources that impacted on their education, particularly the students with disability. Teacher (3) stated that,

‘The initial barrier of practising inclusive education in our country is that we do not have enough teachers and funding. If even the school like us in Beijing cannot reach the requirement of educational resources, the other places definitely cannot fulfil it. Also, the government may not have enough budget for education.’

Similarly, another suburban school’s participants also believe that a large number of financial resources are required to support either inclusive education or learning in the regular classroom. In the group discussion, all teachers agreed with the idea of inclusive education and implementing LRC, but they argued that the limited funding and educational resources are the barriers. Furthermore, leader (7) stressed that the insufficient financial investment of inclusive education could be directly reflected by the unmatched teachers’ contribution and their salary under the LRC model. School five, a suburban school, is also facing a funding issue, for example,

‘If there is no economic benefit, the relevant evaluation system or action of inclusive education cannot be implemented well.’ (Teacher 21)

Oppositely, the participants in urban schools have little worry about the special funding for the implementation of LRC. Compared with suburban schools, leader (18) claimed confidently that,

‘The financial support in urban schools, including the aggregate investment and actual quantity received by schools is better (than suburban schools). Furthermore, supervision in suburban schools may not be strict.’

In fact, although the allocation of resources is imbalanced, the financial support gap between urban and suburban schools in Beijing is not like the leader (18)’s consideration. As mentioned by the leader (24), providing some money or building a specific classroom for students’ special needs is not a problem. However, it is about whether specific funding or educational resource
is applied to the implementation of learning in the regular classroom or inclusive education.

Chinese Professor CP1 shared his consideration that the allocation of educational resources is a barrier of improving inclusive education. For instance, he stated that, ‘In general, the students with the best learning ability will be entitled to the best educational resources, but the students lacking learning capacity will not be so fortunate.’ He further argued that, ‘The government’s investment in education in many areas, especially the backward economic places, are not enough.’

His idea of the imbalanced resources allocation is based on the entire educational situation in China and not solely focusing on inclusive education or LRC. If the entire educational system has limited and imbalanced resources, these barriers will also restrict the improvement of inclusive education. Importantly, as aforementioned in Chapter five, Chinese Professor CP1 emphasised that developing ‘Rong he jiao yu’ (inclusive education) is a slogan, and behind those words, special education is the real system that received all the benefits including supportive policies and investment. It reflects that inclusive education and even LRC model do not have adequate investment, but the government encourages the schools to implement it. As a result, many issues pertaining to improving inclusive education and even LRC cannot be resolved, including teaching materials. Some teachers in the interviews complained that they do not have appropriate materials for teaching disabled students. For example, teacher (3) and (4) both believe that currently, it is difficult for schools to have multiple courses to fulfil every student’s learning, which is a barrier to practise LRC and inclusive education. Leader (17) also confirmed that establishing a diversified curriculum system is necessary, but this will not be achieved instantly. If such situation is happening in Beijing, which is the capital city of China, where the schools are supposedly have been allocated the most resources, this means that for other regions, the allocation of educational resources may even be worse.

5.2.4 The inefficient regulation

The lack of regulations on inclusive education and even LRC is an issue that urgently needs to be addressed during the implementation of LRC. The top-level government has implemented policies and protection to specifically target the disabled students, but most schools still do not have any standards to guide and regularise teacher’s actions. It directly affects the performance of carrying out the LRC because some participants (7, 8 and 17) assume that without administrative order, inclusive education or LRC cannot attract the teachers’ and even the
school leaders’ attention. Although Yan and Deng (2019) claimed that during the last decade, many educational policies were changed to accommodate the implementation of inclusive education, the situations have yet to reach the ideal status.

According to the interviews, most participants, particularly the teachers, considered that at present, they are still at the exploration stage for both LRC and inclusive education because nobody knows how it should be implemented. Leader (23) stressed that, ‘About learning in the regular classroom, the policy part is blank.’

Similarly, leader (7) also agreed that the teachers require some policies to guide their teaching behaviours toward the students with a disability rather than solely dependent on the teachers’ conscientiousness. However, all participants have barely mentioned any relevant school rules or government’s regulations, such as teacher’s behaviour standards and evaluation criteria. Combining the participants’ reflection on the relevant policies with Yan and Deng (2019)’s research, it is possible to find that although the government enacts policies every year, many teachers do not even know the existence of these regulations. For instance, a document from the Ministry of Education entitled Guidelines for Resource Rooms in Regular schools stipulates that any school that enrols ‘more than five students with disability was mandated establish at least one resource room’ (An et al., 2018, p.119; MOE, 2016b). Resource room should not only be allocated to ‘comprehensive assessment tools, learning materials, and therapeutic equipment, but also specialised teachers certified by the MOE’ (ibid). However, during the interviews, teachers rarely know about resource rooms, and only several participants in school two have touched on this subject. It does not only reveal that the number of students with disability is less than five in other chosen schools but also reflects that the implementation of policies is restricted by many other objective conditions and may not receive sufficient attention. Consequently, inclusive education and even LRC has no sound practice in reality.

Professor CP1 also recognised this problem and presented that there are many policies in China, but most of them only exist in the political tier rather than in practice. He provided several examples that should be further considered by Chinese policymakers.

‘The most important thing is that inclusive education needs some (developmental) designs, particularly some specific regulations referring to teachers. For example, how can we evaluate the teachers under our LRC model? Whether or not they should earn more salary than other teachers? What kinds of teacher are appropriate to work in LRC model? By far, our teachers, teaching under the LRC model, are selected by school leaders because their leaders believe they have a strong sense of responsibility. Such things should be considered in the next step of
In general, regardless of the scholar’s perspectives or teachers’ experiences, the policy issue is a serious barrier that impedes the development of inclusive education and LRC in Chinese schools. Significantly, even the existing policies only encourage, rather than making it compulsory for mainstream schools to accept the students with disabilities (Xie et al., 2016). Thus, the government needs to reinforce the guide and to supervise the implementation of the regulations of practising inclusive education rather than just creating new policies. Furthermore, the relevant department should also assist the schools to establish their own rules gradually. However, teacher (5) and (20) believe that many points of inclusive education are practised in their schools, which are required by some different educational policies. There is no doubt that Chinese schools do practise inclusive education in many aspects of education, but in the meantime, those legislations are independent and lack systematic concerns. Therefore, the government needs a comprehensive framework of developing inclusive education when they create the policies rather than simply concentrate on a single element of inclusive education.

5.2.5 The absence of inclusive value

The absence in this instance does not mean there is no inclusive value in Chinese education or society. It refers that people do not treat it with seriousness, or it has not become part of the norm in the mainstream social value. It is not only meant to describe the teachers that are neglecting the inclusive value but also the entire social environment because education cannot detach itself from society. Teacher (13) highlighted that establishing a positive understanding of the children with disability is the most problematic of inclusive education, which is not an individual’s issue but rather an issue of the whole society. Leader (17) argued that most Chinese parents still hold the exam-orientated value, which directly restricts them to accept the inclusive value. She gave the most common phenomenon in Chinese education, ‘Parents always say to their children do not play with him (her) because he (she) does not work hard.’

As aforementioned, people should not judge whether a child is good or bad by solely based on their academic performance because everyone has their unique characters. Thus, leader (17) further emphasised that, ‘It should be a value that we must acknowledge and respect the diversity, and it is wrong to discriminate or treat others differently. This is multiple worlds within various individuals.’
Most participants treat building an inclusive value as an essential element of inclusive education. However, for the past few decades, the change of an individual’s acceptance of inclusive value in education is inconspicuous. Professor CP1 even argued that inclusive education in China remains at the fundamental stage, ‘Basically, the whole society’s understanding of inclusive education is in the primary stage that actually, equals to the LRC level, but LRC is not inclusive education.’

It reflects that developing LRC can be seen as promoting inclusive education, but it would lead teachers to understand inclusive education as an idea to support the disabled students only. As the participants (18), (19), (24) and (25) suggest, their schools still require a long time to establish an inclusive value that treats all participants in the school equally not just the students with disabilities. For teachers, the government’s interpretation is significant; thus, leader (23) claimed that it must be changed from the top because the government or policymakers’ understanding of inclusive education will profoundly influence teachers’ perspectives and behaviours.

Interestingly, there is no specific sector in the education department that is responsible for the implementation of inclusive education even though the government is advocating the schools to strive to develop ‘Rong he jiao yu.’ For example, in district C, according to the description of the government’s sectors on the official website, it can be found that ‘Rong he jiao yu’ is only a small part of an administration official’s job. Three professional teachers in this office are responsible for driving the events of special education, LRC, and ‘Rong he jiao yu’ (inclusive education) for the entire district. This means that it is unable to fulfil every school’s requirements at all. Ironically, a leader in this office stated that inclusive education is not part of their daily job, and they mainly focus on special education, LRC, and ‘Rong he jiao yu.’ It is difficult to estimate whether or not he (she) understands inclusive education without an in-depth interview with this leader. However, he (she) seems to recognise ‘Rong he jiao yu’ as a part of the special education and related to the disabled students in mainstream schools such as LRC. Based on the sectors’ setting in government, it reveals that the development of inclusive value in education is not the main concern of educational department right now, which is, of course, obstruction of inclusive education in the Chinese schools. Of course, it does not rule out the possibility that the education department understands ‘Rong he jiao yu’ is LRC.

5.2.6 The low involvement of other stakeholders

The low involvement primarily of education stakeholders refers to the process of researching
and developing the relevant policies and administrative orders in education. During the research, several teachers have stated that the policies that they are following cannot achieve their desired effect. Most of them, such as LRC and ‘Rong he jiao yu’ (inclusive education) is just some theory that is limited to the paper. Some teachers consider that the policies are impractical, but they have to obey and implement it nonetheless, which results in inefficiency and tiredness for the teachers. According to interviews, most participants report that they do not have the experience of getting involved in any process of making and even discussing policies of education. Several teachers believe that the government should conduct a survey to collect teachers’ opinion, but they have not had an opportunity to participate yet. For instance, teacher (4) considered that,

‘I am not sure whether I was involved or not. I can imagine that if the top tier needs a new policy, they will have a survey and collect feedback. Even if they have already made a fresh one, it must be tested in some regions first. It would not be an arbitrary decision, right? To be honest, I have not attended, but I assume there should be a process like that.’

Although they did not participate in any survey, some teachers and leaders agree with teacher (4)’s idea that there would be some representatives from different social positions to provide some advice. However, there is no standard of the selection process of the representative; thus, such representative may be called into question. On the other hand, some participators believe that the policymakers may not spend much effort listening to teachers, parents and students when they decide to enact a new order. For example, teacher (1) mentioned that,

‘I have not participated in any process of creating policies. I suppose neither students nor parents have a close relationship with the process. Maybe, the relevant department just wants a new thing, and here it is.’

Teacher (19) shared the same perspective as the teacher (1)’s comment. Although this opinion toward policymaking seems to be a bit of radical, it reflects some impractical orders have already caused teachers’ feeling of dissatisfied. The participant (13)’s attitude is balanced, and she assumed that the government would invite some educators and specialists, but it is unlikely that the students and parents will be involved. Whether the policymaking should allow different stakeholders to participate is argued by several teachers, mainly number (18), (23), (24) and (25). Leader (23) and (24) tend to allow teachers, parents and students to join the process because they believe that it will make the policies operable and more appropriate for schools. Leader (23) mentioned that,

‘It is necessary to invite other stakeholders to take part in making relevant policies because many involved ‘experts’ are not familiar with education, and the policymakers are not the
Oppositely, teacher (18) and (25) emphasised that there is no policy that will satisfy everyone’s feeling because each individual will only be concerned about their own benefits; thus, a uniform result cannot be achieved. To conclude, all participants, parents and students lack the opportunities to contribute to the educational policies in China, which would negatively influence the effects of such policies’ implementation in practice to some extent.

Overall, this section initially explores six barriers between the theory and practice of inclusive education in Chinese circumstance through evaluating several Chinese studies and the interviews with both in-service teachers and a scholar. Those factors are not the only existing barriers, and some of them would be solved; some new issues would emerge. Importantly, inclusive education, as a dynamic process, should consider how to deal with the changing circumstance and the issues of education. Based on the previous chapters, there is a noticeable question of why some people explain inclusive education solely focusing on the disabled learners even though the inclusion, in general, is understood as ‘all.’ Thus, the next part will discuss the factors that may impact on the public’s understandings of inclusive education.

5.3 The influential factors of people’s understandings toward inclusive education

Although inclusive education has been accepted as a term to generally being inclusive to all students, there still has a narrow understanding of it. The query on why inclusive education is focused on disability still remains when it has emerged, but there are little studies that attempt to seek out its reasons. Therefore, this research will initially analyse the factors that may impact on people’s understandings of inclusive education by using Chinese participants’ feedback and some researchers’ academic background.

5.3.1 Social environment

In-service teachers believe that the social condition will profoundly influence their understanding of an unfamiliar conception. For example, teacher (3) claimed that when she learns a new theory or a policy, she must link it with the society and even the school’s environment because it is important to ensure that her personal understanding is in line with the social tendency. Teacher (4) emphasised that social factors will affect her understanding because anything about education, such as theory and strategy, in-service teachers will be put
into practice in their daily teaching. Therefore, the objective environment must be their primary consideration. Specifically, leader (17) demonstrated that,

‘The external environment, particularly the educational environment, will impact on my understanding of a new theory. If the environment changes, my understanding will be different, or (like inclusive education), I would say it is a process of localisation.’

Leader (17) idea is easy to understand because it seems that the social environment can be utilised to explain most conceptions when researchers from different regions attempt to make the comparison. With the exception of the horizontal comparison, leader (24) also mentioned that social development would change people’s opinion on the same issue. It could be an essential factor that has caused inclusive education to be narrowly interpreted because equality in education is the most significant issue at the moment, and the disabled group becomes most remarkable part of this issue. Therefore, if inclusive education were to be proposed in the 1960s or 2030s, the research focus would not be the disabled group but the most vulnerable group. Professor BP1 confirmed that social development, indeed, can fairly explain why many researchers link inclusive education to the disabled group and special education.

There are some other elements that were changed in society, especially pertaining to policies, as mentioned by the participants. LRC is an example of how a change of policy could affect people’s understanding of inclusive education. LRC emerged in the 1980s, which was before the conception of inclusive education emerged in the world. Therefore, when the academia discussed inclusive education in China, some scholars may link them together because both government and researchers initially focused on educational issues of disabled people. Both Professor BP1 and CP1 during the interviews have supposed that the chronological order could have a potential influence on the way of comprehending inclusive education. Chinese Professor CP1 argued that the practice of LRC must be a relevant factor.

‘The primary element is the educational system in our country because the purpose we chased is far from the idea of inclusive education ... Furthermore, our educational policies on LRC also mislead the public because there is one clause deeming that improving LRC is necessary to improve inclusive education, which must cause people’s misunderstandings.’

There are fifty-five pre-service teachers that have expressed through the questionnaire that they would refer to the related policies when they are learning a fresh idea. Compared with the pre-service teachers, in-service teachers may have an in-depth understanding about how the policy affects the school’s work. In fact, most participants mentioned that the policies would influence their schools’ decision and their teaching strategies. It will be similar to Professor BP1
comments that ‘Thinking about any aspect of society is a dynamic process.’ Hence, inclusive education can be treated as a term with different connotations because of social development.

5.3.2 Theoretical explanation and practical result

As aforementioned, all participants can understand inclusive education in Chinese because the meaning of those words themselves have influence. Teacher (3) claimed the literal meaning would be the primary factor that affects her understanding of a new conception.

‘My initial understanding must be from its literal meaning. For instance, ‘happy education’ is to make every child happy in education, whether or not it is achievable. ‘Quality-orientated education’ is to improve children’s qualities comprehensively.’

Although the influence of literal meaning seems obvious to the individual’s understanding, few participants treat it as an influencing factor. Thus, another factor, that participants have brought up is a theoretical explanation that could also include an academic conception, the expert’s explanation, and the authoritative analysis of the government’s policy. For example, leader (2) claimed that if there is a specific conception, she will follow its definition to understand the new theory. However, teacher (14) and (15) considered that an expert’s explanation would be more influential because normally, the professional will present a further analysis based on the original concept. Teacher (20) further commented that

‘I would read some academic literature to find other’s understandings because my understanding may be biased. So, to see other’s articles will be helpful.’

Participants believe that a definition is just a description that may not be able to represent the entire specification totally, and they admit that their knowledge is limited compared with the scholars. Therefore, some authoritative interpretation would assist them to learn a new theory. Pre-service teachers also presented the same opinion that theoretical explanation is important in order for them to understand a new theory. Sixty-seven pre-service teachers claimed that the professional’s explanation would affect their learning, which is the same concerned posed by many in-service teachers. In contrast, over eighty-four per cent of all the pre-service teachers argued that their lecturers’ opinion and interpretation of a new theory would have an impact on their understandings. It, again, reminds the Chinese system the significance of establishing courses and training of inclusive education during the university level, where teachers are cultivated.

According to the feedback from interviews and the questionnaire, pre-service teachers are more
likely to be influenced by theoretical explanation. Though in-service teachers are also impacted by academic knowledge, they relatively have more focus on the practical result. Leader (2) emphasised that,

‘It is also important that the performance of a new theory in practice, which contribute to my understanding of the new term. I mean if I cannot understand (inclusive education), it would be because I do not know how it works (in education).’

Similarly, teacher (19) argued that

‘When I see the new theory – inclusive education, I really want to know how it works.’

Leader (7) in school two also took it seriously and stated that,

‘During the period of my teaching experience, I do learn many educational ideas. To be honest, I must see how the concept works and its effects in reality first because education is about cultivating a person not only delivering knowledge, and what the person has been educated upon is sometimes irreversible. Thus, before I understand and accept an educational conception, I need to know which school and institute adopted and how is the result.’

Moreover, of course, both learning and practice are essential to teachers’ understandings, such as teacher (13) reported that,

‘Firstly, I would consider a relevant chance of learning that provides systematic knowledge. And then, it also depends on the real situation in school, which whether or not I can put the knowledge into action or meet some cases.’

Most in-service teachers agree that their understandings will be mostly gained from the actual practice. For the majority of in-service teachers, they do not have too much time for learning a new idea from experts or literature, and the best way for them is to learn it through practice. Therefore, it would be understandable that many teachers may link inclusive education to the disabled students because LRC is identified as a practical model of inclusive education, and the practice is the most convincing factor to them. Furthermore, the participants’ replies do not only reflect their understandings of inclusive education are affected by learning and practice but shows that they understand LRC first before the concept of inclusive education exist. It has been discussed that almost all of the in-service participants do not have any courses related to inclusive education at the university, and they practise LRC first during their teaching career. Therefore, most of them always link various educational needs to disabled students rather than other exclusive phenomena in education. It might be because they understand LRC, particularly in teaching practice earlier than inclusive education.
5.3.3 Personal experience

Some participants claim that during their school days, the experiences of exclusion phenomena did not only impact on their study at that time but also currently affect their understanding of students’ expression and actions. It makes the participants more inclusive toward their students, though most of them have not heard of inclusive education before this research. In the meantime, it reflects that personal experience has a far-reaching influence on the people’s understandings of inclusive education. It does not seem to only impact on in-service teachers but also affects the academic researchers, although the explanation that inclusive education is about all students has been admitted at the theoretical level.

The influence of inclusive education on in-service teachers can normally be reflected in their daily teaching because the feelings and experiences that they had before enabling them to practise relatively equality to all students. As long as they are the school’s students, the children will be treated equally, regardless of their genders, family background, hometown, nationality and future plan. Leader (2) related her learning experience that Chinese education normally makes teachers spend their energies to help the top and bottom students with the majority of the students being neglected. Thus, when she became a teacher, she always reminds herself to help every student in the class, which has a positive impact on her understanding of inclusive education. Several participants such as teacher (3) and leader (17) claimed that they are attempting to get their student to understand that this is a diverse world, and people should respect each other’s differences. Although the participants cannot mention all aspects of inclusive education, all of them still require themselves providing equal concern to everyone in their class as much as possible. For instance, leader (7) claimed that he focuses on the equal allocation of educational resources in his daily work, although he admitted that absolute equality could not be achieved. Then he defined inclusive education by using his own language, ‘Personally, inclusive education is where our students must receive equal educational resources, including teaching, unacademic supports, and all the things they may access.’

Another example such as leader (17) was concerned more about the respect between the teacher & student and student & student. Thus, she defined inclusive education as, ‘Inclusive education is to learn the diversity, to accept diversity, and to respect everyone in education. It is not only a requirement for students but also teachers, and inclusive education is more like a value rather an educational conception.’
In the case of the teacher (19), her personal experience made her rethink the relationships between teachers and students. Then, in her own words, she believed inclusive education is about everything that can be improved harmoniously, particularly the relations between students and teachers. Such examples can be found in many participants’ feedback that more or less, personal experience has an impact on their understandings of inclusive education. Similarly, personal experience may also influence some researchers’ understandings of inclusive education. This could be the explanation as to why they generally have one narrow and one broad understanding of inclusive education.

In the first few years, many researchers that are interested in inclusive education are to have studied at special education fields, and coincidently, the educational issue of the disabled group is the most prominent group in education when inclusive education emerged. Professor BP1 has accepted this assumption as a potential impact factor of understanding inclusive education, and he further pointed out,

“Yes, but I think there is another element to this. I think that there is a group of educators, including within Universities, who have defined their career positions within special education. They see their principal colleagues as other people who are in special education and together, they have claimed the term inclusive education.”

This phenomenon is likely to describe Chinese inclusive education research partly because some Chinese scholars that are studying on inclusive education are also interested in special education as well as working in a special education institute. For instance, Professor Meng Deng, a famous Chinese researcher of inclusive education, is working in a special educational sector of a high-ranking university in China. According to the literature review chapter, his early research has some influences from special education elements and the LRC model. Similarly, Professor CP1 is also working in the same sector with Deng, and he has interests in special education, particularly education for children with intellectual problems. Based on the online introduction of researchers, some other Chinese researchers, that were mentioned in this research, such as Yongxin, Piao, Yunying Chen, Chunling Liu, and La Li, also concentrate on special education before the emergence of inclusive education. Except for those in-service teachers and scholars, eighty-two pre-service teachers also treat the personal experience as the influential factor on their perspectives of inclusive education. It seemingly proves that Chinese studies on inclusive education are mostly conducted by professionals in special education, which reveals that inclusive education is still treated as a part of the special education research. Unquestionably, except for the influential factors of understanding the term of inclusive education mentioned above, many other elements, such as tradition, regional differences and
class size, may also impact on people’s understandings of it. However, the influential factors considered in this research seem to be the most remarkable elements acknowledged by most participants.

5.4 Discussion

This chapter focuses on the third research question, which is to explore the influential factors of understanding inclusive education and the barriers between theory and practice. Both in-service teachers and pre-service teachers’ opinions are evaluated and compared, which could provide reliable examples to have a more in-depth answer to the research questions.

5.4.1 LRC still needs embedded development

The current state of LRC model has been presented based on the interviews with some in-service teachers and leaders in the chosen schools in different districts in Beijing. LRC has been improved in recent years, but the situation does not seem to remain ideal such as the articles’ description. Although there has been a gradual improvement in the number of disabled children enrolled in regular schools, the resources are not sufficient to support those children to have appropriate education and teachers’ skills. Thus, it is difficult to determine whether the LRC has experienced positive development because the number of disabled students enrolled cannot be used as a factor that proves the quality of LRC’s. Furthermore, participants have different attitudes toward LRC as in accordance with their practice experience, which obviously has positive, negative and neutral perspectives. The participants holding a positive attitude believe that LRC model and even inclusive education is necessary to the Chinese education system because the ideas are similar to Chinese traditional values.

Furthermore, some policies have eased the implementation of LRC and are beneficial to disabled students. However, some teachers argued that at the moment, Chinese schools could not fulfil the disabled children’s needs not to mention all of the students’ needs. There is an ironic viewpoint that a leader firmly believed that many schools take advantage of the LRC’s loophole to improve their schools’ academic performance ranking in the district. It reflects that LRC looks good on the surface but deep down, it is inefficient and unfair, and even wasting both disabled students and teachers’ time and energy. A few teachers have a neutral attitude that LRC is useful for the students with learning difficulties, but the teachers need to spend more time on those children, which certainly will have an impact on the learning of the
remaining students.

### 5.4.2 Barriers and influencing factors of Chinese inclusive education

This chapter also discussed six significant barriers between the theory and practice of inclusive education, including knowledge, support, resources, regulations, values, and low involvement. The lack of knowledge can be proved by the research results collected from pre-service teachers because most of them confirmed that they do not have a relevant curriculum about inclusive education or LRC. Therefore, before they become in-service teachers, they may not have any preparation to deal with the students’ needs. Taking consideration of the in-service teachers’ reports, it can be found that they barely receive support from their schools when they encounter difficulties such as educational issues and fulfilling students’ requirements. Only several participants have reported that they have learnt related experience from the older teachers, in particularly the schools in suburban areas. Oppositely, the chosen urban schools have done better because these schools provide much more help to their teachers when they have issues in their teaching. Participants also treat resources and regulation as the barriers impeding the development and practice of inclusive education. Such barriers are different to the lack of knowledge; both resources and regulations cannot be controlled by in-service teachers, which means the government and society must cooperate with teachers closely to make the practice more achievable. Lack of inclusive value is an essential problem between theory and practice, especially in China, but it is also the most difficult issue.

In the final section, there are four main factors; social environment, theoretical explanation, practical results and personal experience, which may influence people’s understandings of inclusive education. The first and the last elements are reflected by most participants, including in-service teachers, pre-service teachers and the scholars. When compared with other participants, pre-service teachers are easily affected by the theoretical explanation such as by their lecturer or a professional that is related to this area. This is because they are still students, and learning is their primary purpose. Inversely, in-service teachers claimed that they focus more on the practice result, and then they will combine the situation and their experience to understand a new concept.
5.5 Concluding remarks

This chapter mainly evaluated the barriers between the theory and practice of inclusive education by using learning in the regular classroom as a case. It can find that the quality of LRC still requires much more effort in its development for a few more years. It is not only a task of the regular schools but also a government’s and societal mission because teachers and schools will require all stakeholders’ support to sustain their teaching. According to the interview with the in-service teachers, the six main barriers are considered by participants.

1. The lack of knowledge
2. The unsound support system
3. The limited resources
4. The inefficient regulation
5. The absence of inclusive value
6. The low involvement of other stakeholders

This research also evaluated four categories that may affect people’s understandings of inclusive education based on the in-service and pre-service teachers’ responses. Firstly, social environment or development will restrict people’s thoughts because a specific time and specific condition will create a specific issue in education. Secondly, the theoretical explanation, such as the definition created by the academic authority, will impact on participants’ views, especially the pre-service teachers. Thirdly, the practical results could also affect the teachers’ cognitions, particularly the in-service teachers. Finally, personal experience is another significant aspect of influencing people’s understandings of inclusive education. Although this research does not find too many factors that may affect people’s understanding of inclusive education, it is still a systematic consideration of the problem of why inclusion in education is only considering about some groups. So far, this research has already compared the differences and similarities of inclusive education between China and the UK based on the academic level. The research has also investigated both in-service and pre-service Chinese teachers and had their first-hand experience of inclusive education in China. Considering all previous chapters, it is possible to see that inclusive education in Chinese schools should have a standard to evaluate its quality. Thus, the next chapter will focus on establishing a primary frame of the index toward inclusive education for Chinese school by referring to the existing index created by Professor Booth.
Chapter 6 Establishing an initial framework of Chinese index for inclusion

With the development of inclusive education, many schools are beginning to practise it in their daily teaching. As the definition suggests, inclusive education highlights the diversity in education as well as to accept and respect individual’s differences. Hence, if there is only a simple element that is employed to assess whether or not a school is doing well in inclusive education, it will neither be comprehensive nor fair to the teachers and schools. In China, however, the traditional evaluation system relatively depends on the students’ academic performance because of the exam-orientated value. It probably means that although Chinese schools practised LRC as inclusive education for decades, they do not have a specific evaluation standard and guide for schools to perform self-evaluation and thus finding ways to improve their inclusive values. In recent years, the Chinese government emphasises quality education and indeed provides several new ideas to supplement the criteria. However, in most participants’ views, there is no significant change in the evaluation system. Therefore, this chapter will refer to the British index for inclusion, a mature criterion, to establish an initial framework for Chinese inclusive education in schools.

Section 6.1 will first look into the common evaluation system for Chinese schools and in-service teachers to discuss how those systems may impact on practising inclusion in schools. Section 6.2 will begin to analyse the indicators from the British index to inspire Chinese education in establishing an initial index. Section 6.3 will investigate the in-service teachers’ attitudes toward establishing an index for inclusion under current China’s learning environment.

6.1 Current evaluation system in Chinese schools

Chinese education has many types of the evaluation system, and teachers’ performance seems to be an essential part in terms of assessing the school’s quality. Although the evaluation always undergoes slight modification, there are factors that are recognised as the initial choice of evaluation of the school, particularly the students’ academic scores. In Chinese education, a high reputation of the school is equal to high-quality education, which translates to students’ outstanding performance in the examination. Therefore, most schools would focus on improving students’ scores as their primary task in education rather than fulfilling the students’ genuine interests or needs. There is no doubt that Chinese educators and scholars are pursuing to seek out a comprehensive system to guide the schools because the influence of test score is
gradually attenuated, at least in many regulations. For example, Peng et al. (2013) considered that Chinese schools could apply a value-added evaluation of school effectiveness, which focuses on students’ achievement progress instead of the traditional outcome-oriented evaluation. However, the way of defining the students’ achievement progress would directly have an impact on the evaluation. According to the interviews, exam-oriented education has a strong influence on the current Chinese education, which means so far, students’ achievement progress in China is strictly related to the test score. In recent research, Chen et al. (2019, p.117) reported that their research on school self-evaluation system (SSE), which is ‘an effective mechanism that helps schools to put in place strategies to improve an aspect of school quality.’ However, the self-evaluation has not been widely adopted and was only piloted in 24 secondary schools in several cities. In comparison with the result-oriented evaluation, SSE covers much more than learning and teaching. (See below, Table 16 Adapted from Chen et al., 2019, p.121)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Factors</th>
<th>Core Indicators</th>
</tr>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Peers</td>
<td>Individual friendship</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Peer group cohesion</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Teachers</td>
<td>Focus on students' overall development</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Paying equal attention and providing equal support to each student</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Pleasant and reliable teacher-pupil relationships</td>
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<tr>
<td>Curriculum</td>
<td>Curriculum selectivity</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Curriculum adaptability for the future</td>
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<td></td>
<td>Curriculum planning and design</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Effects of curriculum implementation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Teaching and Learning</td>
<td>Developing students' ability of autonomous learning</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Teaching based on students' reactions</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>All-around development</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Individualization</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Effects of classroom teaching</td>
</tr>
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<td></td>
<td>Effects of student learning</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Effects of school assignments</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Resources</td>
<td>Resource use</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Personnel service</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Environmental facilities</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Overall satisfaction</td>
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<tr>
<td>Organization and Leadership</td>
<td>Service-oriented management</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Principal leadership</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>School organizational climate</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Support and management of the teaching process</td>
</tr>
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<td></td>
<td>Leadership of department heads</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Climate and management of departments</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Organizational efficacy of departments</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Culture</td>
<td>Cultural identity</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Cultural construction</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Security</td>
<td>Personal and property security on campus</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Personal and property security near campus</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>School bullying behaviours</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 16 Overview of the factors and core indicators of SSE
The above figure shows that SSE consists of a broad range of evaluation and initially links to much inclusive education’s perspectives such as peer group cohesion, paying equal attention and providing equal support to each student, cultural construction, and school bullying behaviours. SSE begins to focus on the fractional ideas of inclusive education, but it is yet able to systematically reflect and evaluate a school’s implementation of inclusive education.

Although many researchers and policymakers are working on a more appropriate evaluation system than the outcome-oriented, the exam score is a crucial indicator of education quality that directly impacts the parents’ choice toward schools (Peng et al., 2013). This situation remains and leader (7) complained that,

‘My daily jobs can be divided into two main aspects, including teaching knowledge and moral education. In the teaching part, I must spend more time on the students with poor academic performance because the school will assess every teacher’s teaching effectiveness, which is reflected by students’ score in a test, and there is a hard target every year. Although the government does not allow schools to rank their students based on exam result, the ranking list is truly there.’

Other two leaders (16 and 17) have also pointed out that the ‘result only’ is the core of education evaluation, despite the government constantly highlights education is not about the exam but students’ quality. During the interviews with all the twenty-five in-service teachers, they may not be able to directly explain how their schools assess their teaching quality, but the teachers’ stress from students’ score in the examination is evident. Similarly, Liu et al. (2016) reported that the students’ score is an essential element in evaluating the teachers and is also a controversial standard. It is an interesting paradox that the government, on the one hand, requires the schools to cultivate students comprehensively and to not solely focus on passing the examination but on the other hand, it uses students’ test score as a primary indicator to assess teachers’ teaching quality. Certainly, many teachers would believe that the use of students’ academic result is an effective means to reflect the teachers’ teaching quality, but as the leader (17) mentioned, students’ learning is not only influenced by teachers but also largely depended on the parents and outside schools.

Furthermore, outcome-oriented evaluation is not the only assessment criterion toward teachers and schools, but it will also result in education inequality. For instance, the ‘Key school’ attracts parents’ attention because this type of school produces higher students’ scores in examination compared with other schools. Significantly, at the same time, this type of school will also receive more high-quality resources than other schools, which will widen the gap between ‘key
school’ and ‘non-key school.’ Overall, the Chinese evaluation of schools is still at the traditional system that concentrates on the teaching material and tests but neglects the students’ diverse development. It ranks students via their test score and further creates imbalance educational resources to each student. In addition, it reinforces the value of exam-oriented education and weakens the meanings of quality-education, and as such giving to the notion that the aim of learning and teaching is purely to perform well in an examination. As previously mentioned, many scholars are attempting to re-build an evaluation system, but the nature of selection in the system has not been changed at present.

Although inclusive education has undergone development in China for many years, there is still the absence of a robust evaluation system in school. The majority of research conducted on the practice of inclusive education prefers to use the number of disabled students’ enrolment of LRC as an assessment. Of course, this is only one factor of inclusive education, but it is unable to assess the quality, which has already been thoroughly discussed among the Chinese scholars. However, the development of such an evaluation of an inclusive education system in China is still limited. This may be relevant to the problem that the Chinese professor CP1 has raised that the essence of inclusive education in Chinese practice is to improve special education. According to the interviews, it can be easily found that not all of the examination outcomes of the disabled students are counted towards the assessment under the LRC model. In addition, all participants claimed that they would not require those disabled students to conduct themselves precisely the same as their peers because the teachers believe that the disabled students are incapable of following the general standards. It reflects an interesting debate about whether compulsory education should stimulate students to meet the schools’ standard or for the school to fulfil the students’ needs. According to the definition of inclusive education, respect and fulfilling the students’ diversity in education is vital, and it means a robust evaluation system toward inclusive education need in schools is needed for their assessment. Hence, if the government is willing to develop inclusive education in schools, they must have a series of indicators to guide the schools and to help them to find the elements that have been neglected in their schools.

The purpose of this chapter is to establish an initial framework of an evaluation system for Chinese schools, and this system will refer to the British index for inclusion. As an essential part of inclusive education, the evaluation system could provide a reasonably in-depth viewpoint and sufficient information of inclusion in the teachers’ daily teaching, and further enable them to see their strengths and weaknesses clearly. It will also enable the schools to evaluate themselves and seek out areas that require improvement. This is not a system that
requires the students’ performance but rather a system that assesses the performance of the school. The initial framework will be an idea to inspire Chinese research to further develop or create some relevant indicators for the improvement of Chinese inclusive education.

6.2 The initial framework of Chinese index for inclusion

The understanding of inclusive education in the British index for inclusion is a broad area that aims to cover all children in education rather than specifically focus on the students with special educational needs. Thus, in Chinese condition, it would guide the teachers to consider all barriers in education, rather than focusing on the LRC model in their teaching. However, despite being used in many developing countries, the original index for inclusion cannot be directly adopted by Chinese schools because there will be many conditions that require adjustments such as cultures, learning environments and educational philosophy (Armstrong, Armstrong and Spandagou, 2010). However, the author of the index for inclusion, Professor BP1, argues that,

‘It (the index for inclusion) was established around British values. I think there is an element of English culture in the index, but if you were to look at the values which predominated in the English education system at the moment, it is very different from the values framework of the index. And you will see that in the latest version of the index, I contrast inclusive value with excluding values which predominate within the British education system and not inclusive values. And the framework of inclusive values has been reached through thousands of conversations with people around the world. Of course, much of the detailed understanding of the values headings that I have set out in the index does arise out of my own cultural experiences, but I have found that people around the world agree that these notions have resonance within their own cultures.’

Although Professor BP1 believed that such notions in the index could reflect the similar conditions not only within the Western countries but also other regions around the world, it still needs to be considered when other countries such as China attempt to use it. Thus, this part of the research will refer to the steps of improving an index in Australia, conducted by Deppeler and Harvey in 2004, to establish an index for Chinese education based on the local characters.

6.2.1 The phases of establishing a framework of index for inclusion

There are five main stages within the processes of the index for inclusion, see Figure 7.
It provides a comprehensive process from establishing to improving the schools, which can be a general guideline to establish an index. Deppeler and Harvey (2004) set six phases from reviewing the index to building a new index that is suitable in the Australian context, which will be an appropriate example for this research.

Prior to the formal stage of improving the index for inclusion in China, a pilot study has been conducted that involves six in-service teachers in school one and five teachers in school three. Firstly, all the six teachers in school one reviewed the index for inclusion in Chinese and have raised their respective problems. Then, they compared the index for inclusion in English with Chinese translation to rethink whether the previous problems could be resolved. After understanding the meanings of the indicators, the participants began to choose which of the indicators may be suitable for resolving their school’s problems. For example, in terms of creating an inclusive culture, all participants in the pilot test agree with indicators A1.1 to A1.5, which are,

‘Everyone is welcomed.’
‘Staff co-operate.’
‘Children help each other.’
‘Staff and children respect one another.’
‘Staff and parents/carers collaborate’ (Booth and Ainscow, 2016, p.12).

However, no one has considered A1.6 and A1.7 as the critical points in Chinese education, which are,

‘Staff and governors work well together.’
‘The school is a model of democratic citizenship’ (ibid).

Following this process of evaluation, some indicators could be removed from the original index for inclusion with consideration to the Chinese conditions, but it could not find how essential
or nonsignificant those elements were. Therefore, in school three, all participants have also reviewed the index for inclusion first, then they begin to use one to five to mark each indicator, where five is ‘the most important’ and one is ‘the most unimportant.’ Based on the pilot test and discussion with the participants and supervisor, the translation of the index was modified. The Five-point Likert Scale is employed to collect each participant’s attitudes on all those indicators according to their experience of learning and teaching in Chinese schools. The participants, the rest of the in-service teachers, in schools’ number two, four and five, and all the pre-service teachers, follow the stages that review the original index before deciding which of the indicators are relevant and appropriate in Chinese schools in accordance to their ratings.

6.2.2 The participants’ choice through vague set

To comprehensively establish a framework of the index for Chinese schools will require the involvement of different stakeholders, particularly the in-service teachers because they have direct experience of teaching and practising administrative orders. Moreover, the pre-service teachers’ opinions are also important to establish the framework because they are in the process of becoming teachers; they may have a more objective view than in-service teachers. There are fourteen in-service teachers and one-hundred and seven pre-service teachers that are involved in the selection of indicators, but two in-service teachers’ questionnaire is invalid because of incomplete response. The in-service teachers’ selections of the index in pilot tests would also be a reference to evaluate the calculation.

This section will extract the indictors from the index for inclusion based on both pre-service and in-service teachers’ experience of learning and teaching in China. As aforementioned, the data has been analysed by using the vague set, which includes the following progress:

1. The questionnaire uses the British index for inclusion to create a five-point scale, which sets the six sub-dimensions of the index as the first-tier norm and all indicators as the second-tier standards. The evaluation criteria include ‘the most important,’ ‘important,’ ‘neutral,’ ‘unimportant,’ and ‘the most unimportant.’

2. The significance of each indicator of the upper tier will be evaluated. Each indictor is denoted by \( ai \) \((i = 1, 2, \ldots, m)\), and \( ti(ai) \) means an indicator that is important to the upper tier, oppositely, \( fi(ai) \) reflects an indicator that is unimportant to the upper tier. Based on the scale, both \( ti(ai) \) and \( fi(ai) \) are defined as:

\[
ti(ai): \text{the ratio of participants who believe an indicator is the most important or important;}
\]

\[
fi(ai): \text{the ratio of participants who believe an indicator is unimportant or the most unimportant.}
\]
3. Chen and Tan (1994) presented an application of vague set theory for decision-making, which is to use $t_i(a_i)$ and $f_i(a_i)$ for calculating the score function $s_i(a_i)$. It can reflect an indicator’s reliability of creating a significant impact on the first-tier norm, and the result will be more reliable when the sample is large.

And,

$$s_i(a_i) = t_i(a_i) - f_i(a_i), \quad i = 1, 2, \ldots, m$$

After calculating the sort function $s_i(a_i)$, a standard value of the significance $\alpha (0<\alpha<1)$ will be set to extract the indicators. For instance, when $s_i(a_i)$ is greater than or equal to $\alpha$, the indicator $a_i$ will be retained to establish the framework of the Chinese index for inclusion. However, Li et al. (2013) pointed out that the traditional application that Chen and Tan have introduced does not cover the neutral option, which is a simple calculation method. Therefore, this research will take consideration of participants that gave a neutral answer, which can be employed to decide the value of $\alpha$. When all neutral participants have chosen to deny an indicator, the average difference between $t_i(a_i)$ and $f_i(a_i)$ will reach the lowest position, which is approximately 0.8, which can be treated as a threshold of the index selection. It means that if the score function for each indicator is less than 0.8, it will be removed from the index for inclusion with Chinese educational characteristics.

According to the result of the questionnaire and the formula above, the function of every indicator in each first tier can be calculated. The results are shown in Table 17 below.

Table 17 The sort function $s_i(a_i)$ of each indicator

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Dimension A-1</th>
<th>Dimension A-2</th>
<th>Dimension B-1</th>
<th>Dimension B-2</th>
<th>Dimension C-1</th>
<th>Dimension C-2</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>0.891</td>
<td>0.858</td>
<td>0.857</td>
<td>0.859</td>
<td>0.824</td>
<td>0.925</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>0.958</td>
<td>0.991</td>
<td>0.857</td>
<td>0.974</td>
<td>0.882</td>
<td>0.983</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>0.722*</td>
<td>0.941</td>
<td>0.808</td>
<td>0.58*</td>
<td>0.966</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>0.798*</td>
<td>0.925</td>
<td>0.95</td>
<td>0.69*</td>
<td>0.975</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>0.966</td>
<td>0.639*</td>
<td>0.849</td>
<td>0.933</td>
<td>0.672*</td>
<td>0.925</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>0.791*</td>
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<td>0.849</td>
<td>0.892</td>
<td>0.991</td>
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</tbody>
</table>
In this table, the numbers with * means that are less than or equal to the standard $\alpha$ (0.8), which means that in accordance to the participants’ opinions, those indicators are not the essential elements in Chinese educational environment when compared with other factors. In the dimension A-1 building community, the sixth, seventh, ninth, and eleventh indicator is not as significant as other elements in the current Chinese schools. The number six and seven indicators have been presented above, and the result here achieve the same feedback from the pre-service and the rest of in-service teachers. The value of the sixth indicator is 0.791, which is close to the standard 0.8. It means that this indicator deserves further discussion and consideration. However, ‘the school is a model of democratic citizenship’ may not be crucial to Chinese schools because school education and community harmony are two disparate components in China. Ordinarily, a community is not responsible for the children’s education, which is different from the Western countries such as the UK and USA. Many foreign communities always organise events for children, such as sports and voluntary, but this barely exists in China because the public does not have a strong sense of community. Even if there is an event for children, the majority of parents may not be willing to encourage their children to participate because some of the parents believe that such events will waste their children’s time to study.

The ninth and eleventh indicators are,

‘Adults and children are responsive to a variety of ways of experiencing gender.’

‘Staff link what happens in school to children’s lives at home.’

Gender equality and stereotype in education could be the only things that are of concern by the

<p>| | | | | | |</p>
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<thead>
<tr>
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</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>0.689*</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0.916</td>
<td>0.958</td>
<td>0.79*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8</td>
<td>0.992</td>
<td>0.95</td>
<td>0.941</td>
<td>0.941</td>
<td>0.866</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9</td>
<td>0.631*</td>
<td>0.991</td>
<td>0.857</td>
<td>0.975</td>
<td>0.824</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10</td>
<td>0.875</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0.942</td>
<td>0.975</td>
<td>0.908</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11</td>
<td>0.714*</td>
<td></td>
<td>0.991</td>
<td>0.8*</td>
<td>0.922</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12</td>
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<td>0.958</td>
<td>0.974</td>
<td>0.807</td>
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<tr>
<td>13</td>
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<td>0.857</td>
<td>0.831</td>
<td>0.925</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>14</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>0.958</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

(Source: questionnaire)
most Chinese public. Such stereotype remains, but significant improvements are made in recent years. However, about the consideration of gender identification and gender development have not attracted people’s attention. Thus, the participants may believe that the gender issues in education have already been resolved, and thus the ninth indicator should not be a priority for schools. Element number eleven is removed; it is close to the fifth indicator, where teachers and parents work together but differently. The eleventh element is more about how teachers would recognise the family circumstances, which would influence the children and for the teacher to seek out ways to help. Based on the interviews, teachers may have some information about the students’ background and most of them would link students’ behaviour to their family’s circumstance. However, most in-service participants stated that they would not consider too much students’ performance at home.

In dimension A-2 establishing inclusive values, three indicators are recognised as non-essential concerns in Chinese schools.

‘The school encourages respect for the integrity of planet earth’ (3rd)
‘Inclusion is viewed as increasing participation for all’ (4th)
‘Expectations are high for all children’ (5th)

The third indicator shown above can be understandable because the focus of Chinese education is to provide academic knowledge for the exam to the students rather than other information. Besides, the fourth and fifth indicators are also related to the educational value behind schools, and it makes these two less important than other elements. For instance, if a child does not finish his/her homework well, he/she may be prevented from participating in physical education, or they would be required to spend their break time to finish it. Another example is that most teachers will only hold high expectations to those who have a track record of achieving a high score in the examination, although most teachers claimed that they equally treat all their students. It is a barrier of creating inclusive cultures in schools because education for all is a fundamental principle of inclusive education. However, it would appear that the phrase ‘for all,’ is not a prior consideration to the pre-service teachers, which will have a negative influence on their future teaching and can be proven by the interviews with in-service teachers. The dimension B, producing inclusive policies, is not similar to dimension A as all original indicators are retained. According to the result, an element B2-3 is just above the selection criteria 0.8. This element is about English as additional language support.

‘English as additional language support is a resource for the whole school.’

This is an exciting indicator because English as an additional language already exists in most
Chinese schools, and it is closely related to the students’ examination. It is difficult to distinguish that participants treat learning a different language as a real significant factor for inclusion, or it is just a part of the examination. Enrolling students with different languages are unusual in most Chinese schools, everyone, regardless of whether they are students, teachers or other staff could barely communicate with each other in English. Therefore, whether B2-3 is suitable for Chinese schools should be considered carefully. However, if this indicator is changed to ‘Dialect as additional language support is a resource for the whole school,’ it may be more suitable than ‘English’ when taking consideration of the Chinese conditions.

In the last dimension involving inclusive practices, the participators believe that C1-3, C1-4, C1-5, and C1-7 are not suitable in the current Chinese environment. Among all the indicators treated as less important, the C1-3 has the lowest level of importance, which is to allow the students to learn about clothing and decoration. Students may learn about the variety of clothing, recycling clothes and the productive process of cloths, but it will not be a pivotal point in Chinese schools. Although in the index for inclusion, the C1-3 emphasises the learning relevant knowledge clothing and decoration, the participants are still worried. This is because it may lead to children are comparing with each other about their clothes and materials, which may lead to some negative emotions or actions among the children. Similarly, the other three indicators C1-4, C1-5 and C1-7 in dimension C1 may also less concern in Chinese schools currently, but it does not mean Chinese education neglects that knowledge. It also can find that C1-11 and C2-12 in dimension C have just reached the standard, and as such would require further information and discussion.

In comparison with the pilot test result, the excluded indicators are exactly the same, especially in the dimension A1 and C1. There is a slight divergence in dimension A2 between the first pilot test, the second pilot test and the formal research, which might be caused by the different scoring method. However, by adopting the same approach of marking the index, the feedback on A2 is basically the same.

In total, most indicators from the original index for inclusion are preserved by employing the vague set. Those indicators are essential to education in general and can resonate in different cultural backgrounds, as in accordance with Professor BP1’s claim. However, it cannot deny the possibility that some participators made an irrational choice, particularly in the late period of marking because a large number of indicators would make them lose their focus and patience. Therefore, it is also necessary to determine the final framework of the index system by combing an index weight analysis that will be discussed in the following paragraph.
6.2.3 The participants’ choices through weight calculation

As suggested in chapter four, the fuzzy comprehensive evaluation will be employed to screen the indicators, which is mainly depending on each indicator’s weight. The steps of weight calculation are:

1. Factor sets \( U \) are covering various factors that can impact on evaluating a project, which is
\[
U = \{ U_1, U_2, \ldots, U_n \} \quad (2)
\]

Every factor represents an influencing element that has a certain degree of fuzziness (Xue and Yang, 2014, pp.2104). In this research, three dimensions A, B and C will be divided into six sub-dimensions, including A1, A2, B1, B2, C1 and C2. Thus, \( U = \{ U_1, U_2, U_3, U_4, U_5, U_6 \} \).

2. Evaluation sets \( V \) are also composed of multiple elements, which is
\[
V = \{ V_1, V_2, \ldots, V_p \} \quad (3)
\]

In this set, the \( V \) could be a qualitative description or quantitative data (Wang et al., 2012). There are five qualitative descriptions in this set which are ‘the most important,’ ‘important,’ ‘neutral,’ ‘unimportant,’ and ‘the least important,’ which means \( V = \{ V_1, V_2, V_3, V_4, V_5 \} \).

3. Single-factor evaluation matrix \( R_i \) consists of numbers of single-factor evaluation vector put together (Xue and Yang, 2014, pp.2104):
\[
R_i = \begin{bmatrix}
r_{i11} & r_{i12} & \cdots & r_{i1p} \\
r_{i21} & r_{i22} & \cdots & r_{i2p} \\
\vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\
r_{im1} & r_{im2} & \cdots & r_{imp}
\end{bmatrix}
\]

4. Weight set is denoted by \( (A_i) \), that is:
\[
A_i = \{ a_{i1}, a_{i2}, \ldots, a_{im} \}, \quad \sum_{j=1}^{m} a_{ij} = 1 \quad (a_{ij} \geq 0), \quad i = 1, 2, \ldots, n \quad (4)
\]

Where \( a_{ij} \) is the \( i^{th} \) elements’ which is the corresponding weight. According to the initial task of the last research question, the weight set \( (A_i) \) should be solved. Wang et al. (2012) presented an approach to derive the weight set, which is to calculate the weight of each element.
\[
a_{ij} = \frac{\sum_{k=1}^{p}(g_{ij} - r_{ijk})}{\sum_{s=1}^{m} \sum_{k=1}^{p}(g_{is} - r_{isk})} \quad (5)
\]
where $g_{ij} = r_{ij1} \lor r_{ij2} \lor \ldots \lor r_{ijp}$ $(j = 1, 2, \ldots, m)$, $g_{ij}$ is the highest value in the $j$ line of the $R$, $m$ is the number of indicators in each dimension, $p$ is the number of evaluation set, ‘$i$’ is the number of dimensions, $s$ and $k$ are both variables.

(5) Screening indicator
According to the calculation, the average weight of indicator is 0.08. However, if the average value is employed as the standard to extract indicator, it would not be suitable because at least half of the data are lower than the average; which means the data will be deleted. In fact, the value of the threshold is relatively subjective, and the higher the value, the more indicators will be removed and vice versa. Therefore, in this research, the threshold value $a_0$ will adopt eighty per cent of the average weight, $a_0 = 0.06$. All the data will be presented in the following table.

Table 18 The weight of each indicator

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>First tier</th>
<th>Second tier</th>
<th>Number of participants</th>
<th>Percentages</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>5</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$U_{11}$</td>
<td></td>
<td>59</td>
<td>50</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$U_{12}$</td>
<td></td>
<td>69</td>
<td>45</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$U_{13}$</td>
<td></td>
<td>76</td>
<td>43</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$U_{14}$</td>
<td></td>
<td>96</td>
<td>23</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$U_{15}$</td>
<td></td>
<td>72</td>
<td>43</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>DA1 (U₁)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$U_{16}$</td>
<td></td>
<td>49</td>
<td>46</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$U_{17}$</td>
<td></td>
<td>43</td>
<td>44</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$U_{18}$</td>
<td></td>
<td>82</td>
<td>36</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$U_{19}$</td>
<td></td>
<td>45</td>
<td>44</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$U_{1,10}$</td>
<td></td>
<td>56</td>
<td>49</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$U_{1,11}$</td>
<td></td>
<td>48</td>
<td>46</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>DA2 (U₂)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$U_{21}$</td>
<td></td>
<td>56</td>
<td>46</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$U_{22}$</td>
<td></td>
<td>92</td>
<td>26</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

188
|   | U_{23} | U_{24} | U_{25} | U_{26} | U_{27} | U_{28} | U_{29} | U_{30} | U_{31} | U_{32} | U_{33} | U_{34} | U_{35} | U_{36} | U_{37} | U_{38} | U_{39} | U_{40} | U_{41} | U_{42} | U_{43} | U_{44} |
|   | 53 | 39 | 21 | 4 | 2 | 0.445 | 0.328 | 0.176 | 0.034 | 0.017 | 57 | 38 | 24 | 0 | 0 | 0.479 | 0.319 | 0.202 | 0 | 0 | 42 | 46 | 19 | 10 | 2 | 0.353 | 0.387 | 0.16 | 0.084 | 0.017 | 98 | 21 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0.824 | 0.176 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 89 | 30 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0.748 | 0.252 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 79 | 34 | 6 | 0 | 0 | 0.664 | 0.286 | 0.05 | 0 | 0 | 83 | 35 | 1 | 0 | 0 | 0.697 | 0.294 | 0.008 | 0 | 0 | 85 | 34 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0.741 | 0.286 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 55 | 47 | 17 | 0 | 0 | 0.462 | 0.395 | 0.143 | 0 | 0 | 53 | 50 | 15 | 1 | 0 | 0.445 | 0.4 | 0.126 | 0.008 | 0 | 73 | 40 | 5 | 1 | 0 | 0.613 | 0.336 | 0.042 | 0.008 | 0 | 69 | 41 | 9 | 0 | 0 | 0.58 | 0.345 | 0.076 | 0 | 0 | 58 | 44 | 16 | 1 | 0 | 0.487 | 0.37 | 0.134 | 0.008 | 0 | 61 | 42 | 14 | 2 | 0 | 0.513 | 0.353 | 0.118 | 0.017 | 0 | 68 | 41 | 10 | 0 | 0 | 0.571 | 0.345 | 0.084 | 0 | 0 | 70 | 42 | 9 | 0 | 0 | 0.588 | 0.353 | 0.059 | 0 | 0 | 53 | 51 | 13 | 2 | 0 | 0.445 | 0.429 | 0.109 | 0.017 | 0 | 71 | 41 | 7 | 0 | 0 | 0.597 | 0.345 | 0.059 | 0 | 0 | 78 | 40 | 4 | 0 | 0 | 0.655 | 0.336 | 0.008 | 0 | 0 | 73 | 42 | 3 | 1 | 0 | 0.613 | 0.353 | 0.025 | 0.008 | 0 | 58 | 46 | 13 | 2 | 0 | 0.487 | 0.387 | 0.109 | 0.017 | 0 | 56 | 59 | 3 | 1 | 0 | 0.471 | 0.396 | 0.025 | 0.008 | 0 | 68 | 48 | 3 | 0 | 0 | 0.571 | 0.403 | 0.025 | 0 | 0 | 57 | 41 | 19 | 1 | 1 | 0.479 | 0.345 | 0.16 | 0.008 | 0.008 | 71 | 43 | 4 | 1 | 0 | 0.597 | 0.361 | 0.034 | 0.008 | 0 | 189
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>(U_{45})</th>
<th>67</th>
<th>44</th>
<th>8</th>
<th>0</th>
<th>0</th>
<th>0.563</th>
<th>0.37</th>
<th>0.067</th>
<th>0</th>
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</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
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<td>(U_{46})</td>
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<td>46</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0.513</td>
<td>0.387</td>
<td>0.092</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0.008</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(U_{47})</td>
<td>72</td>
<td>44</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0.605</td>
<td>0.37</td>
<td>0.008</td>
<td>0.017</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(U_{48})</td>
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<td>40</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0.63</td>
<td>0.336</td>
<td>0.008</td>
<td>0.017</td>
<td>0.008</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(U_{49})</td>
<td>85</td>
<td>32</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0.714</td>
<td>0.269</td>
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<td>0.008</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(U_{51})</td>
<td>45</td>
<td>56</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>3</td>
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<td>0.378</td>
<td>0.471</td>
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<td>0.025</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(U_{52})</td>
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<td>2</td>
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<td>0.454</td>
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<td>0.084</td>
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</tr>
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<tr>
<td>(U_{55})</td>
<td>39</td>
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<td>9</td>
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<td>0.176</td>
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<td>(U_{56})</td>
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<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0.672</td>
<td>0.319</td>
<td>0.008</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### DC1

#### \((U_5)\)

| \(U_{57}\) | 45 | 52 | 19 | 2 | 1 | 0.378 | 0.437 | 0.16 | 0.017 | 0.008 |
| \(U_{58}\) | 52 | 54 | 10 | 1 | 2 | 0.437 | 0.454 | 0.084 | 0.008 | 0.017 |
| \(U_{59}\) | 48 | 52 | 17 | 1 | 1 | 0.403 | 0.437 | 0.143 | 0.008 | 0.008 |
| \(U_{5,10}\) | 80 | 36 | 3 | 0 | 0 | 0.672 | 0.303 | 0.025 | 0 | 0 |
| \(U_{5,11}\) | 51 | 51 | 10 | 6 | 1 | 0.429 | 0.429 | 0.084 | 0.05 | 0.008 |
| \(U_{5,12}\) | 68 | 48 | 3 | 0 | 0 | 0.517 | 0.403 | 0.025 | 0 | 0 |
| \(U_{5,13}\) | 58 | 45 | 12 | 4 | 0 | 0.487 | 0.378 | 0.101 | 0.034 | 0 |

### DC2

#### \((U_6)\)

| \(U_{61}\) | 70 | 42 | 5 | 1 | 1 | 0.588 | 0.353 | 0.024 | 0.008 | 0.008 |
| \(U_{62}\) | 78 | 39 | 2 | 0 | 0 | 0.655 | 0.328 | 0.017 | 0 | 0 |
| \(U_{63}\) | 82 | 33 | 4 | 0 | 0 | 0.689 | 0.277 | 0.034 | 0 | 0 |
| \(U_{64}\) | 78 | 39 | 1 | 0 | 1 | 0.655 | 0.328 | 0.008 | 0 | 0.008 |
| \(U_{65}\) | 64 | 47 | 7 | 0 | 1 | 0.538 | 0.396 | 0.059 | 0 | 0.008 |
| \(U_{66}\) | 81 | 35 | 3 | 0 | 0 | 0.681 | 0.294 | 0.025 | 0 | 0 |
| \(U_{67}\) | 57 | 57 | 3 | 2 | 0 | 0.479 | 0.479 | 0.025 | 0.017 | 0 |
Based on the processes, each indicator’s weight can be further calculated to reflect its significance in each first tier. Taking the $U_1$ as an example, the first step is to set the evaluation matrix.

$$
\begin{bmatrix}
0.496 & 0.42 & 0.059 & 0.025 & 0 \\
0.58 & 0.378 & 0.042 & 0 & 0 \\
0.639 & 0.361 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\
0.807 & 0.193 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\
0.605 & 0.361 & 0.034 & 0 & 0 \\
0.412 & 0.387 & 0.193 & 0.008 & 0 \\
0.361 & 0.37 & 0.227 & 0.034 & 0.008 \\
0.689 & 0.303 & 0.008 & 0 & 0 \\
0.378 & 0.37 & 0.134 & 0.109 & 0.008 \\
0.471 & 0.412 & 0.109 & 0.008 & 0 \\
0.403 & 0.387 & 0.134 & 0.076 & 0 \\
\end{bmatrix}
$$

By adopting the formula (5), it is possible to obtain a weight set $A_1$ for the $U_1$, 

$A_1 = (0.081, 0.104, 0.12, 0.166, 0.111, 0.058^*, 0.047^*, 0.134, 0.049^*, 0.074, 0.056^*)$

According to the selected standard value, $\alpha = 0.060$, in this dimension; the sixth, seventh, ninth and eleventh indicators could be of less concerning factors in Chinese schools temporarily. It has a similar result to the vague set and also similar to the current situation in many Chinese schools. Other weight sets from $U_2$ to $U_6$ can be achieved in the same way, 

$A_2 = (0.064, 0.136, 0.058^*, 0.066, 0.044^*, 0.149, 0.13, 0.11, 0.122, 0.122)$

$A_3 = (0.059^*, 0.055^*, 0.093, 0.085, 0.064, 0.07, 0.083, 0.087, 0.055^*, 0.089, 0.102, 0.093, 0.064)$

$A_4 = (0.087, 0.11, 0.083, 0.118, 0.108, 0.093, 0.12, 0.128, 0.153)$

$A_5 = (0.074, 0.069, 0.053^*, 0.046^*, 0.06^*, 0.129, 0.065, 0.069, 0.065, 0.129, 0.062, 0.101, 0.078)$

$A_6 = (0.076, 0.089, 0.096, 0.089, 0.066, 0.095, 0.055^*, 0.095, 0.051^*, 0.058^*, 0.053^*, 0.047^*, 0.058^*, 0.071)$
With the exception of the four indicators in the dimension A1 (U1), the third and fifth elements in dimension A2 (U2), and the third, fourth and fifth factors in dimension C1 (U5) has the same result with the first method, which means these indicators could initially be treated as removable norms. There are various reasons for the participants to make their decisions, but the essential concerns could be the cultures, educational system and the environment. If the public is not familiar with one entity, it cannot be judged simply by using an evaluation system from another place. It has to be acknowledged that most indicators in the index for inclusion are vital to helping the schools to improve inclusion. However, some of them cannot directly be adopted to assess the situations of both the teachers and the schools.

As the weight sets present, some indicators in dimension B1, B2 and C2 are also less than the value threshold, which is slightly different from the outcome of the vague set. However, if an approximate value in each weight set is taken, indicators that are more than 0.055 could be mathematically treated as 0.06. This reflects that those factors are negotiable to explore the influences on its value and further decide whether they should be directly involved or to modify its phraseology. Additionally, there are three elements that are lower than 0.055, including the ninth, eleventh and twelfth factor in dimension C2, but they are not filtrated by the vague set. These three indicators in the original index are,

‘Staff plan, teach and review together’ (C2-9)
‘Teaching assistants support the learning and participation of all children’ (C2-11)
‘Homework is set so that it contributes to every child’s learning’ (C2-12)

Based on the interviews with the in-service teachers, they do communicate with each other about their teaching, class management strategies and curriculum development. However, they are barely involved in the making of the school’s plan. Thus, C2-9 can be discussed further despite its weight value of 0.051. C2-11 is removable in the second method, which could be further discussed. It is because teaching assistant is not a familiar role in Chinese education, as in not many schools would hire a teaching assistant. C2-12 links to homework, which becomes a less critical part to students, especially in the compulsory stage because the government has already required schools to reduce the homework load in recent years. Therefore, in participants’ minds, it has not been crucial to decide whether it is appropriate to everyone. To sum up, although the results of the two different screening techniques are little different, several indicators that are covered by both methods could still be eliminated. Of course, some other factors mentioned in this section should also be deeply investigated to improve an index for inclusion in China.
6.3 Teachers’ attitudes toward the index

After the in-service teachers’ reviews on the index for inclusion, they have also given their views on it with regards to the considerations of whether or not Chinese schools need it to evaluate inclusive education as well as the reasoning behind those decisions. Presently, there is no unified answer, be it positive, negative and questionable. However, based on the interviews, the selected schools are still far from inclusive education, and even most Chinese schools have little concern about this topic.

In the first school, participants’ attitudes are unclear or vague because most of them have no knowledge of inclusive education prior to this research. It is difficult to suddenly force them to accept a new element in their job. Teacher (1) provided fairly positive attitudes on establishing an index for inclusion for Chinese schools, and he highlighted the significance of dimension A, which is the creation of inclusive cultures. He underlined that the creation of parents’ value of inclusion should be of primary concern as they could be a positive guide to their children, which would further influence the school’s atmosphere. Teacher (1) also claimed that students, which is the principal component of a school, have to build a healthy relationship with others, which could reflect the situation of inclusive education in school. He finally claimed that,

‘I feel that if the public’s value of inclusive education has not been changed, such relevant rules are meaningless for sure. You can find those rules in primary and secondary schools, and if every participant in school can follow the requirements exactly, there would not be a distinction of ‘good’ and ‘bad’ student. However, the truth is this sort of distinction emerge in endlessly, which means it is mostly insufficient to teachers and students by only relying on policies and documents.’

Teacher (1) is unsure about the implementation of dimension C, and he suggested that it must start at establishing value and the change could not happen immediately. The leader (2) in school one shared her worries and attitudes on the index for inclusion after reviewing it.

‘Is it really an appropriate index for Chinese schools? If you want it to be adopted by schools, first of all, we need to know and understand it, which is an essential breakthrough point. It may be improper to use ‘brainwash’ to describe, but the value is the first step. For the rest of the index, I would say for most people, seeing is believing.’

Teacher (3) holds slightly different opinions with the teacher (1) and leader (2), and she does not like those two participants that were emphasising on the importance of creating inclusive
cultures. She provided a positive attitude on dimension C, evolving inclusive practices,

‘Their (two parts of dimension C) indicators are not like the first and second sections that are closer to theoretical concerns. The last one is on the practical tier, which is to build an appropriate curriculum system and is the most essential (to schools).’

Although teacher (3) recognised that dimension C is crucial to Chinese schools, she also argued that under the current circumstance of education, there is not adequate resource and support. Another participator, teacher (4), combined both considerations above and firstly treats creating inclusive value as an initial section and underlines that,

‘To be aware of inclusive education is the first thing, people cannot do it without relevant knowledge because it is a process that could be achieved by creating inclusive cultures to teachers.’

However, she compared her school’s conditions with the index for inclusion and found that although creating inclusive cultures is the core, some indicators in dimension A may not be necessary because the school leaders have repeatedly emphasised many similar ideas during the school’s meeting. Hence, teacher (4) considered that teachers in her school had done an excellent job that is related to some part of dimension A, but they require more effort in dimension C. As such, having an index may offer assistance in their school. Clearly, these four participators were expressing partial support for the index for inclusion, or in other words, they are observing and waiting for the outcome. Teacher (6), the only teacher who has heard of inclusive education mentioned that an index would be an indispensable guide to teachers if inclusive education is going to be part of education. These teachers acknowledge the meaning of establishing an index for inclusion for their schools, but they have expressed some concern. In contrast, teacher (5) has a negative attitude toward the index due to her passive impression of inclusive education. Regardless of the conception or the index, she firmly believed that they are too unrealistic, but contradictorily, she synchronously deems that Chinese education is already practising many of the values of inclusive education. In her opinion, the index for inclusion seems to be useless because they have already done well in most parts of inclusive education. She further commented that the other values that have not been implemented are unrealistic.

School three, another school that piloted the test has a more optimistic view of the index compared to school one. This may be because both LRC and inclusive education has better supports and concerns in school three. The most mentioned aspect of inclusive education or the index is creating inclusive value or cultures, which is same as school one. Although participant
(13) did not confirm if her opinion is directed toward the index directly, she stressed the significance of inclusive value and environment at the end of the interview. Moreover, she extended the range of building relevant cultures and value from school level to the entire society, which is similar to a scholar’s perspective. It is also because the teacher (13) had previous experience of working with an expert and received help. Her colleagues, teacher (14) and (15), expressed that they agree with most of the indicators in the index for inclusion. However, some of them may not be useful in Chinese schools, or other words, and some indicators cannot be achieved in the short term. Thus, if the governor assesses teachers’ job based on those indicators, it is unfair to the teachers, and the result will be unreliable. The two leaders (16 and 17) in school three firmly asserted that the index for inclusion would be a useful material to evaluate and improve their job on inclusive education. Leader (16) considered the index for inclusion as an objective evaluation that could reflect their inadequacy in daily teaching and monitoring. Leader (17) claimed that, ‘We need this kind of index, but (the one based on British conditions) must be modified.’

She further provided an example that dimension A is the closest to the current Chinese educational characteristics where most schools are obeying the instructions from the government to implement either LRC or inclusive education regardless of the outcomes. Furthermore, leader 17 pointed out that, ‘The dimension C is not suitable for us now. I am not saying it is meaningless, but by considering the current educational situation, it is difficult to reach them all. Generally, having an index for inclusion is necessary.’

Clearly, all participants in school three agreed with the significance of dimension A in the index for inclusion, which is the same as most participators’ attitudes in school one but with a more positive view. Furthermore, both selected teachers and leaders in school number three acknowledged that having an index in their school would be useful. This is despite pointing out that some indicators and even an aspect (dimension C) are not easy to achieve at the present moment, which is slightly different from the waiting and watching the attitude in school number one. Based on all the participants’ feedback from these two schools, it would appear that if a school provide more support and positive attitudes toward either inclusive education or LRC model, teachers in this school will be more optimistic to accept the idea and relevant materials of inclusion in education.

Whether the index is useful is also controversial to other schools. Participators in school number two are more favourable to the index and willing to accept it in their daily work. Unlike other
participants, leader (7) is confident in his school’s curriculum, and he believed that a variety of courses had been provided to the students at least in the majority of schools in Beijing. Similar to most participants, he is worried about the inclusive culture due to the heavy pressure of achieving good academic performance thus may have little energy to concentrate on other aspects. However, he recognises that comprehensive development is vital to students, and he highlighted that in the history of Chinese education, inclusion has always been pursued, which influenced him to treat creating inclusive value as an essential part of education. Another leader (12) in the same school discussed the possibility of adopting an index for her school,

‘School should have an evaluation index for inclusive education because we do not have a guide to improve inclusion, so I hope you could send a copy of the initial framework for inclusion to us.’

In the fourth school, which is located in the city area, the leader (18) and teacher (19) did not have an interest in the index, although they claimed that the inclusive value is useful to their school.

‘It is useless for our school because inclusive education only covers several students. Our teachers barely know it, so it could be better to learn as a concept, but it is too professional to school.’ (Leader 18)

Teacher (19) is more concerned about their working load,

‘Inclusive education is good, but if (school) uses the index to evaluate (teachers’) performance, it will provide extra stress to teachers. I think most factors are running through in our daily teaching.’

In contrast, another teacher (20) in the same school agreed with adopting and establishing an index for a Chinese school to develop inclusive education. It appears that leader (18) treats inclusive education as LRC, which means solely focusing on the disabled students in a mainstream school. It creates misunderstanding toward inclusion in her school. They (18) and (19) have acknowledged that teachers should learn about the value of inclusive education but disagree with learning via an index that also contains evaluation criteria. The last few participators continued similar attitudes; that is no consensus. Teacher (21) and (22) complained about the heavy teaching pressure, and leader (23) repeatedly argued that the index is useless without a completed policy system. Differentially, participants (24) and (25) realised that having an index as a guide will be suitable for school, though teachers may spend additional time and energies in teaching.
6.4 Concluding remarks

The main aim of this chapter is to extract appropriate indicators from the British index for inclusion to further establish an initial framework that is based on Chinese education characters. Through analysing the previous discussion about educational value, it appears that most current evaluation standards in Chinese schools are varied. However, overemphasising on academic score caused stress to participants, and they feel that due to this, there is a lack of necessary attention to focus on students’ comprehensive improvement. Importantly, the government advocates the development of ‘Rong he jiao yu’ (inclusive education) in Chinese schools, but generally, it looks like they still evaluate teachers’ performance through students’ academic result. According to the interview, some participants firmly consider that their schools are already conducting inclusive education effectively despite not having any knowledge about it prior. It is contradictory to draw such a conclusion because most of them do not know its proper definitions, and there is no evaluation system for the referral. Therefore, a relevant indicator system is useful to school, which act as an assessment as well as a handbook to Chinese schools.

The second part of this chapter is to extract some similar indicators from the index for inclusion in the UK before establishing a framework of an index for improving inclusive education in Chinese schools. Although the British index has already adopted and modified in many countries, it remains a relatively new trial for Chinese inclusive education. Two chosen methods were used to calculate the index selection, and it was found that some elements may not be suitable to the Chinese educational tradition. This, however, does not mean that such indicators are not crucial to inclusive education but using an unfamiliar standard that is originated from a country with a different cultural background is illogical. More seriously it would result in the misjudgements of the situation of inclusive education. Therefore, combining the outcomes of the vague set and the comprehensive fuzzy model with Chinese conditions, the following indicators could be removed because they are unsuitable to be part of the framework for inclusion in Chinese schools, based on current conditions. In dimension A, creating inclusive cultures, including A1-6, A1-7, A1-9, A1-11, A2-3 and A2-5; and in dimension C, evolving inclusive practices, containing C1-3, C1-4 and C1-5. With the exception of the indicators above, many elements are also lower than the threshold in each calculation method, which requires further discussion and evaluation in future research.

The participants were holding different perspectives on the index for inclusion based on their respective concerns. There are no remarkable differences between the schools in city areas and suburban schools, but the participators from school number two and three expressed their
interests in the index for inclusion. It can be found that almost all participants in those two schools reported their schools would provide support when they cannot solve the problems that are related to the disabled students. It reflects that those schools are implementing LRC seriously. Although the disabled group is only a part of inclusive education, the period of developing LRC could provide positive attitudes toward inclusion in education. The rest of the in-service teachers in this research are more likely to wait and observe the practical values of an index, which is the proof of previous results that the primary concern of the in-service teachers is the way they are going to practice it. In general, this is only the beginning in terms of establishing an index for inclusion in Chinese education and the two filtered approaches would inspire future studies to be more in-depth and meaningful.
Chapter 7 Conclusions

The primary aims at the beginning of this research are to supplement the definition of inclusive education, to explore the potential reasons for different understandings of its concept, and to establish an initial framework of an index to support Chinese schools. By following the predesign, these aims have been evaluated and investigated through the critical literature review, interviews, and questionnaire. The final chapter will be divided into three sub-sections to summarise the achievements of each aim, and finally, to consider the limitations and potential of this research.

Discovering an appropriate explanation of inclusive education is an important step for its development in a different cultural environment. This is because the definition mainly established by using Western values, which means inclusive education may not be entirely suitable for other cultural backgrounds without any modifications. Therefore, in order to develop inclusive education in different areas, there are two objectives that need to be considered in this research by using China as a case.

7.1 Similarities and differences between the UK and China in academic level

In terms of dealing with the first research question, the general development of inclusive education, particularly in the UK and China, has been reviewed to understand the essential academic arguments. Many similarities and differences are found during the comparison between Britain and China; similar in term of controversy on its understanding, academic research situation; and different in terms of underpinning educational value behind and education circumstance. Specifically, in the academic level of inclusive education, the broad understanding that considers all participants rather than a specific group seems to be gradually accepted. However, regardless of China or the UK, the narrow understanding that is related to the disabled group is dominated in most levels of practice. It reflects another similar issue, in both countries, that the theory of inclusive education is acknowledged gradually, but it is challenging to practice. Differently, there are gaps between Chinese education and British education, which has to be evaluated carefully because those differences may directly impact on the improvement of inclusive education in Chinese circumstance. Through reviewing the academic research in both countries, the first concern of differences is the value of education, which are between Confucian thoughts and human rights. Confucian thoughts on education are all about ‘You jiao wu lei’ and ‘Yin cai shi jiao’, which are closely related to some values of inclusive education. It significantly takes consideration of education for all and different course
for different aptitudes. Although the cultural elements are disparate to the western countries, it is not entirely a restriction of improving inclusive education. However, on the contrary, it provides an opportunity of adopting it in the Chinese education context. With the exception for the different underpinning consideration of inclusive education and Chinese education, the objective conditions in Chinese schools are also different from the Western countries such as the educational environment, curriculum setting and class size. In the last few years, many Chinese scholars have mentioned that the localisation of inclusive education will be a long and complicated process. It can be found that at the academic level, inclusive education is broadly understood. However, most scholars are not the practitioner, thereby the practitioners’ perspectives of inclusive education are closer to reality.

7.2 The teachers’ understandings of inclusive education

The second research question mainly investigates how the people, who are not involved in the academic field, explain inclusion in education based on their experience. The results from interviews and questionnaire have found that there are different understandings and attitudes toward inclusive education.

7.2.1 Non-academic people’s reflections

In order to consider non-academic understandings of inclusive education, there are twenty-five in-service teachers and one hundred and seven pre-service teachers that have participated in this research in the form of interviews and questionnaire. The interviews began with a discussion on educational values in order to gain a basic understanding of the current Chinese educational conditions, which mainly includes two educational values in Chinese schools, exam-orientation and quality education. During the interviews, some values, even the values from the exam orientated education have some form of relations with inclusive education. Although quality education is treated as a value that is closely related to inclusive education, it seems to be misunderstood by most Chinese parents and some educators. A large number of ‘interests-oriented class’ have emerged outside school, and many children are forced to take part in these different classes. However, most of these classes are closely related to the students’ academic examination instead of their real interests in education. It is a noticeable phenomenon in current Chinese education and could be a part consideration of inclusive education. When researching on participants’ understanding of inclusive education, the result showed that most in-service teachers have no knowledge of it regardless of whether it is the broad or narrow
understanding of inclusive education. However, they are familiar with the LRC model. In-service teachers can literally explain inclusive education and easily distinguish its difference with LRC, but they still link those two elements together. They have also pointed out the similar consideration between inclusive education and the education requirements from the Chinese government. It is favourable to its progress in Chinese education, although the teachers do not have a systematic knowledge of inclusive education.

The political level of inclusive education in China can be found by relevant research and interviewing with Chinese expert and in-service teachers. An essential and current issue is that China has no specific legislation toward inclusive education. Although there are many policies that are related to ‘Rong he jiao yu’ and LRC, the majority of them are not part of inclusive education and even deemed useless by the Chinese professional, and many participated teachers. However, through conducting interviews, it appears that some other regulations may not be related to ‘Rong he jiao yu’ but actually refers to many values of inclusive education. For example, the government requires schools to not give up on any student even if they do not perform well academically. Although this makes inclusive education lack a complete system in Chinese education, it also has its advantages in practice. For instance, every independent strategy can be seen as practising inclusive education in a timely and gradual manner, which means it will be easier to achieve a desirable outcome in each step of the way rather than attempting to implement everything at once.

On the contrary, the lack of systematic knowledge of inclusive education will lead to misunderstanding of it, which makes some policies practice deficient and further restrict inclusion. With the exception of academic consideration, in-service teacher and policy, this research also has collected pre-service teachers’ understandings of inclusive education, which is rarely found in existing research. As a result, most chosen pre-service teachers barely understand inclusive education, but some of them who are in the subject of early childhood education and special education learned it in their university. Some of the pre-service teachers provide their understandings of inclusive education based on the Chinese translation and their relevant courses, which are similar to the broad perspective.

7.2.2 The dynamic process of inclusive education

Based on evaluating the different opinions of inclusive education and educational conditions in China, the understanding of inclusive education could be slightly expanded. Recently, education does not only exist in the regular school system but also in various types of education
that exist external to the school. These external forms of education are playing an increasingly critical role. Thus, inclusive education should also move forward to focus on different education institutes, rather than solely focus on regular schools. It should be a requirement for all types of education to respect and accept learners’ diversity.

Furthermore, inclusive education is defined by UNESCO as a process of responding to diversity in education, and some scholars such as Booth and Ainscow have treated it as a dynamic process of increasing participation and reducing exclusion. However, taking consideration in different areas, each country has its own priorities in education; thus, inclusive education may be defined as a dynamic process of finding and solving exclusion. This description is more specific and can better reflect its dynamic character because the exclusion in education is changing with social development, which requires educators to estimate their current challenge.

Moreover, teachers complained that currently, the school carries too many responsibilities of education and sometimes, they are actually the vulnerable group in education. In Chinese society, if some problems that are related to children or young people emerged, the public will primarily critique it as a failure of the school. This will be unfair toward the school and teachers. Interestingly, in UNESCO’s definition of inclusive education, it mentions that the regular education system should take responsibility to cultivate all individuals. The word, ‘regular,’ reflects the education system has already been separated into ‘regular’ and ‘non-regular,’ which is not inclusive at all. Therefore, inclusive education is not only related to schools or educational institutes’ responsibility but also the entire society; including public and family education. According to the Chinese characters, this tiny change of the broad understands of inclusive education could effectively reduce the stress of schools and encourage all stakeholders to participate in education.

In terms of Chinese education, inclusive education should be a process of learning the inclusive value and practising it in education, including cultivating knowledgeable teachers and providing a comprehensive support system. Learning about the inclusive values should be the priority in order to develop inclusive education in China. This is because if no one understands its meaning or have little understanding of its terms, there would not be any further progress. Therefore, in Chinese research on inclusive education, it would be ideal for spreading the idea of inclusive education rather than evaluate it in a practical situation. It is because the practice would not be the same as anticipated, or it might result in an even worse scenario. For example, the case provided by a leader, some schools take advantage of the policy that if a student has formal disabled certification, his/her academic score will not have an impact on the school. It
is, of course, an extremely worse situation, but this reflects that if the inclusive value is not accepted by mainstream society, every practice of inclusion cannot be fully implemented. According to the interviews, some phenomena are not recognised as exclusion by Chinese teachers because they treat those phenomena as normal action in Chinese education. For instance, some of them do not admit that the ‘key school’ is an exclusive phenomenon. This issue is not an exclusive issue in Chinese schools because there are many school ranking lists around the world. Some participators even think that it is ordinary for teachers to prefer students with a high academic score and that such an attitude does not need to change. Such a problem is a severe issue in the Chinese education system. Although some common exclusion in education has been changed for decades, they still exist in most regions around the world, and with social development, some new problems would be exposed such as cyber-violence and as aforementioned, education outside school. Therefore, the changing world requires the research on inclusive education to learn persistently, generate and expand its foci of education to fulfil new challenges and ensure its dynamic characteristic.

7.3 Barriers and factors affecting practice and understanding of inclusive education

The third research question can directly reflect the real situation of inclusion in schools, which is an elementary step to find out the strategies to resolve exclusive issues in education. Importantly, it can also reveal why people understand inclusive education in different ways.

7.3.1. The gaps between theory and practice

Finding out the gaps between the theory and practice could be beneficial to both researchers and practitioners to rethink the essence of inclusive education and how it could be efficiently practised. By using Chinese schools as an example, this research also seeks out six significant barriers between the theory of inclusive education and reality.

1. The lack of knowledge
2. The unsound support system
3. The limited resources and imbalanced allocation
4. The inefficient regulation
5. The absence of inclusive value
6. The low involvement of other stakeholders in education
Among those issues, the most prominent is that teachers lack knowledge of inclusive education regardless of its narrow or broad perspective. This barrier may not be exclusive to China but also in some other countries, although many countries claim to have implemented inclusion in education in recent years. Therefore, in order to improve the practice of inclusive education, teachers’ cultivation is essential, in order for them to understand and accept the idea. However, in most participants’ views, solely focusing on teachers respecting and accepting the value of inclusion is far from adequate because the mainstream social value will also influence everyone’s attitude. Therefore, the absence of inclusive value is treated as another barrier in Chinese schools to improve inclusion. According to the review of Chinese literature and interviews, the relevant value of inclusion exists in Chinese society. Firstly, the government has recently advocated the establishment of a harmonious society that could be seen as a different expression of inclusion. Secondly, an essential philosophy of Chinese education is Confucian teachings that also propagate education for all. Such mainstream thoughts will provide a solid social foundation for introducing inclusive value to Chinese citizens.

Inclusive education does not have a complete system to support schools and teachers when they have issues in education, especially with disabled students. As the most valued group in research on inclusive education, disabled students in schools always have their special needs in class. It will not only require the teachers to have professional knowledge and skills, but it also requires support, including school, local education authority and even national government. However, in this research, it can be found that most teachers have never received any help from their superior, which forces them to explore the strategies by themselves. It spends teachers too much extra time and energy in teaching, which may exert a passive influence of inclusive education to teachers. A few teachers reported that their schools and LEA provide help to them, but it is periodic rather than continuous assistance. There is also an interesting point that the development situation of inclusive education is not entirely depended on a school’s location. In other words, although a school is in the suburban area, it does not mean that inclusive education in this school is worse than the urban school. In this research, school number two is a suburban school, but it has a complete LRC system in their school, which is remarkable, and such achievement may be deemed better compared with some urban schools. With the exception for the inadequate support system, Chinese schools also require more resources to contribute to inclusive education; and most participants are worried about the limited funding, which would directly restrict the improvement of a school. For example, developing a curriculum requires financial investment, and a high-quality teacher also requires more financial resources. However, a few participants consider that the main problem is not about the fund shortage, particularly in developed areas, but the imbalanced allocation of resources. In general, students
with excellent learning ability may receive more educational resources than other students, which is against the perspective of inclusive education.

No specific law to stipulate inclusive education is always criticised by much Chinese research because it means the practice of inclusion in education lacks corresponding guarantee officially. However, according to the interviews, in recent years, the government enacts many policies that advocate inclusive education. It reflects that the government has begun to solve the ‘short slab’ of inclusive education. However, it still needs a precise regulation of inclusive education because as Professor CP1 mentioned, many policies related to inclusive education is actually reinforced the special education. Although some participants firmly believe that many values of inclusive education have been stipulated in Chinese policies, the implementation is another matter. As with many teachers believe that LRC is superficial. It may be related to the poor applicability of some instructions because the educational policy may not have enough involvement of relevant stakeholders, including in-service teachers, school leaders, the representatives of students and parents. It is difficult to judge because all participants do not have any experience of participating in any policymaking, although some of them firmly believe that some representatives should be involved. Based on the interviews with the teachers, the idea that all stakeholders should take part in a policy decision is a double edge sword. Certainly, it can take considerations into the broad requirements of education from different perspectives, but it will also be difficult to reach an agreement. Hence, it is a barrier to practice inclusion in education, but it is an objective condition that cannot be easily overcome in any country. These restrictions may not be the only barriers but are typical in many countries, and every country may also have their respective barrier, which will expand the strategies of practising inclusive education when a new barrier emerges.

7.3.2 The factors affecting people’s perceptions of inclusive education

Another focus of this research is to systematically evaluate the factors that may cause the public’s different understandings of inclusive education. Although several authors assumed that a few possible factors that may impact on scholars’ understandings, this research mainly investigated the influential factors by considering different stakeholders. Four main factors have been evaluated; which are social environment, theoretical explanation, practical result and personal experience.

Social environment mainly includes social development, the public values and educational environment. Specifically, with the progress of society, the exclusion in education will be
changed based on different contradictions. For example, if the term of inclusive education emerged in the 1960s in Western countries, it would have been dealing with the educational issue among different races. In another case, if it is raised in the early years of the new China, it would link to class equality. There are too many examples to be mentioned on an individual basis. Thus, when inclusive education is narrowed down, it would be because a prominent problem in education attracts more attention from the public. Participants in this research also highlighted the public awareness would also influence their understandings. In other words, if value becomes a public awareness, it means this value will be relatively correct, and individuals’ understandings will be affected by the mainstream value. Therefore, when the narrow understanding of inclusive education is dominated in education, it means most people that have an early understanding of it will only accept it from the narrow perspective. This research has found that the events in chronological order would also affect the people’s understandings of some ideas, such as the example that was discussed in chapter seven. Regardless of the mainstreaming and integration in Western countries or the LRC in China emerged earlier than the term inclusive education. When inclusive education was raised in 1994, all these practices for special education had been implemented for many years. Therefore, it makes inclusive education always be linked to special education easily.

The theoretical explanation is an essential factor that influences the public’s understandings of inclusive education, especially for those that know nothing of it. Learning from others is an initial way to know and understand the new knowledge that could be explained by different persons with different perspectives. Therefore, some people understand inclusive education in a narrow way because they may learn it from someone who believes in the narrow view. Also, such existence could be explained by the influence of the social environment, practical situation and personal experience. According to the research, theoretical explanation mainly impacts on the pre-service teachers because as a university student, they would gain their knowledge from the lecturer and expert’s statements. Hence, the way that they have learnt from the university will affect how they understand and practice in their future teaching. It is a reminder for Chinese universities that the way they teach inclusive education will have an impact on the pre-service teachers. Although in-service teachers will also be affected by the academic materials, they would learn more about it from their future practice rather than the theory. The contents of inclusive education in practice will directly influence the in-service teachers’ understandings, which is why they were talking about inclusive education but were still focusing on disabled students. Chinese researchers Yan and Deng (2019) achieved the same result that the effects of practice will more straightforward impact on in-service teachers in education.
Personal experience does not only have an impact on individuals’ understandings of inclusive education but also among all other things. It could reveal a significant reason why inclusive education is close to special education in research and practice. Through discussing with experts in both countries and reviewing the literature, it can be found that many scholars that are currently studying on inclusive education have concentrated on special education. When the idea of inclusive education emerged, they turned to study inclusion gradually, but some of them are still interested in research that is focused on the disabled group. In contrast, in-service teachers’ experience seems to provide the reasonably broad understandings of inclusive education to them. Most in-service teachers shared their experience of exclusion in learning and claimed that those unfair phenomena that they experienced remind them to consider all children in their class at all time. It could be an essential factor that results in most in-service teachers to have relatively positive attitudes on the broad perspective of inclusive education’ prospect in Chinese schools. There is no right or wrong of understanding of inclusive education from a different angle, but they should share the same objective; which is to achieve education for all. It could be achieved by removing the learning issues for each disadvantaged group. However, if all such barriers are considered separately from the entirety of education, it will be unlikely for inclusion to be successfully implemented in education. Thus, the studies can have a different focus, but at the same time, researchers cannot neglect the negative influence on other aspects and groups in education when they consider providing the privilege to one group. In order to facilitate education for all, it also requires researchers to have a wide-angle, including conceptual, political and sociological analysis, rather than focusing on a limited field.

According to many relevant research and interviews, it can be found that the lack of legislation or policy is always mentioned when talking about the practice of inclusive education. Almost all in-service teachers claim that their actions will highly relate to the government’s stipulations that clearly reflects how critical the government will be in shaping inclusive education. For example, the case of misunderstanding raised by professor CP1, many policies would make the practitioners believe that inclusive education and LRC are exactly same to only carry out the educational issues for disabled children in schools. Furthermore, some in-service teachers in this research argued that if their schools consider improving inclusive education, they need policy guide and changes from top to bottom. Clearly, no matter the lack of inclusive value or the inefficient regulation has strong links with the government because in most cases, these are defined and guided by some relevant sectors of the state, then impact on citizen’s understandings and actions. Therefore, it reminds that policy or regulations of inclusive education is a vital field in research, which has a great influence on its theoretical localisation and practices.
7.4 Primary ideas of building an index for inclusion in Chinese schools

Based on the results from different research methods, the situation of inclusive education in the Chinese environment can be summarised as staying at an early stage in both theoretical and practical level. The last consideration of this research is to establish an evaluation system or a guideline to promote inclusion in Chinese education. Therefore, a consideration of creating an index for inclusion with Chinese characters has been sorted out by referring to the original index for inclusion and using two different extraction method. It is crucial to Chinese research on inclusive education, particularly the practical side, because an initial index will provide a standard to investigate the real situation of inclusive education in a school objectively. In the meantime, the school also can find out which elements of inclusive education they can improve or which parts they need help.

In the statistical approach of the vague set, twelve indicators of the original index for inclusion are evaluated as removable in Chinese educational environment. These indicators are mainly distributed in dimension A, creating inclusive cultures and C, evolving inclusive practices. All those indicators are removed because the participators believe that they are not suitable for the current education environment or the Chinese educational traditions. The second statistical model, the fuzzy comprehensive evaluation model, has been employed to calculate all the data again to ensure the accuracy of selecting indicators. Seventeen indicators could potentially be removed from the index for Chinese inclusive education after the calculation. Through the analyses of the index for inclusion, nine indicators initially can be removed from the framework of an index for Chinese inclusive education. Besides, during the second approach, the values of three indicators from dimension B are lower than the thresholds, but they were not removed based on the comparison between the two methods. So far, although the method is a relatively simple and there were only nine British indicators that have been removed from the initial index, it could be treated as a systematic consideration of evaluating inclusive education for Chinese schools at the early stage.

7.5 Limitations and further research

The potential limitation in this research is the example group; which are all from Beijing and may not be able to represent all situations in China. However, the educational system in mainland China is generally the same, and there are many similar education conditions such as
the compulsory education policy, pre-service teacher cultivation, LRC, and more. Of course, each region has its own characters in education, which may turn out to be a completely different issue that could be investigated in the future.

For the studies on inclusive education in the future, some stakeholders’ opinions, such as students, parents, policymakers, and pre-service should be considered in research rather than limiting the participants to scholars and in-service teachers. It could spread inclusive value to the public, which will make people understand it and provide a positive influence on its improvement. The index for Chinese inclusive education is only an initial consideration in this research and have a lot of potential rooms for improvement. For instance, it could involve more participants such as in-service teachers, pre-service teachers, experts, students, students’ parents, policymakers and community representatives. The method of indicator extraction and the description of each indicator can also be changed to be more consistent and closer to Chinese traditions and linguistic habits. Overall, there are plenty of research areas on inclusive education, not only in China but also in most countries around the world. However, if every country could learn and assist each other, inclusive education will certainly be practised and gradually promoted gradually because the process of learning and help is also a process of achieving inclusion.
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Appendix 1 The Interview Guide for in-service Teachers

1. Basic information:
   - Can you tell me some basic information about your education background?
   - Did you graduate from pre-service teacher programme in university or non-teacher programme?
   - How long have been teaching in secondary schools?
   - Do you act as any management position?

2a. Based on your experience, what values do you think that Chinese schools are adopting to guide their daily operation now?
2b. How do you treat the educational value in your school? (Advantages and disadvantages)

3a. Have your heard of inclusive education?
   (If yes)
   - How did you know about inclusive education? (When and where)
   - How do you understand it?
   - Have your heard of ‘Rong he jiao yu’ (integration) or ‘Sui ban jiu du’ (Learning in the regular classroom)?
   - How do you describe the relationships between learning in the regular classroom and inclusive education?
   (If no)
   - Have your heard of ‘Rong he jiao yu’ (integration) or ‘Sui ban jiu du’ (Learning in the regular classroom)?
   - When you hear the term inclusive education, how do you understand it?
   - How do you describe the relationships between learning in the regular classroom and inclusive education?

3b. When you hear of a new educational theory or policy, which factors would impact on your understandings toward it?

4. Did you have any experiences of exclusion in education when you studied in compulsory education stage?
   - How did the experience affect you at that time?
   - Does the experience give you any inspiration? How does it impact on you being as a teacher?
   - Do you think such exclusive phenomena that you experienced still exist in schools
today?
• Which exclusive phenomenon is the most significant issue in school at present? Why?
• Do you think how can we change those exclusive phenomena in education?

5. Can you talk some exclusive phenomena in your daily teaching?
• How do you think the phenomenon impact on you and your students?
• What kinds of support do you need when you are trying to solve the issues?

6. Are there any students with special educational needs in your class? (Including both your learning and teaching period)
• What do you think about these students’ learning and living situation in mainstream schools?
• Have you heard of other students’ opinions toward the students with special educational needs?
• How do you cultivate the students with special educational needs in your class?
• Have you guided other students in your class how to study and live with their peers with special educational needs in school?
• Have you had some difficulties when you communicate with the students with special educational needs? And, how do you fix it? Does your school provide any help?

7a. Have you participated any training programmes of inclusive education or learning in the regular classroom?
(If yes)
• Can you tell me about your involvement?
• Do you think these training and policies of inclusive education or learning in the regular classroom can be generalised widely in Chinese schools? Are there any difficulties?
(If no)
• Do you want to join?
• What kinds of knowledge and support do you want from the relevant training?

7b. Let us talk about the policymaking.
• What factors do you think may impact on the policymaking in Chinese education?
• Are there any teachers, students, parents and some other stakeholders who may participate in the education policymaking?
• Do think the relevant policies about inclusive education or learning in the regular classroom would impact on the nine-year compulsory education? How?
8. Can you please finish the five-point Likert Scale based on your experience and understandings of Chinese education circumstance?

9. Can you talk about your opinion toward this index for inclusion, including whether schools need it or not; and whether these indicators are suitable for Chinese schools? And please, give some reasons.

10. According to the current situation, do you think the UNESCO’s definition of inclusive education can be integrated by your schools’ operation even the nine-year compulsory education stage in China? And please, give some reasons for yes or no.

11. Can you define inclusive education by your own words?
Appendix 2 The Interview Guide for Experts

1. What subject did you study in the University?

2. What kind of educational values or philosophies underpin the British/Chinese school’s daily operation?

3. What do you think the educational purpose in the primary school or secondary school normally in compulsory stage?

4. When and how did you first time know the idea of inclusive education?

5. How do you understand inclusive education?

   For British Expert:
   
   - Do you remember how you understand inclusive education at the beginning?
   - What about now?
   - What factors make you change or not change your understanding of it?

   For Chinese expert:
   
   - How do you understand the term of inclusive education?
   - What is your opinion about the inclusive education in Western world?

6. Which exclusive phenomena were the most common one in your country? What about now?

7. How do you treat the relationships between inclusive education and special education?

8a. For British expert

   What would be the advantages and disadvantages of inclusion in education in the UK?

8b. For Chinese expert

   - What do you think the practice of inclusive education in China?
   - What could we learn from other countries?

9. For Chinese expert

   Based on your experience, can you define inclusive education by your own words?
Appendix 3 The Questionnaire

Dear Participants:

Thank you for your time, I appreciate your participation. Please ensure each your answer is authentic based on your experience. This questionnaire will be anonymous, and the result will only be used in an academic research.

Personal experience of education

1. Do you want to be a teacher after your graduation?
   A. Yes    B. No    C. Not sure

   Reasons:

2. Have you heard of inclusive education?
   A. Yes    B. No    C. Not sure

3. Did you know learning in the regular classroom before this research?
   A. Understand    B. Know    C. No idea

4. Do you have any curricula relevant to inclusive education or LRC?
   A. Yes    B. No    C. Not sure

5. Were there any key schools or key classes when you studied at the compulsory education stage?
   A. Yes    B. No    C. Not sure

6. Did the classification of key school and non-key school impact on you?
   A. Yes    B. No    C. Not sure

Details:

7. Do you think the key schools still existing?
   A. Exist    B. Not exist    C. Not sure

8. Did you experience or see bullying in school? (If no, please skip Q.9)
   A. Yes    B. No    C. Not sure

9. Do you think that experience affect you negatively?
   A. Yes    B. No    C. Not sure

10. Do you think school bullying still existing?
    A. Exist    B. Not exist    C. Not sure

11. Did you experience or see isolation in school?
    A. Yes    B. No    C. Not sure

12. Have you labelled by your teachers or seen labelling during the compulsory education stage?
    A. Yes    B. No    C. Not sure

13. Do you think that experience affect you negatively?
A. Yes  B. No  C. Not sure
Details:

14. Did your teachers or parents prevent you from playing with ‘bad ‘students?  
A. Yes  B. No  C. Not sure

15. Do you think labelling still existing?  
A. Exist  B. Not exist  C. Not sure

16. Have you had experience of learning with some students with ‘special educational needs’ during the compulsory education stage? (If no, skip Q.17 and Q.18)  
A. Yes  B. No  C. Not sure

17. How do you think their learning status in your class?  
A. Endeavor  B. Lazy  C. Not sure

18. How do you think their social situation in your school?  
A. Gregarious  B. Asocial  C. Not sure

19. Do you think the mainstream school is an appropriate place for these students with special educational needs in compulsory education stage?  
A. Appropriate  B. Inappropriate  C. Not sure

20. What factors will impact on your understandings of a new concept? (Multiple choice)  
A. Lecturers’ explanation  B. Experts’ interpretation  C. Personal experience  D. Policies  
E. Others (specify)

Your information:

1. Gender:  
2. Age:  
3. Year of study:  
4. Major:

5. Family income monthly (unit: Chinese Yuan):  
A. Less than 5000  B. 5001-10000  C. 10001-15000  D. Over 15000  E. Prefer not to say

6. Where is your home location?  
A. City  B. Countryside

7. Which area did you study in compulsory education level?  
A. Urban area  B. Suburban area  C. Urban-rural & Rural area
Appendix 4 An example of interview transcript

Part one:

A: What was the most common exclusive phenomena in the UK, when you were a student?

B: I think it was the ranking of students through using notions of intelligence and ability to make some people feel they were better than others. And I went to a highly competitive secondary school. It was called Dulwich college. And actually, there is a Dulwich college in Beijing, it's a franchise in Beijing. I thought I would like to go back to my own school at some point and also visit the school in Beijing. And it would be a wonderful experience because I feel like that I spent my life recovering from my school system, which taught me that even within my own school, many students were worthless. And then outside my school, pretty well everyone was worthless. But we were not, we were the people who were worth something because we did well in school.

Part two:

A: how do you treat the relationships between inclusive education and special education?

B: I think special education is a way of not recognizing the barriers to learning and participation that exist within education settings and systems. So, it's a kind of fantasy. It's saying, oh, we have some problems in education. Maybe if we just focus on some students who are finding some lessons difficult or really don't learn to read and write then we can resolve the problems of the education system. I've said that special education is a failed experiment, but it's one that we constantly repeat and and is repeated around the world. It's a way of not looking at what needs to happen to improve education. If I were to answer honestly what needs to change to reduce the principal barriers to learning and participation in schools, it would be the nature of the curriculum. So, if we try to resolve educational problems by focusing on special education, we leave within schools around the world, a curriculum that is closely related to the curriculum that was in place in the nineteenth century. This shows the limits to our thinking. I'll give you another example. If you ask people who is mostly categorised as having special educational needs it turns out in virtually every country, everywhere I ask the question, it's boys.
Appendix 5 Likert Scale of the Index for Inclusion

维度 1-1：环境建设

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<td>每个人都应受到欢迎。</td>
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<td>师生之间相互尊重。</td>
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<td>教师与家长之间的通力合作。</td>
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<td>6.</td>
<td>教师与教委之间协作。</td>
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<td>7.</td>
<td>学校是社区和谐的典范。</td>
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<td>8.</td>
<td>学校鼓励学生去理解人与人之间的关系。</td>
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<td>9.</td>
<td>成人和儿童都应当对不同性别都有所认知并尊重。</td>
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<td>10.</td>
<td>学校及所在的社区应当相互扶持发展。</td>
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<td>11.</td>
<td>学校员工应当对学生在家里发生的事情有所联系和帮助。</td>
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维度 1-2：“全纳”价值观建设

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<td>学校应当发展“全纳”的观点。</td>
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<td>2.</td>
<td>学校应当鼓励尊重人权。</td>
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<td>3.</td>
<td>学校应当鼓励尊重一切地球上的事务。</td>
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<td>4.</td>
<td>“全纳”应当被看作是提高所有人的参与度。</td>
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<td>5.</td>
<td>对所有学生保持高的期待。</td>
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<td>6.</td>
<td>每个学生应当被平等看待。</td>
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<td>7.</td>
<td>学校应当注意各种类型的歧视问题。</td>
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<td>8.</td>
<td>学校需要提高各种非暴力的介入和解决争端的手段。</td>
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<td>学校应当培养儿童和成人的自信心。</td>
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考虑儿童以及成人的健康成长。

维度 2-1：为全体师生发展

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<td>学校拥有具有吸引力的发展计划。</td>
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<td>学校拥有针对领导层的“全纳”方式。</td>
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<td>3.</td>
<td>任命和晋升都是公平公正的。</td>
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<td>4.</td>
<td>员工具备专业知识并被恰当使用。</td>
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<td>5.</td>
<td>所有新员工都能被妥善安置。</td>
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<td>6.</td>
<td>学校为所有区域内学生提供上学的机会。</td>
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<td>7.</td>
<td>每个新学生在学校都能得到帮助。</td>
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<td>教与学可以被公平分配以用来帮助所有学生的学习。</td>
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9. 所有孩子时刻都能准备好面对不同的环境。

10. 学校为所有人提供相应的残疾人设施。

11. 教学楼与操场适合每一个学生的学习与活动参与。

12. 学校应当建立成一个节能良好环境。

13. 学校应当杜绝浪费。

维度 2-2：提供多元化支持

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<td>2. 学校员工应当接受专业的指导来面对多样的学生需求。</td>
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<td>3. 语言作为全校发展的一种资源。</td>
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4. 学校针对儿童的教育应当是持续性的。

5. 学校应当确保规定中关于“特殊教育需求人群”的规则也是有助于“全纳”发展的。

6. 学校的行为规范准则应当与课程学习的发展相关联。

7. 学校教育中的排斥现象逐步减少。

8. 儿童上学的障碍越来越少。

9. 校园霸凌现象越来越少。

维度 3-1：为所有人构建多样化课程

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<td>5. 孩子们考虑人群是如何以及为什么不停地迁移。</td>
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<td>6. 孩子们学习关于健康以及人际关系。</td>
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<td>7. 孩子们探究地球，太阳系以及宇宙。</td>
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<td>8. 孩子们了解地球上的所有生命。</td>
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<td>9. 孩子们了解能源。</td>
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<td>10. 孩子们学习关于交流以及交流的技巧。</td>
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<td>11. 孩子们参与并创造文学，艺术以及音乐当中。</td>
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<td>12. 孩子们学习操作并运用到发展自己的兴趣当中。</td>
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维度 3-2：共同策划和学习

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<td>1</td>
<td>学习活动的制定要考虑到所有儿童。</td>
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<td>应当鼓励儿童自信地批判性思考。</td>
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<td>儿童应当积极地融入到自己的学习当中。</td>
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<td>5</td>
<td>儿童之间应当相互学习。</td>
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<td>6</td>
<td>课程应当有助于理解人与人之间的相似与差异。</td>
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<td>7</td>
<td>评估应当鼓励所有儿童的成就。</td>
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<td>8</td>
<td>纪律建立在互相尊重的基础上。</td>
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<td>9</td>
<td>教师们应当一起计划，教学以及回顾。</td>
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<td>10</td>
<td>教师们开发共享资源来支持学习。</td>
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11. 助教帮助所有学生学习并参与其中。

12. 家庭作业的布置以便能够帮助学生的学习。

13. 课外的活动应当对所有学生全部开放。

14. 学校当地的资源应当是透明化的并且被充分使用。
Appendix 6 Papers and Papers in preparation

Accepted and published
2. The change of Chinese research on inclusive education and further direction (will be published: International Journal of Technology and Inclusive Education, Volume 9, Issue 2, ISSN 2047-0533).

Under review
1. The Status of Chinese inclusive education – compared with the broad perspective in the UK.
2. Initial consideration of evaluating inclusion in Chinese schools - learning from the Index for Inclusion.

In preparation
1. Inclusion in Chinese schools – a qualitative study based on in-service teachers’ reflections.
2. Pre-service teachers’ opinions on inclusive education in China.