

Teacher Education for Children with Disabilities Literature Review

For UNICEF REAP Project

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Edited Version February 2013

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Abbreviations

ACAMO	Association of the Blind and Partially Sighted in Mozambique
CAPP	Culturally Appropriate Policy and Practice
CBR	community-based rehabilitation
CEE/CIS	Central and Eastern Europe / Commonwealth of Independent States
CEF	Commonwealth Education Fund
CFA	continuous formative assessment
CFS	child-friendly schools
CIDA	Canadian International Development Agency
DPI	Disabled People's International
DPO	disabled people's organisation
EADSNE	European Agency for the Development of Special Needs Education
EAPRO	East Asia Pacific Regional Office
ECOSOC	United Nations Economic and Social Council
EENET	Enabling Education Network
EFA	Education for All
ETF	Education Training Foundation
IBE	International Bureau of Education
ICIDH	International Classification of Functioning, Disability and Health
IDA	International Disability Alliance
IMF	International Monetary Fund
INEE	Inter-agency Network for Education in Emergencies
KRT	key resource teacher
MDG	Millennium Development Goal
NGO	non-governmental organisation
NUT	National Union of Teachers
OECD	Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development
PDR	[Lao] People's Democratic Republic
PIED	Project Integrated Education for the Disabled[India]
PNG	Papua New Guinea
REAP	Rights, Education, and Protection
ROSA	Regional Office South Asia
SADPD	Secretariat of the African Decade of People with Disabilities
SBTD	school-based teacher development
SEN	special educational needs
SIDA	Swedish International Development Cooperation Agency
SNE	special needs education
SSA	Sarva Shiksha Abhiyan [India]
TARCO	The Americas and Caribbean Regional Office
UK	United Kingdom
UN	United Nations
UNCRPR	UN Convention on the Rights of Persons with Disabilities
UNDESA	United Nations Department of Economic and Social Affairs
UNESCO	United Nations Educational, Social and Cultural Organisation
UNICEF	The United Nations Children's Fund
UPIAS	Union of Physically Impaired Against Segregation
USA	United States of America
WASH	water, sanitation, hygiene
WHO	World Health Organization

1. Introduction

This literature review has been carried out for **UNICEF**, as part of a process of mapping strategies and identifying gaps in teacher education in relation to children with disabilities. The literature review is based on the ideas and concepts developed and agreed with UNICEF in the Inception Report to this project on 4th August 2012.¹

1.1. Methodology

The literature review was carried out by a team of researchers, under the guidance of the lead researcher/author, Richard Rieser from World of Inclusion. The team consisted of two literature reviewers, a research assistant and an editor, drawn from the global consultancy team of the Enabling Education Network (**EENET**). All team members and the lead researcher have extensive experience in the field of inclusive education, disability, teaching/teacher education, and researching and writing about these issues.

The team was brought together during the initial bidding process. This meant that it was possible to draw on their knowledge and experience when finalising the selection of research topics and questions presented in the Inception Report. The 15 selected topic areas are listed in Section 1.2.

The review process involved co-ordinated team work, in order to complete the large amount of work required by UNICEF in a relatively short time frame. The research assistant identified sources and retrieved documents from Internet searches and university libraries. These materials were catalogued in a spreadsheet, following an initial rapid content assessment. Soft copies of the materials were stored in shared folders to enable easy access for team members working in different locations. The materials were grouped into documents about teacher education; about inclusive education that referred to teacher education; and about educating and including children with disabilities in general.

The two literature reviewers analysed the catalogued documents to identify information relevant to the 15 research topics. This information, in the form of direct quotations and summaries, was entered into a matrix, enabling both reviewers to record information in the same format. Each reviewer also prepared a narrative commentary of their impressions of the key findings and highlighting noteworthy examples.

The lead researcher used these matrices and commentaries, and other relevant material not covered by the reviewers, to prepare this literature review report. It was felt necessary to provide an additional orientation section in the review report. Section 2 therefore traces the key ideas that have led to the paradigm shift contained in the United Nations Convention on the Rights of Persons with Disabilities (UNCRPD). Section 3 presents the main finding of the literature review.

In further discussions with UNICEF shortly before the completion date for the literature review, UNICEF highlighted their interest in the review covering practical tools on screening, methods used by teachers in regular classes, pedagogy, accessible information and environments, tools for developing inclusion, special education methods used within the mainstream and examples of promising and transferrable practice. These have been included in the review as far as possible (in

¹ See "Inception Report: Mapping, Scoping and Best Practices Exercise: Teacher Education for Children with Disabilities. Part of UNICEF Rights, Education, and Protection (**REAP**) project aimed at enhancing education and child protection systems to be sensitive, responsive and inclusive of children with disabilities. Funded by the Australian Government. Working Title -Educating Teachers for Inclusion (ETFI)".

Section 4), but given the time constraints these could not be covered as thoroughly as the topics agreed in the inception report.

Section 5 presents conclusions relating to: enabling environments; teaching, learning, curriculum and pedagogic processes; accessing learning environments; and capacity strengthening within teacher education. These are followed by a series of specific recommendations.

1.2. Research topics

The following areas of investigation were selected and approved by UNICEF and formed the main framework for the literature searches/reviewing and the structure for this review report.

1. **Concepts of inclusion and education of children with disabilities** (covering the underpinning rationale, philosophy and paradigm shifts)
2. **Context** (relationship to broader strategy at international, governmental and social levels)
3. **Models of teacher education** (how delivery is structured)
4. **Culture, values, belief, ethos, diversity** (both in relation to the teacher education environment and what teachers are expected to create. Includes accessibility, approaches to collaboration, and child protection, violence, bullying issues)
5. **Teacher educators** (who are they, how they are recruited, how are they trained and supported, attempts to increase diversity and the number of teachers with disabilities)
6. **Teacher trainees** (recruitment, retention, well-being, incentives, pay and conditions)
7. **Continuing professional development** (how it is delivered, where, when, methods, what is the most effective)
8. **Teacher education curriculum** (what is taught)
9. **Pedagogy** (how teachers teach; knowledge, skills and behaviours of teachers; and how they are taught to teach inclusively)
10. **Twin-track approach** (inclusive approach in general; and meeting reasonable accommodation, communication, support and individual needs of children with disabilities – how teachers work in and are trained to work within a twin-track context)
11. **Practice** (how teachers' practical skills and experience around inclusion are developed)
12. **Assessment** (indicators, criteria, overall methodology for assessing teachers/trainees; and how teachers are trained to assess children inclusively)
13. **Leadership** (role of leadership in supporting and developing an inclusive teaching force; how teachers are trained for leading inclusion)
14. **Change management** (barriers and solutions, key drivers for change, progressive benchmarks – in relation to the changes needed to bring about effective training of inclusive teachers)
15. **Involvement of disabled people's organisations (DPOs) and parent and community groups in this process of change.**

2. Orientation for the review

Before presenting the details of the literature review findings, this orientation section examines the context of the UNCRPD,² in particular **Article 24** which focuses on education, and highlights the origins of key questions posed by the review. This section further looks at the impact of the paradigm shift at the heart of the UNCRPD; the application of this paradigm shift to the education of children with disabilities; the need for a twin-track approach which promotes inclusion in general and the inclusion of children with disabilities; and at whether numbers matter.

2.1. The UNCRPD

Over 123 countries around the world and the European Union have ratified the UNCRPD, a binding legal instrument with a specific provision on the right to education and freedom from exploitation, violence and abuse for persons with disabilities. **Article 24** of the UNCRPD creates a clear obligation for governments to provide education to children, youth and adults with disabilities on an equal basis with other children, and to provide that education within an inclusive system. **Article 24** requires all educators to make reasonable accommodations, and provide the right support and individual programmes of study so that all children with disabilities can be educated to achieve their academic, creative and social potential.

In addition, **Article 8** requires all schools to “foster at all levels of the education system, including in all children from an early age, an attitude of respect for the rights of persons with disabilities”; and **Article 9** requires governments to develop full accessibility to environment, transportation, communication and information which includes their education systems.

Article 24(1) recognizes the right of persons with disabilities to education and requires an inclusive education system at all levels without discrimination and on the basis of equal opportunities directed to:

- a. The full development of human potential and sense of dignity and self-worth, and the strengthening of respect for human rights, fundamental freedoms and human diversity;
- b. The development by persons with disabilities of their personality, talents and creativity, as well as their mental and physical abilities, to their fullest potential;
- c. Enabling persons with disabilities to participate effectively in a free society.”

In realizing this right, **Article 24(2)** says States Parties shall ensure that:

- a) Persons with disabilities are not excluded from the general education system on the basis of disability, and that children with disabilities are not excluded from free and compulsory primary education, or from secondary education, on the basis of disability
- b) Persons with disabilities can access an inclusive, quality and free primary education and secondary education on an equal basis with others in the communities in which they live;
- c) Reasonable accommodation of the individual's requirements is provided;
- d) Persons with disabilities receive the support required, within the general education system, to facilitate their effective education;

² The UNCRPD was a result of eight Ad Hoc Meetings between 2001 and 2006. In December 2006 the General Assembly of the United Nations adopted the Convention. It came into force on 3 May 2008 when 20 countries had ratified it. For full details of which countries have ratified, and for the wording of the UNCRPD, see: www.un.org/disabilities/

e) Effective individualized support measures are provided in environments that maximize academic and social development, consistent with the goal of full inclusion.”

This raises the question: How are teachers being educated to achieve the general commitment to inclusion and 2a-e above?

The UNCRPD **Article 24(4)** has the following to say about teachers:

“In order to help ensure the realization of this right, States Parties shall take appropriate measures to employ teachers, including teachers with disabilities, who are qualified in sign language and/or Braille, and to train professionals and staff who work at all levels of education. Such training shall incorporate disability awareness and the use of appropriate augmentative and alternative modes, means and formats of communication, educational techniques and materials to support persons with disabilities.” (United Nations (UN), 2006)

The above paragraph suggests four key questions arising from this commitment:

- Most importantly, what is being done to train all teachers in disability awareness/equality? And then three others that need to be developed within a clear understanding of disability equality.
- What is being done to train and employ teachers who are qualified in sign language and Braille?
- What is being done to employ teachers with disabilities?
- What is being done to train all teachers in the use of a) appropriate augmentative and alternative modes, means and formats of communication, b) educational techniques and materials to support persons with disabilities?

Furthermore, **Article 32** on International Cooperation commits States Parties to providing financial and technical assistance for the realization of the above. There should also be “effective measures in this regard, between and among States and, as appropriate, in partnership with relevant international and regional organizations and civil society, in particular organizations of persons with disabilities. Such measures could include, inter alia:

- a) Ensuring that international cooperation, including international development programmes, is inclusive of and accessible to persons with disabilities;
- b) Facilitating and supporting capacity-building, including through the exchange and sharing of information, experiences, training programmes and best practices;**
- c) Facilitating cooperation in research and access to scientific and technical knowledge;
- d) Providing, as appropriate, technical and economic assistance, including by facilitating access to and sharing of accessible and assistive technologies, and through the transfer of technologies”.

The above commitment is very relevant to examining bi-lateral and multi-lateral programmes supporting the development of teacher capacity for educating children with disabilities.

The questions we are asking now are not new questions. In 1994, 94 countries and 20 international agencies got together to ensure children with disabilities were not left out of the then relatively new commitment to Education for All (EFA) (UNESCO 1990). The Framework for Action adopted in Salamanca 18 years ago raised many of the points being addressed by the current literature review. For instance it states that:

“Appropriate preparation [which it subsequently specifies] of all educational personnel stands out as a key factor in promoting progress towards inclusive schools. Furthermore, the importance of recruiting teachers with disabilities who can serve as role models for children with disabilities is increasingly recognized”.³

Despite agreements made at the Salamanca conference, the inclusion of children with disabilities in mainstream education school systems, with some notable exceptions of promising practice, has remained an elusive goal. There are many reasons, but prime amongst them has been a failure of political will to recognise the nature and resilience of the oppression people with disabilities experience around the world in many different cultural manifestations. The current literature review therefore starts by examining different conceptions of disability and their impact on educational thinking and practice.

2.2. Impact of the paradigm shift at the heart of the UNCRPD

“A paradigm is an ideology or frame of reference. It is the way one perceives, understands or interprets a topic or issue....Paradigms are so ingrained they seem ‘natural’. They are the primary source of attitudes and actions” (Baglieri and Shapiro, 2012, p.20).

It is hard to over-emphasise the importance of the paradigm shift contained at the heart of the UNCRPD. This literature review is grounded on the understanding that the paradigm shift underlying the UNCRPD is central to understanding how to educate children with disabilities. The shift – from a traditional/medical model approach to a social/human rights model – needs to be clearly understood and reflected in education. The UNCRPD marks a change in attitudes and approaches to persons with disabilities. It takes to a new level the movement away from viewing persons with disabilities as ‘objects’ of charity, medical treatment and social protection, and towards viewing persons with disabilities as ‘subjects’ with rights, who are capable of claiming those rights and making decisions about their lives based on their free and informed consent, and who are active members of society (UN, 2006;⁴ UNDESA, 2012).

The paradigm shift was first formulated by Union of Physically Impaired Against Segregation (UPIAS, 1976),⁵ an organization of disability activists. They asserted: “Disability is something imposed on top of our impairment by the way we are unnecessarily isolated and excluded from full participation in society. Disabled people are therefore an oppressed group in society” (ibid, p.4) . By 1981, Disabled People’s International (DPI) had adopted this approach for all disabled people, making the strong distinction between impairment and disability. DPI was the first international organisation controlled and run by disabled people (Drieger, 1989. p.2). Barnes develops this point stating “Increasingly in recent years disabled people have come to recognise that the term 'disability' represents a complex system “of social restrictions imposed on people with impairments by a highly discriminatory society” (Barnes, 1991, p.1)

Drawing on DPI’s work, Barnes puts forward a two-fold definition:

³ *The Salamanca Statement and Framework for Action on Special Needs Education. Adopted by the World Conference on Special Needs Education: Access and Quality Salamanca, Spain, 7-10 June 1994*, United Nations Educational, Scientific and Education Cultural Organization Ministry of and Science Spain, p.27

⁴ The Treaty wording was published once it came in to force May 2008 but is referenced as United Nations 2006 <http://treaties.un.org/doc/publication/UNTS/Volume%202515/v2515.pdf>

⁵ The original document (1975) was discussed with the Disability Alliance and this discussion appears on the Leeds University Disability Archive dated 1976.

“Impairment is the functional limitation within the individual caused by physical, mental or sensory impairment.

Disability is the loss or limitation of opportunities to take part in the normal life of the community on an equal level with others due to physical and social barriers” (ibid, p.2).

Barnes points out the difference between these definitions and those proposed by DPI is that DPI uses the terms 'disability' and 'handicap' in place of 'impairment' and 'disability', because of their wider currency at the international level. In some languages direct translations of the word 'impairment' have a profoundly negative meaning, but the difference in meaning is clear in both formulations.

Although the Ad Hoc Committee of the UNCRPD, in which both the International Disability Alliance (IDA) and DPI and many other DPOs were involved, chose not to define disability specifically when it drafted the UNCRPD, they did ensure the entire UNCRPD had a strong steer towards this social model thinking. They specifically recognised this in the **Preamble** and **Article 1**.

“Recognizing that disability is an evolving concept and that disability results from the interaction between persons with impairments and attitudinal and environmental barriers that hinders their full and effective participation in society on an equal basis with others”,
(Preamble)

“Persons with disabilities include those who have long-term physical, mental, intellectual or sensory impairments which in interaction with various barriers may hinder their full and effective participation in society on an equal basis with others.” (Article 1, UN, 2006)

As Oliver (1990, p. xiv) declares:

“All disabled people experience disability as social restriction, whether these restrictions occur as a consequence of inaccessible built environments, questionable notions of intelligence and social competence, the inability of the general public to use sign language, the lack of reading material in Braille or hostile public attitudes to people with non-visible disabilities”.

In the United Kingdom (UK), formulations and practice grew out of the thinking of the Disability Movement, which saw disability as a socially and historically created oppression and developed the social model of disability (UPIAS, 1976; Finkelstein, 1980; Oliver, 1990; Barnes, 1991; Morris, 1991; Oliver and Barnes, 1998). In the United States (USA) similar concerns converged to create a new interest in disability studies (Longmore and Umansky (eds) 2001; Albrecht, Seelman and Bury (eds), 2001; Gartner and Joe (eds), 1987; Crewe and Zola, 1983). The proceedings of the first DPI Congress (1981), cited in Morris (1991), highlight that organizations of disabled people from around the world had been struggling over the same period for independent organisations, controlled and run by themselves based on the above thinking. Joshua Malinga from Zimbabwe, talking about the reaction to them setting up their own organisation in Zimbabwe and worldwide with DPI, said:

“They refused to see the difference between an organisation of the disabled and one that is for the disabled. They refused to see a difference between a service organisation and a political organisation fighting for the human rights of the disabled (people)” (ibid, p.15).

2.3. Application of the paradigm shift to the education of children with disabilities

Such thinking has now been widely applied to the education of children with disabilities. Two disabled people, a teacher and an activist, drew these arguments together to influence teachers in their thinking about 'disabled children':

“Disabled people believe that our problems as adults will continue to be exacerbated by the non-disabled community, unless the education system accepts its responsibility towards us. We believe it to be our right to be part of the best, most flexible mainstream education system possible in order to prepare us for a useful active adult life within the mainstream. We also believe it is a right for all non-disabled children to grow up informed, unafraid and close to disabled people and to be able to maintain those relationships without enforced segregation at any point”. (Rieser and Mason, 1990, p.8)

Using the contrast between the medical and social models, these authors subsequently produced a pack that was used to train a generation of teachers in the UK (10,000 copies were distributed to teachers and teacher educators). Commenting on attempts at the time to mainstream or integrate children with disabilities, the authors stated: “It is still all about assessing the individual, rather than assessing how much schools have removed the barriers to inclusion that we have inherited from the past” (Mason and Rieser, 1994, p.12). They point out:

“The medical model of disability sees the disabled person as the problem. We are to be adapted to fit into the world as it is. If this is not possible, then we are shut away in some specialised institution or isolated at home, where only our most basic needs are met” (ibid., p.13). They further highlighted that: “The social model of disability identifies prejudice and discrimination in institutions, policies, structures and environments of society as the principal reason for our exclusion, rather than the particular impairment of the individual” (ibid., p.19).

Examining the sociology of special education, Tomlinson (1982), Barton and Tomlinson (eds, 1984) and Barton (1997) took a similar approach, alongside many others, including Skritic (1995), Ballard (1996) and Biklen, Ferguson and Ford (1989). For instance, Barton stated:

“We were concerned with developing an approach to special education in which social interests rather than individual differences and deficits were to be a fundamental focus of analysis.... Particular criticism was also focused on the significant influence of forms of psychological thinking on practice in relation to the identification and treatment of disabled children and adults. This included challenging particular forms of psychological reductionism and the emphasis given to individualistic, within-the child conceptions legitimised) for example, by assumptions concerning the significance of IQ”.(Barton, 2003, p.6)

Susan Peters (2004), a disabled academic, uses a similar approach to education in her review for the World Bank, in which she assesses progress towards EFA. She states:

“It is important to recognize the distinction between impairment and disablement....Specifically, the **social model of disablement** focuses on environment. The **medical model of disability** focuses on an individual who needs fixing—either by therapy, medicine, surgery or special treatment” (Peters, 2004, pp.7-8).

The importance of this conception was also argued by Len Barton (2003) in his inaugural lecture as Professor of Inclusive Education:

“The social model approach provides a radical alternative to other dominant perspectives. Disability is not viewed as a tragedy, a punishment, or the result of some sin(s) of the parent(s), or the individual concerned, it is not a sickness in need of a cure, it is not a subject for charity and sentimental, patronising and dependency-creating attitudes and relationships. It is a human rights issue” (Barton, 2003, p.10).

Concerned that this conception is over simplistic, Barton goes on to qualify but not alter the centrality of social model thinking:

“Disabled people are not a homogeneous group. The difficulties and response to being disabled are influenced by class, race, gender, sexuality and age factors. These can cushion or compound the experience of discrimination and oppression. Some individuals experience simultaneous oppression, thereby experiencing differential impacts on internal oppression, self-pride and collective identification” (ibid., p.11).

To underline the vital importance of this repositioning of the paradigm with respect to disability, Barton quotes Rachel Hurst, one of the leading global campaigners for this change:

“For disabled people in particular, the interaction between our right to individual freedom and choice and control over our own lives and our rights to non-discrimination and inclusion measures is crucial. Our exclusion has been so systematic and rigorous that there is a need for fundamental changes to society in order to support our inclusion.” (Hurst,1996, p.3).

Much of the practice towards children with disabilities characterised as ‘special educational needs’ is related to the old paradigm, viewing the disabled child as being in deficit, not ‘normal’. Various methods and tools, such as IQ tests, have been developed from a medical model perspective that reinforces the unequal treatment of people with disabilities. Indeed the IDA,⁶ representing one billion disabled people around the world, forcefully made this point in its position paper to the Annual Ministerial Review of the UN Economic and Social Council (ECOSOC) in July 2011:

“Special education in developed countries, but also in developing countries, can help create and reiterate negative stereotypes towards students and persons with disabilities. Additionally, the removal of children with disabilities from the mainstream education denies students without disabilities access to the experience of disability, which in turn perpetuates ignorance and stigma. The social model of disability reflected in the CRPD, recognizing the combination of a person’s impairment situated in a discriminating society, requires changing the social system, which includes the education system. Special education today reproduces the discriminatory social system by reinforcing the assumption that individuals with specific characteristics do not fit in society (e.g., cannot hear while society thrives on auditive sources) and thus places them in separate situations” (IDA, 2011, p.4).

⁶ The International Disability Alliance is the global Body representing disabled people’s organisations around the world. It is made up of Disabled Peoples’ International (DPI) (www.dpi.org), Down Syndrome International (DSI) (www.ds-int.org), Inclusion International (II) (www.inclusion-international.org), International Federation of Hard of Hearing People (IFHOH) (www.ifhoh.org), World Blind Union (WBU) (www.worldblindunion.org), World Federation of the Deaf (www.wfdeaf.org), World Federation of the Deafblind (WFDB) (www.wfdb.org), World Network of Users and Survivors of Psychiatry (WNUSP) (www.wnusp.net), Arab Organization of Disabled People (AODP), European Disability Forum (EDF) (www.edf-feph.org), The Latin American Network of Non-Governmental Organizations of Persons with Disabilities and their Families (RIADIS) (www.riadis.net), Pacific Disability Forum (PDF) (www.pacificdisability.org).

Many of the skills, methods and techniques developed under special educational needs still have a role to play, but their conceptual underpinning, application, context and focus need to change to fit the new paradigm.

Article 24 purposefully does not mention special/separate education. Today, the CRPD requires that the whole education system needs to cover diverse needs of the students, which equates having a fully student-centered approach. The existence and strong divide between two parallel systems (special/separate education and 'mainstream' education), remains one of the key barriers in the education of children with disabilities, particularly with disabilities other than visual and/or hearing disabilities" (IDA, 2011, p.3).

As the IDA document goes on to point out:

"Fortunately, the paradigm in education is shifting and there is a new focus on the key principles that (i) all children should have the same access to education; that (ii) children learn best when learning together; and (iii) recognizing and celebrating diversity and enhancing opportunities for equal participation" (ibid, p.3).

This new paradigm in education is characterised as the process of changing the structures, organisation, learning, curriculum and assessment of the school to fit the diversity of pupils, rather than changing the pupil to fit the school, and gives us the following definition. Inclusive education is:

"a process of addressing and responding to the diversity of needs of all learners through inclusive practices in learning, cultures and communities and reducing exclusion within and from education. It involves changes and modifications in content, approaches structures and strategies, with a common vision which covers all children of the appropriate age range and a conviction that it is the responsibility of the regular system to educate all children" (UNESCO, 2005a, p.13).

This concept has been increasingly applied to all excluded groups of children with considerable success, e.g. girls and linguistic minority children, as demonstrated in the Global Monitoring Reports (UNESCO, 2010). UNESCO Global Monitoring Reports rarely mention disability, e.g. the 2012 edition only giving 4 mentions. This may be put down to lack of data, but often children with disabilities and their needs have been marginalised within the global movement based on EFA and the fulfilment of Millennium Development Goal 2. A number of informed advocates and researchers raised similar points.

Peters (2004), having demonstrated through her global review that inclusive education works, is cost-effective and can be successful where properly implemented and supported, identifies that:

"major barriers to the provision of quality education for children with disabilities in all educational contexts include the lack of early identification and intervention services, negative attitudes, exclusionary policies and practices, inadequate teacher training, particularly training of all regular teachers to teach children with diverse abilities, inflexible curriculum and assessment procedures, inadequate specialist support staff to assist teachers of special and regular classes, lack of appropriate teaching equipment and devices, and failure to make modifications to the school environment to make it fully accessible" (Peters, 2004, p.52).

Connie Laurin-Bowie of Inclusion International (2009), identifies in a survey of 750 teachers and 400 parents from 75 countries that EFA is not working for children with disabilities, especially those with

intellectual impairments. The study defines quality inclusive education as requiring: positive and enabling attitudes for inclusion, supportive and trained teachers, adaptable curriculum and assessment, and accessible and supportive schools. The conclusion of the study was that none of these is sufficiently in place, 15 years after Salamanca, and “the consequence is entrenched educational exclusion” (ibid, p.88).

Rieser (2012), in a wide reaching assessment of the development of inclusive education across the 54 Commonwealth countries and beyond, notes that, despite islands of good practice, there is an overall failure to include children with disabilities in EFA initiatives and a feeling that initiatives are stalling, now linked to the global economic crisis. New ideas on treating education as a commodity in a competitive global market place are gaining ground, whereas inclusion thrives on collaboration and caring for each other (ibid, p.19).

Forlin (2012b, p.9) concurs with this danger, despite having been involved with a successful state inclusion project in Hong Kong, identifies a big increase in private education in Asia:

“As their role is to provide education which is grounded on achieving high examination results, and their existence is predicated on a financial model, there is no incentive for them to accommodate the needs of learners who require educational support that may be costly, and who may lower the standards on examination results”.

Slee (2011), based on his wide research experience in the field and having been a Director of Education in Queensland seeking to implement inclusion, demonstrates the connection between the macro-economic approach of the World Bank and International Monetary Fund (IMF), and the growth of neo-conservatism and consumerism, and the halting of progress towards genuine inclusive education. Slee argues there is still time to counter this trend and what is needed is “an acknowledgement of exclusion and a determination to dismantle it now....All must share in this and this will create difficulty, struggle, tension and new productive relationships” (ibid, p.176).

2.4. The need for a twin track approach to inclusion in general and inclusion of children with disabilities

2.4.1. What is a twin-track approach?

In a twin-track approach (in the context of inclusive education), the first track focuses on the broader purpose of examining systemic and organisational change for equity as a whole, while the second track focuses on the specifics of including pupils with disabilities.

2.4.2. Why is it needed?

Let down by EFA

EFA initiatives and UNESCO’s broad brush approach to inclusive education for all marginalised groups have, by and large failed, to reach children with disabilities (as demonstrated by the literature in the previous sections). Therefore, a number of authors have argued for a twin-track or disability-focused approach to stop the high drop-out rates, lack of completion of basic education and the now growing, and disproportionate, number of children with disabilities not in primary or basic education (Peters et al, 2005; Inclusion International, 2009; Rieser, 2012). Authors such as these argue that only by using this method of recognising difference is there a likelihood of it being addressed.

Peter Mittler(2005 p29) in analysing the role of the United Nations, it’s Conventions and it’s organisations and their impact on the inclusion of children with disabilities recognises that

Salamanca(UNESCO, 1994),which called on all governments to enroll all children in mainstream schools, was a corrective to children with disabilities absence after the first commitment to Education for All at Jomtien(UNESCO 1990). This led UNESCO, for 10 years, prioritising the publication of useful guidance and case studies (UNESCO, 1993,1994/2004,1999,2001a,2001b,2002,2004,UNESCO Bangkok 2004). Mittler (ibid), observing that disabled people and NGO's have lobbied hard for their interests to be included in generic initiatives, 'but have met with only limited success'.(p24). As a response Mittler points to an emphasis is on a twin or multi-track approach.

“In which disability advocates campaign simultaneously for their full inclusion in both generic and disability-focussed instruments and initiatives” (p24)

Despite in the eight succeeding years having achieved the UNCRPD, disability advocates and NGO's are still faced with exclusion and specific disability issues being subsumed in the wider push for Education for All and general inclusion. It appears the twin track approach is still as needed.

UNESCO Bangkok (2009) in reviewing the slow progress in their region towards the inclusion of children with disabilities say :-

“Persons with disabilities, including children with disabilities, still face rejection and discrimination in most aspects of their daily lives. They experience difficulty in accessing services, including education, and participating in community life. The data on the numbers of children with disabilities estimated to be in school bear witness to this fact. At the same time there is a growing awareness that a human rights-based approach must be adopted when national governments address the issues of persons with disabilities. Many countries are still in very early stages of making this transition and patterns of legislation in different countries reflect the uneven provisions. During this period of transition it may be necessary to adopt what is commonly referred to as a “twin track” approach to ensuring the rights of persons – and children – with disabilities. This approach calls for both general and specific legislation to recognize, protect and promote the rights of such persons”.(p39)

Miles and Singal (2010) explore the two related agendas of EFA and inclusive education. They argue that opportunities currently exist internationally to align inclusive education and EFA more closely in the interests of developing more coherent and sustainable responses to the educational needs of children with disabilities. Having identified some worrying misunderstandings of inclusion in the setting up segregated provision they conclude:

“This resulted in the continued chasm where the needs of disabled people remained outside mainstream concerns, primarily due to their inability or reluctance to engage with mainstream efforts, and on the other hand, the inability or ignorance of mainstream efforts to incorporate disability-related needs within their work. It is likely to be impossible to establish common ground on this issue. While many in the field argue that there needs to be a focus on 'all', there is arguably still a need for a particular focus on disability issues – sometimes called a 'twin-track' approach” (Miles and Singal, 2010, p.11).

Peters, Johnstone, and Ferguson (2005) argue for a Disability Rights in Education Model after identifying largely untested Northern formulations of inclusive education, and lack of consumer involvement. They point out that:

“Inclusive Education appears to mean different things to different planners and developers, and is translated into yet more varied concepts and practices by practitioners at school levels (Peters, 2003, pp. 2–3). The basic concepts and philosophy of Inclusive Education envisioned by disabled people, as one of the largest minority groups excluded from schooling — documented

in the United Nations Standard Rules, various declarations by Disabled People's International, International Disability Alliance, and reports emanating from the disabled people's organizations (e.g. Inclusion International) — are often lost in these translations" (ibid, p.141).

"The challenge of planning inclusive education within local contexts is to channel disability-affirming local norms while maintaining universal norms of universal educational rights agreed upon by signatories of Education for All.... we develop a Disability Rights in Education Model (DREM) derived from the input of disabled people that attempts to provide a cross-cultural framework for evaluating Inclusive Education programmes. While the focus of the DREM is on disability, this population is inclusive of those in poverty, girls and other marginalized groups. Specifically, disability cuts across race, gender, class, ethnicity and other characteristics. This is not to say that the needs of students with disabilities trump other characteristics, but that a model focusing on disability needs may have relevance for other disenfranchised groups" (ibid, p.142).

The EFA Fast Track Initiative (now called Global Partnership for Education) was analysed by World Vision (2007), and found to be 'seriously wanting', with regards to planning to meet the needs of children with disabilities. There is some more recent evidence that those charged with implementing this initiative have grasped the necessity of including children with disabilities.⁷ However, given that the World Bank is part of the UN, the fact that this is still being discussed six years after the UNCRPD was adopted shows the depth of the resistance and the need for strong advocacy for the rights of children with disabilities within any moves towards EFA. In these circumstances it appears a twin-track approach is necessary. Based on the parameters of the social model and Article 24, this should complement moves towards inclusive education more generally and not lead to an increase in separate special needs provision. The UN (2012) in setting the terms of debate to develop the Post-2015 situations signals that people with disabilities and their education are part of the inclusive future envisaged.

Opertti, Brady Duncomb(2009) attempt to reposition EFA, moving it from a focus on quantity (enrolment figures) to quality inclusion for all. They suggest four areas of concern or perspectives:

- inclusive education needs to be understood as presence, participation and achievement
- there needs to be a never-ending search for better ways of responding to diversity
- the identification and removal of barriers to learning and participation is needed
- there needs to be prioritization of policies and programmes towards learners who are at risk of marginalization, exclusion or underachievement.

The Department for International Development (2000) in the UK has suggested because disability often has been left out of development thinking it is necessary to adopt a twin track approach. Firstly to include disability issue in all development issues and secondly to have a specific track around impairment specific issues.(p11)

The move from specific to broad approaches... and back again?

The UNESCO (2009) 'Policy Guidelines on Inclusion in Education' were developed through global consultation in 2007-08 and at the 2008 UNESCO International Bureau of Education (IBE) Conference

⁷ Bob Prouty, Head of Global Partnership for Education (GPE) speaking at 'Salamanca Fifteen Years On' in 2009 and in September 2012 at the launch of 'Global Partnership for Children with Disabilities' in New York, agreed that the needs of children with disabilities should feature throughout the work of these initiatives and said the GPE Board would be examining a Disability Strategy at its meeting in Autumn 2012. The urgency for this was underlined by a contribution by Natasha Graham of GPE at the same conference saying that recently GPE had paid to build 600 new schools in Bangladesh, but had not insisted they be accessible.

in Geneva. The guidelines feature an increasingly broad remit, and represent the move from a predominant, though not exclusive, focus on special educational needs (Salamanca, 1994) to one that now speaks of encompassing all learners.

“Inclusion is thus seen as a process of addressing and responding to the diversity of needs of all children, youth and through increasing 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 system to educate all children” (UNESCO, 2009, p.8).

Such an ethical and moral stance fits with universal human rights, but needs breaking down into more practical guidance to be understood by educators.

UNESCO (2009, p.5) rightly identifies that “Children with disabilities are still combating blatant educational exclusion – they account for one third of all out-of school children”. There are also very high drop-out rates among children with disabilities, as curricula and pedagogy are not designed to accommodate their needs. For instance, the World Bank (2007) found that children with disabilities in India are five times more likely to drop out of school in rural areas than children from Dhalit (lowest caste) backgrounds. The World Report on Disability reports the gap in primary completion between people with and without disabilities is found across all age groups and is statistically significant (WHO, 2011, p.206) Such figures serve to reinforce the idea that EFA and broad notions of inclusive education have not effectively reached children with disabilities.

As such, there are signs of another shift, this time towards recognising the need to retain some specialist disability focus within the inclusive education paradigm. For instance O’Gorman (2010) examined inclusion in Ireland (a country that has only in recent years moved to an inclusion programme). The author argues that all teachers need specific training on the needs of children with disabilities in order to facilitate their inclusion, because:

“the current education system is exclusionary and ... a change towards a more inclusive system will require a change in the regular class teacher’s unitary strategy where all students, irrespective of individual difference, are given the same educational experience” (ibid, p.41).

One could add that the on-going oppression faced by children and adults with disabilities, as outlined in the sections above, provides extra reason for taking an impairment-specific approach, *in addition to* (but not instead of) the general thrust of an inclusive pedagogy and curriculum encompassing the diversity of all learners.

Providing the educational support needed by disabled learners

In light of the above, a ‘second track’ that focuses on a particular group of marginalized children, starts to gain credence. This track is developed to provide appropriate welcome, access, support, accommodations and programmes (including Braille, sign language, alternative and augmented communication, differentiation and other teaching and learning methods) for successful quality education in the local mainstream age-appropriate classroom for children with disabilities.

Arguably, therefore, effective teacher education for inclusion must also fully cover both tracks. As Peters et al (2005, p.146) state:

“Without accommodations and adaptations and compensatory measures, the education of disabled children and students is likely to fail. These adaptations include physical considerations (ramps, appropriately sized and positioned desks, and adaptive equipment such as letter boards, number lines, word and picture ‘scaffolding’, as well as language and print adaptations (sign language interpretation, Braille materials, easy read and pictograms), social considerations such as opportunities for interaction with peers and positive attitudes towards disability and, finally, instructional adaptations to accommodate diverse learning styles.”

The education chapter of the World Health Organization (WHO) Guidelines on CBR (community-based rehabilitation) gives guidance and examples of the relationship between the education sector and CBR, and again reiterates the importance of a twin-track approach for children with disabilities. It demonstrates that CBR:

“is a vital component of the comprehensive, twin track, system wide strategy that is needed. No matter how well teachers are trained, and how inclusive the school environment is, if the child with a disability is not supported in their home environment, if they do not have access to appropriate rehabilitation, aids and equipment (if needed), and if the community and family are not empowered and involved, then the child will either not even get to school, or will not be supported enough to stay there” (WHO, 2010, pp. 4-5).

Education is a fundamental human right and is widely recognized as a means to develop human capital, to improve economic performance, and to enhance people’s capabilities and choices (Epstein, 2010). Yet quality inclusive education for most students with disabilities remains elusive, despite sufficient islands of good practice globally to show that it is achievable. Diversity in the classroom benefits all children by improving learning and understanding and addressing stereotypes. A growing number of studies demonstrate the effectiveness of inclusive education for children with disabilities (Ferguson, 1992; Baker, Wang and Walberg, 1994; Lipsky and Gartner, 1997; Ainscow 1999; Allan, 1999; Dyson and Forlin, 1999; Armstrong, Armstrong and Barton, 2000; Sailor, 2002; Thomas and Glenny, 2002; Vinneau, 2002; Peters, 2003; Mittler, 2003 MacArthur, 2009; Mitchell, 2008 and 2010).

But is inclusive education yet sufficiently focusing on both tracks of a twin-track approach? In 2007/2008 a series of national and regional seminars was held in the run up to the 2008 48th International Conference on Education organised in Geneva by UNESCO IBE (2008). The conference was attended by 154 states (Opertti and Belalcazar, 2008). At the conference UNESCO promoted a broad definition of inclusive education to include all excluded groups of children. Several initiatives arising from this do genuinely seek ways of integrating the arguments about including children with disabilities into the development of new curricula and pedagogy (UNESCO Policy Guidelines on Inclusion in Education, 2009). Renato Opertti and his team at UNESCO IBE have also been developing training for educationalists and administrators on implementing a new inclusive curriculum and inclusive pedagogy.⁸ However, if the oppressive fears and concerns generally held about people with disabilities are not sufficiently addressed, then this may not work. A specific focus on disability issues within the wider training may be needed.

UNESCO’s focus on a ‘broad brush’ approach to inclusive education raises a key issue: inclusive education proponents need to be careful that they do not side-line the specific challenges of disability discrimination and segregation, and of ensuring that children with disabilities are fully included in the education process.

⁸ See: www.ibe.unesco.org/en/areas-of-action/what-we-do/capacity-development/training-courses.html

For example, speaking at the Geneva conference, Ainscow (2008, p.71) stressed that inclusive education rests on four equally important areas:

“Inclusion is a process. That is to say, inclusion has to be seen as a never-ending search to find better ways of responding to diversity. It is about learning how to live with difference, and, learning how to learn from difference. In this way differences come to be seen more positively as a stimulus for fostering learning, amongst children and adults.

*Inclusion is concerned with the identification and removal of barriers. Consequently, it involves collecting, collating and evaluating information from a wide variety of sources in order to plan for improvements in policy and practice. It is about using evidence of various kinds to stimulate creativity and problem-solving,

* Inclusion is about the presence, participation and achievement of all students. Here ‘presence’ is concerned with where children are educated, and how reliably and punctually they attend; ‘participation’ relates to the quality of their experiences whilst they are there and, therefore, must incorporate the views of the learners themselves;

*and ‘achievement’ is about the outcomes of learning across the curriculum, not merely test or examination results.

* Inclusion involves a particular emphasis on those groups of learners who may be at risk of marginalisation, exclusion or underachievement. This indicates the moral responsibility to ensure that those groups that are statistically most at risk are carefully monitored, and that, where necessary, steps are taken to ensure their presence, participation and achievement within the education system.”

These are all vital dimensions of inclusion. However, for the Disabled People’s Movement (IDA, 2011) it is vital that there is an *explicit* focus on the presence of children with disabilities with their non-disabled peers, so that they can access quality teaching and learning and social relationships with these peers. While proponents like Ainscow are *implying* such presence, the language of a broad approach to inclusive education is not making it explicit, and is thus leaving room for the disability focus to be side-lined.

We clearly still need the twin track approach because disability discrimination remains widespread based on negative values and attitudes. Unless initiatives such as EFA and Child Friendly Schools⁹ fully embrace inclusive education for all children with disabilities, and unless we develop teacher education for all teachers that equips them not just with general inclusive approaches, but also specific knowledge and skills about meeting the needs of children with disabilities in inclusive settings, there remains the danger that more children with disabilities will drop out, be segregated or not get an education.

Summary

The UNCRPD, and the Disabled Peoples Movement who fought for and largely drafted the Convention, requires us to have a specific focus on the inclusion of children with disabilities. This is part of a wider move for universal education as represented in EFA and the Millennium Development Goals and by UNESCO IBE. This move is threatened by on-going oppressive stigma, stereotypes and disabilism,¹⁰ and by the newer shifts toward a market-based education system with a focus on results from standardized testing and quality rather than access.

⁹ See section 3.1.3 for more information on child-friendly schools

¹⁰ Disabilism (abilism) is discriminatory, oppressive or abusive behaviour arising from the belief that disabled people are inferior to others, or through not acknowledging that disabled people are equal and taking reasonable measures to protect their rights accordingly (www.prettysimple.co.uk/blog/index.php/2009/05/defining-disabilism/)

What is needed is access and quality within a twin-track approach. This would consist of a morally and ethically based push for EFA in one strand. The other strand would ensure that education is evaluated and monitored on the basis of its success at including (welcoming and supporting) children with disabilities within their local school, by identifying the barriers they face (in the environment, attitudes, organisation, teaching and learning) and in addressing these.

Barriers need to be addressed through both structural change (e.g. universal design, curriculum and assessment change, accessible materials and communications, access to Braille and sign language); and individual reasonable accommodations, support (including peer support), and modifications to learning programmes, curricula and assessments, so children can develop their academic and social potential.

This is different from integration or mainstreaming where the pupil with disabilities is present, but little is changed or adapted, so the child must fit into a school that is largely unresponsive to his/her needs. It is also different from special schools or classes where the pupil is segregated from pupils without disabilities. So it is important that the 'individualised response' track of the twin-track approach is not mis-interpreted as a call for retention of or a return to segregated special education.[See Section Special Education].

2.5. Do numbers matter?

Many children with disabilities remain invisible, in both their local communities and their schools, due to stigma and stereotyped views that lead to their isolation and exclusion. Local censuses in many countries grossly underestimate and under-enumerate the numbers of children with various impairments, often presenting figures in the range of 1–3%. Recent work by the World Bank, drawing on surveys carried out by the UN Statistics Agency, (WHO, 2011 p.30) would suggest that 6% of children in developing countries are children with disabilities and 15% of those over 15 years of age are people with disabilities – much higher figures than the local censuses. Such significant under-reporting has had a knock-on effect on government planning and on how international agencies view EFA. Accurately estimating how many disabled children there are in the world is not possible, but if we use a conservative estimate of 5% of all children, then based on 2005 population figures (UN, 2005) there would be about 91 million disabled children aged 0-14 years – over 10 million in developed countries and 81 million in less developed countries. Adding in children between the ages of 15 and 18 would make that total exceed 100 million.

Household data in Malawi, Namibia, Zambia, and Zimbabwe show that between 9% and 18% of children of age five years or older without a disability had never attended school, but between 24% and 39% of children with a disability had never attended (Loeb and Eide, 2004; Eide, van Rooy and Loeb, 2003; Eide and Loeb, 2006; and Eide, 2003).

Children with disabilities are among the most stigmatized and excluded, often facing marginalization within their own family, community, school and in the wider society, according to Filmer (2008), who analysed household surveys in 14 low income countries. In a self-perpetuating circle, the social exclusion and isolation of children with disabilities leads to poor health and education outcomes.

There are no reliable global figures for the impact of disability on schooling. In India, close to 40% of disabled children were not enrolled in school, compared to between 8% and 10% of children in Scheduled Tribes or Castes. The overall enrolment was 90% (World Bank, 2007, p.16).

The Global Monitoring Report 2010 demonstrated the impact of disability on school attendance. In Malawi and Tanzania, having an impairment doubles the probability of never having attended school. In Bulgaria and Romania, net enrolment rates for children aged 7-15 were over 90% but only 58% for

children with disabilities. There are marked variations in school attendance according to the type of impairments. In Burkina Faso just 10% of children with hearing and speech impairment were in school in 2006 compared to slightly over 45% on children without disabilities, but 22% of visually impaired and 38% physically impaired children attended school (UNESCO, 2010, pp.181-3).

Recent studies commissioned show the number of children with disabilities and their non-attendance at school to be a bigger issue that needs addressing in all planning for education and the education of teachers. The figures are variable but on an upward trend, as the methodology for measuring moves away from the ten questions of Multiple Indicator Cluster Surveys (MICS) based on household surveys, to the two-stage child disability surveys through which impairment and degree of impairment is verified by trained staff.

Using the latter methods, a recent study in Bhutan of children aged 2-9 years identified 21% with some impairment in a functional area. The prevalence of mild disability was 19%, with a large majority having an intellectual impairment (National Statistics Bureau, Bhutan, 2012, pp1-2).

A similar study carried out in Cambodia¹¹ found impairment levels at 15.6%; 10% had a disability and 3.2% had moderate, severe or profound levels of disability. This threefold classification is based on the International Classification of Functioning, Disability and Health (ICIDH, WHO 2001). This addresses all types of loss of bodily function, examines if it has an impact on day-to-day activities, and then distinguishes whether this has a mild, moderate, severe or profound impact on interaction with the environment (a move towards the 'social model'). This is not very useful for education as it tends to minimise the larger number of children with so called 'mild' impairment, who still face major barriers to accessing literacy and numeracy.

A study by the Vietnamese Census analysing out-of-school children¹² showed that 85% of children with disabilities did not finish school; 33% had never attended school; and 45% of persons with disabilities were illiterate. This is in contrast to completion rates of well over 90% for those without disabilities.

Numbers can be useful, not least so that states allocate the correct proportion of resources to certain areas of work. However, Peters (2003, 2004) and IDA (2011) have argued that too much time and effort can be spent on seeking to get numbers. Instead what is important is to work at the grass roots to identify children with disabilities as early as possible, get them the right sort of rehabilitative support, and work with their families and communities to develop accepting attitudes.

“In short, significant numbers of disabled children and youth are largely excluded from educational opportunities for primary and secondary schooling. The usefulness of categorical classifications of disability is being questioned in terms of cost-effectiveness and the ability to identify needed services” (Peters, 2003, p.8).

We clearly need both approaches. The World Report on Disability draws to our attention of the importance of disaggregated data gathering, and this is also a commitment in the UNCRPD (Article 31)

“There are currently no reliable and representative estimates based on actual measurement of the number of children with disabilities. Existing prevalence estimates of childhood disability

¹¹ UNICEF Cambodia Country Office (2011) Cambodia Childhood Disability Survey. Provided by Peter De Vries, UNICEF Cambodia.

¹² Viet Nam 2010 Census as cited in the “Out-of-School Children Initiative, Viet Nam Country Study 2012” provided by Cliff Meyers, Regional Education Adviser UNICEF EAPRO.

vary considerably because of differences in definitions and the wide range of methodologies and measurement instruments adopted. The limitations of census and general household surveys to capture childhood disability, the absence of registries in most low- and middle-income countries (LMICs), and poor access to culturally appropriate clinical and diagnostic services contribute to lower estimates. As a result many children with disabilities may neither be identified nor receive needed services” (WHO, 2011, p.8).

A situation analysis carried out under the DFID-funded Knowledge and Information project in Bangladesh, Nepal, Vietnam and South Africa by disabled people’s organisations and children with disabilities developed findings that can shape policy based on observation and experience (Hasan, 2006). In Bangladesh the study found, in a sample of ten inclusive schools, that 8.04% of the enrolled learners were children with disabilities, compared to 0.84% in formal government schools, and 22.61% in non-formal schools run by NGOs. The Bangladeshi inclusive schools revealed a similar impairment-specific imbalance as revealed in Burkina Faso (above), with high rates of enrolment for children with physical impairments and the lowest enrolment among children with speech and hearing impairments (Hasan, 2006, p.199).

In much of Africa, families with children with disabilities and the child with disabilities are stigmatised. General views prevail that children have their impairments due to witchcraft and other superstitions. Such negative views combine with poverty to ensure low enrolment rates for these children. A recent study by UNICEF in Madagascar highlights these issues and their impact on the enrolment of children with disabilities in primary school (D’Aiglepiere, 2012). Where there is a lack of reliable survey data, schools can do something about the situation if they are committed to inclusion. In Madagascar, for instance, an inclusive education project for children with disabilities has been held up for three years because of the political situation. However, UNICEF has now initiated a major mapping exercise in 3,400 schools, with children drawing maps of their neighbourhood and identifying other children who are not in school. The parents of these out-of-school children are visited by teachers to persuade them to send their children to school. Over 400 teachers have already had training on meeting the needs of children with disabilities. Currently 73% of all children are in school. This has gone down from 83%, and only 11% of children with disabilities are attending school.¹³

Statisticians are working on developing more reliable data, but the current lack of data should not hold back efforts to enrol children with disabilities. This enrolment is being done at a very local level and can be very effective, as various CBR initiatives have demonstrated (WHO, 2010). Despite the lack of reliable data, we do know that in most regions of the world (other than North America and the European Union) large numbers of children with disabilities are not in school, or if they are they are not getting an education appropriate to their needs. This should help to focus us on the pertinent question: what are the best ways to educate teachers for the task of providing quality inclusive education for all children, including children with disabilities?

¹³ See: www.irinnews.org/Report/96360/MADAGASCAR-Children-with-disabilities-get-a-second-chance-at-school 8.11.12

3. Literature review findings

The literature review was rapid yet extensive. Inevitably in this report we cannot capture every point of view put forward by every author. We can, however, offer interpretations of the key points raised, and our impressions of the trends or commonalities in the literature. We can also suggest how these guide us towards understanding both the problems with teacher education for inclusion, and the potential solutions.

We start by looking at the concept of inclusive education, and how it is variously interpreted, as these interpretations have significant knock-on effects for what teachers are being taught about inclusion, how they subsequently teach, and how children are impacted. We also look again at the challenging issue of how the concept of inclusive education sits with (or finds itself in competition with) EFA and other global initiatives. The review then looks at contextual issues – the education stakeholders and the environment within which education is taking place, which again interplay with the nature of teaching and the expectations we have for teachers.

We take a detailed look at the various different ways in which teacher education is or can be delivered, gleaning ideas from the literature about which models are more or less effective for promoting inclusion-responsive teachers. We then look at the issue of attitudes and education culture, to see how open it is to inclusion, and how attitudes can be favourably influenced.

The capacity and role of teacher educators is reviewed, along with a look at how the capacity of these vital professionals can be improved so that they more effectively produce inclusive teachers. We also reflect on what the literature is saying about trainee teachers in relation to inclusive education, and the curriculum and pedagogy that is used to teach trainees (and that trainees are being taught to use).

We take another look at the twin-track approach in relation to teacher education, and then reflect on the importance of practice-based training and the inclusiveness of approaches taken to assessing teachers/trainees (and how teachers are taught to assess).

The literature's take on the impact that leadership has on inclusion and the growth of inclusive teachers is analysed, along with the wider issue of how changes (towards inclusion) are managed.

Finally we take a look at the impact of poverty on teacher education and inclusion, and discuss the role of key stakeholder groups.

3.1. Concepts of inclusion and education of children with disabilities

The UNESCO Policy Guidelines on Inclusion in Education offer the following justifications for moving towards inclusive education:

“i) Educational justification. Inclusive schools need to develop ways of teaching to respond to individual differences and therefore benefit all children. ii) Social justification. Inclusive schools are able to change attitudes towards diversity and therefore form the basis for a society that is just and non-discriminatory. iii) Economic justification. It is less costly to educate all children together rather than have a complex system with different types of schools.” (UNESCO, 2009, p.9)

Such justifications should offer a strong impetus for governments and NGOs to make the move towards more inclusive forms of education. However, as we will see in this section, the plethora of interpretations of inclusive education, and the many different factors that influence how we interpret inclusive education, present a key challenge in turning *justification* into successful *action*.

In this section (3.1) we outline some of the findings from the literature review in relation to concepts and interpretations of inclusion and the education of children with disabilities, which impact on teacher education. We start by looking at the ways in which different interpretations of 'inclusive education' are played out in education policy and practice, how this can lead to misunderstandings and mis-matches between words and actions, and how this might impact on progress and on the learners themselves. We look at whether or how activism plays a role in making inclusive education more tangible for teachers. We also touch again on the issue of EFA (see also Section 2) and its compatibility with inclusive education efforts, and in particular how the popular focus on universal primary education may be deterring investments in highly beneficial early inclusive education. The current, but arguably unnecessary, gaps between inclusive education and child-friendly schools approaches is also raised. Finally we look at the interplay between international influences on education and local culture and context.

3.1.1. Understandings and definitions

When developing a strategy for transforming policy and practice relating to teacher education for inclusion, an obvious starting point must be a clear and agreed understanding of what it is that teachers are being trained for – what is inclusive education? Why is it being proposed? What are the key ingredients? Without being grounded in a sound understanding of the concepts, teacher education for inclusion may head off in any number of (unhelpful) directions. Unfortunately, as we will see below, evidence from the literature review indicates that teacher education around inclusion often does not have this solid conceptual grounding, and does therefore take directions incongruent with inclusive education.

Whilst there is not a consensus in the literature, a substantial number of key ingredients for a comprehensive understanding of inclusive education do emerge from the literature. For instance, the *Index for Inclusion* (Booth et al, 2000, p.3) provides a detailed list which we can use as a starting point.

“Inclusion in education involves:

- Valuing all students and staff equally.
- Increasing the participation of students in, and reducing their exclusion from, the cultures, curricula and communities of local schools.
- Restructuring the cultures, policies and practices in schools so that they respond to the diversity of students in the locality.
- Reducing barriers to learning and participation for all students, not only those with impairments or those who are categorised as 'having special educational needs'.
- Learning from attempts to overcome barriers to the access and participation of particular students to make changes for the benefit of students more widely.
- Viewing the difference between students as resources to support learning, rather than as problems to be overcome.
- Acknowledging the right of students to an education in their locality.
- Improving schools for staff as well as for students.
- Emphasising the role of schools in building community and developing values, as well as in increasing achievement.
- Fostering mutually sustaining relationships between schools and communities.
- Recognising that inclusion in education is one aspect of inclusion in society.”

However, informative explanations like this, offered in a growing number of inclusive education guides and manuals, and in some government policies, are often not translated into action on the ground. The South Africa White Paper No 6 (South African Department of Education, 2001) is an example of a good policy which incorporates many key ingredients of inclusive education: a rights-based approach, focus on barrier-free learning environments, parental and community involvement, plus utilisation of specialist support and turning special schools into resource centres. Yet, several commentators have highlighted the lack of progress towards these goals in the last decade (Naicker, 2006; OECD, 2008; Rieser, 2012, p.165).

Without doubt, despite the availability of published definitions, understandings of inclusive education remain diverse, even conflicting:

"there is confusion about whether inclusive education is a school reform strategy that applies to all students or a process that focuses on those who have been previously excluded" (Florian, 2012, p.213).

Perhaps one of the main conceptual divides is between those who perceive inclusive education as a problem (or string of problems) that needs to be solved; and those who see it as a 'driver' to improve education for all. In terms of teacher education, a perception of inclusive education as a problem to be solved may translate into the delivery of a relatively small number of separate training courses designed to help teachers learn how to solve a relatively narrow range of predicted inclusion problems. On the other hand, a perception of inclusive education as a driver for more far-reaching education system change may lead to reform of teacher education so that inclusion (and related principles of quality, flexible, participatory, learner-centred teaching) is embedded throughout all training.

Rouse (2012, p.xviii) bemoans the paucity of the latter approach in teacher education: "very few institutions have radically reformed their programmes using the principles of universal design to ensure that inclusion is an essential element that is addressed throughout the programme". Williams (2006, p.5) also highlights the failure of teacher training based on an individual model, and the need for an approach which addresses systemic barriers across the whole education system.

Singal (2005) reviewed the literature about inclusion in India and found that the emphasis remains largely on developing teachers' awareness of special children, diagnostic aspects and identification of issues rather than addressing teachers' need for understanding and developing diverse pedagogical approaches. This emphasis on 'within-child' issues – such as how to identify children with special needs, and the implications of low IQ on the child's ability to learn and function – reflects the continued dominance of the medical model in the field (i.e. a misinterpretation of inclusive education).

The impact of misunderstandings about inclusive education

Why are different interpretations of inclusive education such a big issue, particularly in relation to teacher education? For a start, the literature suggests that misunderstandings can hold back progress. UNESCO's Open File (2001a) provided a strong rationale for emphasising teacher education in the development of inclusive education:

"For all countries, teachers are the most costly – and most powerful – resource that can be deployed in the education system. The development of the teaching force is, therefore, crucial... As systems become more inclusive, professional development is particularly important because

of the major new challenges that face both ordinary school teachers ...and special educators...” (UNESCO, 2001a, p.42).

Yet despite such exhortations, there appears to have been little progress in this crucial area of teacher education in the last ten years. Stubbs (2008) highlights that many of the barriers and objections to inclusion, that may partly explain such slow progress, stem from misunderstandings. These barriers can disappear once inclusion is understood thoroughly from a rights and social model perspective:

“Many objections and perceived barriers disappear when the underlying concepts of inclusive education are thoroughly understood... Inclusive education represents a shift from being pre-occupied with a particular group to a focus on overcoming barriers to learning and participation” (Stubbs, 2008, p.38).

Perhaps of greater concern is the suggestion that misunderstandings of inclusive education, and thus misunderstandings in what teachers are meant to do, can lead to undesired consequences for the learners involved. For instance, one report from Canada explained that attempts to ensure teachers respond to the specific needs of children with disabilities can mean that teachers get incentives for labelling pupils (Crawford, 2003, p.7). Similar situations have been recorded in Armenia, where schools may be eligible for additional funding once they have a certain number of children with disabilities on the roll. This is resulting in growing fears that teachers are pushing for more children to be formally assessed and labelled as having a disability (which still brings a great deal of stigma in this context, as well as the risk of being segregated in a special school), even children who might previously have been included in their classes and getting on well in school (Lewis, 2010).

Gaps between ‘official’ interpretations and practice on the ground

The European Training Foundation (2010, p.7) states that there remain big discrepancies between international understandings of inclusion, as expressed in high level policies, and the understandings conveyed in national or local level teacher education practises and policies. The current literature review found many similar examples of mis-matched or conflicting interpretations within countries’ education systems.

For instance, Shaeffer’s meta review of policies and practices in South Asia (ROSA) and East Asia Pacific (EAPRO) reaffirmed the presence of discrepancies (Shaeffer, 2009, p.11), highlighted the generalised nature of policies on inclusion as they related to teacher education, and noted wide discrepancies between these general policies and actual understanding and practice in teacher education institutions. These findings were reiterated in a meta review of pre-service teacher education systems in Asia-Pacific conducted by Forgacs (2012). For example, one of the featured reviews (Bangladesh: Ehsan, 2011) highlighted the presence of a medical deficit model of disability mixed with concepts of inclusion and a recommendation for a separate training institute to deliver ‘special education’ (ibid, p.34). In the review from Vietnam (MOET, 2009), the approach was found to be top down, and ‘inclusion’ was understood to refer to special needs and disability – the wording had changed but not the interpretation.

Reviewing the Indian literature on training for inclusive education, Singal (2005), found there was an over-emphasis on conceptual theoretical models and not enough on practice in schools; much teacher education also focuses only a single type of impairment. The result is that while teachers may be open to the inclusion of disabled learners in their classrooms, they lack the necessary skills to work with them effectively.

Forgacs further highlights that where inclusive education is mentioned within teacher education institutions, it tends to refer only to disability and special needs; implying that most regular teacher education (i.e. beyond any special/separate courses on inclusion) focuses mainly on meeting the needs of 'normal' students (Forgacs, 2012, pp.11-13; MOET Vietnam, 2009, pp.43-44).

Shaeffer's and Forgac's review reports show that with a rigid concept of schools, classrooms and teaching as the starting point, the concept of inclusion remains severely limited. This seems to be part of a more general problem with all pre-service teacher education in low income countries.

The research by Schwille, Dembele and Schubert (2007) into pre-service teacher education in low income countries in general suggests that the dynamic linking of college-based learning to its application in the classroom is the exception rather than the rule. This is largely because training is often lecture-based (usually from trainers who lack experience and expertise in primary education) with little in the way of supervised practical teaching and feedback. This creates a large gap between theory and actual classroom practice, and in effect offers little more than a repetition of secondary education but at several times the cost (Mattson, 2006).

In Botswana, Chhabra et al (2010, p.222) found that despite clear adoption of a policy for inclusion by the government, concepts of inclusive education remained limited to a focus on special and integrated education. Inclusion was not fully understood.

An examination of four Asia Pacific countries again found variations in the conception of inclusive education being used (UNESCO Bangkok 2009a).

For instance, in Samoa in 2000, a survey was conducted by the government to identify all children with special educational needs (SEN). Subsequently, provision began to move from NGO to government ownership. For instance, a special needs education (SNE) curriculum was included at the National University of Samoa, enabling primary school teachers to graduate with a SNE specialty, which in turn enabled the establishment of six SNE units in regular primary schools. A teacher's manual was developed in 2002 on including children with disabilities into village schools. The Special Needs Co-ordinator role was established at the Ministry of Education, Sport and Culture to provide support. However, at the time of the UNESCO Bangkok review, 97% of schools had no SEN support at all, and those that did were supported by resource centres (ibid, p.47). There was considerable concerns by DPOs over the use of a medical model of disability and eligibility criteria in the draft SNE policy that was under consultation during the review period (ibid, p.50). The official definition of inclusive education in Samoa was: "Inclusive education is a process whereby the school systems, strategic plans, and policies adapt and change to include teaching strategies for a wider more diverse range of children and their families. Inclusive education implicitly means to identify a child's learning style and adapt the classroom and teaching strategies to ensure high quality learning outcomes for all members of the class. Everyone is important, unique and valued for their contribution to the school" (ibid. p.55). This broad definition seems to be rather at odds with the special needs focus indicated by the practice evidence in the UNESCO Bangkok review, perhaps illustrating again that the words were changing while the practices on the ground were only changing in a small minority of schools.

The same review highlighted that in Thailand the government has made commitments to uphold the rights of people with disabilities to education and is developing "an integrated system, moving towards inclusion" (ibid, p.77). The National Education Act of 1997 ensures all people with disabilities have access to 12 years of free, basic education (though costs and complexity of this are recognised as a major barrier to progression, the government suggest a further ten years is required to make this

vision a reality.) The framework is in place but the education of teacher and the capacity of schools is lagging behind.

In the Arab world, too, one researcher found misunderstandings, such as inclusion being perceived as a 'luxury', and as encompassing separate education for "children with disabilities in small units" (Amr, 2011, p.406.)

However, some reports do show that in Balkan countries there is a move (albeit struggling) towards a more social model; replacing integration in the mainstream (where pupils with disabilities are expected to 'fit in') with inclusion (where the barriers to their learning are removed) (Mirosevic, 2007, pp.9-11).

This is mirrored in a CIDA (Canadian International Development Agency)-sponsored five-year programme (2008-2013) in Ukraine to develop inclusive education for children with disabilities. The work concentrates on leadership and teacher education, based on a social model approach.¹⁴

Education standards: a common misunderstanding

A common concern or misconception about inclusive education is that it somehow conflicts with maintaining high standards of achievement for pupils and for schools. MacArthur's (2009) meta study examined outcomes for pupils with disabilities in mainstream and special schools and found children with disabilities, including those with learning difficulties, do better in terms of academic outcomes and behaviours in mainstream schools.

There is also no evidence of pupils with disabilities holding back non-disabled pupils. Katz and Miranda (2002) conclude from their meta review that there is little doubt that research over the past 20 years has identified many social and academic *advantages* of inclusion for students both with and without disabilities. Jordan et al (2009, p.535) note the performance of students without special education needs may even be slightly enhanced in classes where students with special education needs are included. Taking this further, Florian and Rouse (2009, p.600) have pioneered a teacher education system throughout Scotland which is an example of fully inclusive teacher education based on the premise that *standards and inclusion are not mutually exclusive* and that if all teachers are grounded in an inclusive methodology they become better teachers.

The European Agency for the Development of Special Needs Education carried out a three-year review into Teacher Education for Inclusion, involving a major literature review, 14 country visits and consultations with 55 experts in 25 countries. The review found that "The benefits of increasing inclusion, linked to other priorities such as social justice and community cohesion, are long-term and investment in early childhood education and an increasingly inclusive education system is likely to represent the most effective use of resources. (EADSNE 2011a, p.4)

3.1.2. The role of activism in shaping interpretations of concepts

Activism may exclude teachers

The gap between policy and practice around inclusive education is highlighted by Forlin's extensive research. She postulates that one reason for this gap is because the push towards inclusion is led by activists (parents, persons with disabilities) while educationalists (teachers, etc) are usually excluded.

¹⁴ Personal communication with Tim Loreman. See project website (in Russian): www.education-inclusive.com/

“though inclusive education has been led by international proactive rights groups and supported by parents, implementation has been led by political and economic motives - educationalists themselves are excluded” (Forlin, 2012b, p.7).

While this may be largely true where principals or headteachers fully understand inclusion they can have a great deal of influence on colleagues, parents, pupils and local authorities and lead to the closure of their special schools and the transfer of pupils, Staff and resources to developing mainstream inclusive provision. For example Ken Jupp (2002) who worked to close the special school he was head of in Salford for children with severe learning difficulties and transfer all the children to mainstream inclusion, or Dave Walker who did something similar in Somerset (Thomas, G. et al, 1998). In India Mithu Alur transformed the special school she set up for children with cerebral palsy to an inclusive school and centre¹⁵.

Activism that engages teachers and helps them understand/embrace inclusive education concepts

Oyler (2011) raises the notion of ‘activism’ in relation to teachers, suggesting that teachers need to cultivate or nurture activism in order to promote and sustain inclusion. Oyler offers the example of “an annual Inclusive Programme Teach-in – a day when former students and teacher educators come together and inspire each other and ‘nurture activism’ – helping create a different model of teacher education” (ibid. p.215).

Rieser (2001) maps the growth of the movement for inclusive education over the previous 12 years, examining the merging of British social model thinking and intentional building of relationships work from North America, leading to the formation of the Integration Alliance of parents, disabled people teachers, young disabled people and other professionals (ibid, p.133). The article demonstrates how, by involving and winning the largest teachers Union (the NUT), various grass roots and parent campaigns, it was possible to alter the law to develop a presumption of inclusive education and a government committed to training teachers and implementing inclusion. One of this movement’s lasting impacts was the mapping of the thinking of the disability movement into schools, as characterised by Table 1.

Table 1 Medical and social model thinking in schools cited in (Rieser, 2001 p.139)

Medical Model Thinking	Social Model Thinking
Child is faulty	Child is valued
Diagnosis	Strengths and needs defined by self and others
Labelling	Identify barriers and develop solutions
Impairment becomes the focus of attention	Outcome-based programmes designed
Assessment, monitoring, programmes of therapy imposed	Resources are made available to ordinary services
Segregation and alternative services	Training for parents and professionals
Ordinary needs put on hold	Relationships nurtured
Re-entry if normal enough or permanent exclusion	Diversity welcomed , child is included
Society remains unchanged	Society evolves

Originally: Rieser (2000), adapted from Micheline Mason (1994) in Mason and Rieser (1994)

Peters and Reid (2009) argue that we should not be producing teachers who prepare school students (including disabled students) to demonstrate their proficiency on standardized tests – as required in

¹⁵ See <http://www.adaptssi.org/history.html>

the USA by No Child Left Behind Act (2001) and the Disabilities Act of 2004 (IDEA) – as this often leads to increased segregation in separate classes. Instead “what is needed in order to transform schools is to create teachers as change agents who can work individually and collectively for liberatory practices in schools” (Peters and Reid, 2009, p.551).

They further describe an undergraduate and graduate teaching course at Michigan State University in which they developed transformative practice by introducing the students to disabled activists and other oppressed minorities, with discursive practices developed in disability studies. Short-term assessments through pre- and post-test surveys indicated a substantial shift in attitude. Graduates and practising teachers reported these courses as being deeply challenging and responsible for them repositioning their practice to be more inclusive towards disabled students.

The mission of Baglieri and Shapiro’s (2012) book is to integrate knowledge and practice from the fields of disability studies and special education to take forward the above practice at Michigan State. Parts I and II of the book focus on the broad, foundational topics that comprise disability studies (culture, language, and history) and Parts III and IV move into practical topics (curriculum, co-teaching, collaboration, classroom organization, disability-specific teaching strategies, etc) associated with inclusive education. By organizing the content in this way, they illustrate the belief that least restrictive environments (the goal of inclusive education) necessarily emerge from least restrictive attitudes (the goal of disability studies, and of activism around disability). Discussions throughout the book attempt to illustrate the intersection of theory and practice. Oyler 2011 argues a similar position. (See also Section 2 of this literature review: Orienting the review.)

3.1.3. EFA, child-friendly schools, diversity and inclusion

In some ways the confusions surrounding inclusive education are not surprising, as it is not the only concept that policy-makers, planners and practitioners are being asked to grapple with. And these concepts may not always seem to be easily reconciled.

We are seeing on-going and significant shifts in demands on education, which in turn has profoundly altered the expected role of the teacher, role of the school, and nature of the curriculum. The UNCRPD Article 24 has become the international foundation for improving the inclusion of children with disabilities in regular schools, yet this is “confounded by the bigger issue of achieving universal primary education by 2015 ...an additional 1.9 million teachers are needed to achieve this” (Forlin, 2012a, p.84). In reality these are two sides of the same coin of developing quality inclusive education for all.

In theory, the concepts of EFA and inclusive education should be working in synergy. However, sometimes EFA seems to be responsible for increased separations within the education system. For example, in Thailand, in order to achieve EFA, a policy was created in 1999 that featured different education strategies for different 'groups'. This included: (1) the provision of basic education for persons with physical and intellectual impairments, and emotional, social, communication and learning difficulties ; (2) the provision of non-formal or informal education for underprivileged, drop-out and marginal groups; (3) the provision of education for gifted learners; (4) the provision of long distance education in order to extend the opportunities for people who live in remote areas (Narot, 2011, p.4).

The goal of EFA should support inclusion. However, Miles and Singal (2010, p.1) found that, because in practice EFA initiatives tend to ignore children with disabilities, inclusive education is being identified only with disability so as to fill this gap. In some countries, the number of special schools are actually increasing (ibid. p.12). This unnecessary polarisation between EFA and inclusive education is a

core problem (see also Section 2.4.2). International agencies, such as UN agencies, and NGOs seem to alternate between a focus on specific groups, which often leaves the bigger system unchanged, and a broader focus on access and issues such as basic literacy and quality education, which then lose the focus on inclusion for children with disabilities (Save the Children UK, 2012).

Globally, the international focus and prioritisation for funding is directed at basic or primary education, with a view to achieving EFA. However, this can be seen as further evidence of mismatched policy and practice. Extensive reviews conducted by EADSNE (2012) highlight the importance of quality *early childhood* inclusive education as a means of reducing educational disadvantage, poverty and exclusion (and thus ultimately of achieving education for all). Yet such early education is given far less attention and funding than basic/primary education. There are, of course, examples of programmes aimed at creating more inclusive pre-school education. For example, in Armenia an in-service teacher education module to promote inclusion in pre-schools is being rolled out by UNICEF (2011b, p.6).¹⁶ However, in a donor climate pre-occupied with EFA, such inclusive pre-school initiatives remain less common than primary level interventions, despite the benefits that they can offer.

Whilst inclusive education is often defined as ‘responding to diversity’, reports such as OECD (2012) interpret diversity as referring exclusively to ethnicity and linguistic diversity, with hardly any mention of disability or other forms of diversity. Yet the document proposes to view diversity as an asset to be celebrated not a problem to be solved (ibid. p.13), a view that applies equally to disability. This is surprising as in other publications OECD have focussed on disability for example reporting on the development of inclusive education in 7 countries (OECD 1999).

Likewise, policies and strategies on child-friendly schools (CFS) do not necessarily include a focus on children with disabilities. For example, Lewis (2010, p.4) records that teachers in Armenia who had already been introduced to CFS were confused by the concept of inclusive education, thinking it to be a totally separate concept (with an accompanying separate or extra workload). Yet there is no intrinsic reason why the CFS framework is not compatible with inclusion. Williams (2009, p.11) showed how, in Kosovo, the *Index for Inclusion* and CFS could work effectively together.

Lumpkin (2009) describes work on bringing the disability dimension into Child Healthy and Friendly Schools in a Nicaraguan programme. The programme covered 30 of the most deprived municipalities, had a key focus on community and pupil involvement, and showed many positive results.

“In aspects related to inclusiveness, students’, teachers’ and school directors’ perceptions and evaluation team observations indicate positive progress and results towards guaranteeing the right to primary education for all. High marks were found for such items as: inclusive policy development; child-seeking schools; creating an inclusive and respectful climate for all children; and providing accessible school facilities and opportunities (especially for students with disabilities). However, limitations were found in the provision of outdoor play opportunities for children with physical disabilities and for addressing student absenteeism” (Lumpkin, 2009, p.26).

Further, during the eight-year life span of this project, more specific components to reach and include the most excluded population through locally proven inclusive education strategies were added. These focused on reaching working children and those with disabilities or other special learning needs. This had a big impact on teacher pedagogy and practice (ibid. p.30).

¹⁶ This will include topics such as; “Creating Child-Centered Classrooms”, “Interactive Teaching Methods”, “Parents Involvement”, “Gender Issues” and “Diversity”. Educating teachers to liaise with parents is also seen as central.

The gap in the CFS framework – its lack of explicit mention of disability and including children with disabilities – is belatedly being addressed. The existing Child Friendly Schools Manual (UNICEF, 2009) contains just a few explicit mentions of disability with regard to design and construction (Chapter 3.) Heeral Mehta has been commissioned by UNICEF to write a chapter on disability for this Manual. This will draw heavily on an internal document produced by Garren Lumpkin of UNICEF TARCO which identifies how disability should fit with CFS.¹⁷

3.1.4. Local indigenous culture and context

In terms of ensuring that inclusive education concepts are understood, accepted and translated into appropriate action (in schools, teacher education, etc), several authors highlight the danger of simply importing policies and approaches from other countries and ignoring local cultures and contexts. Lewis (2009a, p.3), examining policies in Rwanda and Ethiopia, noted that “they were influenced by northern policies and did not draw inspiration from the country’s own culture and context”. Miles and Ahuja (2006), in an international review, find a failure in practising respect for customary or indigenous forms of education, in building on existing community relationships, and in appreciating education as being broader than schooling. They suggest that concepts such as ‘creating conversations’, ‘learning from difference’, and other core concepts related to the EENET’s approach to inclusive education,¹⁸ are important in terms of laying foundations for teacher education, particularly in-service, in a range of cultures and contexts.

Community or home-based education may exist in some settings. For instance, Ramsden, (2006, p.20), highlights how Mongolian teachers work with children with severe disabilities who are based at home in remote areas, supporting parents and developing distance learning packages. Portage and Community Based Rehabilitation programmes which have developed around the world in the last 40 years also bear witness to the effectiveness of home based interventions for children with a range of impairments. See Leavitt (1992) on the work of Molly Thorburn in Rural Jamaica or Helander et al (1991) on CBR Training in the community for People with disabilities.

However, Kisanji (1995) highlights that:

“...community orientated programmes need to also adopt the principles of non-differentiation, usefulness and functionality. The regular school in the community needs to be the centre of attention if education is to be truly inclusive. There should be a strong partnership between the school and the community. The school curriculum should take into account community needs to ensure usefulness and functionality of the skills and knowledge to be gained by all learners”(Kisanji, 1995, p.16)

These are arguments that Kisanji (1995 and 1999) made repeatedly over many years of research. As a visually impaired African researcher, he argued for an approach to education of children with disabilities that would entail a thorough assessment of the community’s folk belief system, customs and values; capitalising on progressive elements within the culture and on instilling a sense of ownership through the involvement of parents, people with disabilities and the community at large in decision-making and intervention (Kisanji and Saaname, 2009).

However, Peters et al (2005, p.141) sound an important cautionary note against the “donor and practitioner insistence on privileging local context in promulgating Inclusive Education”. They note

¹⁷ Personal communication. This is also part of the REAP project

¹⁸ EENET promotes an approach based on critical self-reflection, respect, communication, peer support, listening to stakeholder voices, etc. See: www.eenet.co.uk

that it is possible for local priorities and conditions to contradict human rights and universal access to education, and therefore “The challenge of planning inclusive education within local contexts is to channel disability- affirming local norms while maintaining universal norms of universal educational rights agreed upon”.

Evaluations and reviews also emphasise the importance of using and building on local resources and knowledge in order for inclusive education to be understood and embraced. Stubbs (2002 p.24-25) provided a summary of lessons learned from developing inclusive education programmes in a range of cultures and context. The list included: “local resources and initiatives should be identified and built upon” and “ownership should be shared between schools, families and communities”. Despite being recommendations from ten years ago, they reaffirm many points emphasised in current research (which further highlights the slow progress towards inclusive education).

The role of the teacher

It is not just the interpretations of inclusive education that may be determined by cultural context; views on teaching and what it means to be a teacher can also vary in different contexts. This is illustrated by an example from India. The increased focus on education in this country is driven by international initiatives which are adopted by the middle classes, who prefer English-medium education. As a result, the indigenous system of guru-based education, where the guru was highly respected in the villages, is being erased. Teachers are perceived differently; they are now subject to ridicule and humiliation (Mooji, 2008, p.521), no doubt creating a new set of challenges for those responsible for recruiting and educating teachers.

The teacher’s role in low income countries is commonly understood in a very traditional way as being about transmitting knowledge to the students (as opposed to facilitating learning). As such teachers often rely on teacher-centred ‘chalk and talk’ and rote learning approaches. Changing pedagogy and improving the quality of classroom interaction can be a cost-effective way of improving education and inclusion, particularly in contexts where learning resources and teacher education are limited (Hardman and Abd-Kadir, 2010). However, most teacher education programmes struggle to challenge the dominant perceptions of teaching and the role of the teacher, in part because many teacher educators replicate the transmission of knowledge approach that they experienced as students (O’Sullivan, 2010). Strategies are being developed to break down traditional ‘chalk-and-talk’ approaches. For instance, Hattie (2009) refers to the use of cross-age peer tutoring as an instructional strategy that has the potential to transform pedagogy in poorly resourced contexts, particularly in multi-grade classrooms. For earlier guidance to develop such strategies see Ainscow (1994 & 1999).

3.1.5. Conclusion

There is still no general agreement on the scope of inclusive education or its meaning. Starting with just applying to children with disabilities who had special needs, it has broadened to all excluded groups. It is more than placement in the mainstream, which is increasingly recognised as ‘integration’. Inclusive education is a process of changing the school, what is taught, how it is taught and how it is assessed so all learners can achieve their full potential. It therefore involves identifying barriers and finding solutions, drawing on the thinking of the disabled people’s movement. Inclusive education is both a driver for change and problematic if not specific enough to meet individual impairment-specific needs. Where countries have adopted strong policies on inclusive education following the Salamanca Statement (UNESCO 1994) and the UNCRPD (UN 2006), there is still a mismatch with what is taught to pre-service teachers and then often a further mismatch between what they are taught and the practical knowledge and skills necessary to implement inclusive education in the classroom.

Local cultures vary and need taking into account, but should not sideline the key human rights principles enshrined in the move to inclusive education. Governments urgently need to review their curriculum, how it is taught and how it is assessed to be more flexible and encourage schools and teachers to take the lead in developing an inclusive pedagogy. This requires more support and resources for schools and their leaders to develop the capacity of teachers to successfully include a wide diversity of learners . This will also require incentives and measures to reduce drop-out and enable re-enrolment.

The research around the world is clear. If the above occurs and teachers are educated to include children with disabilities then the level and standard of learning for these children rises, but so does the level of their non-disabled peers. (Mitchell,2010)

Practical experience in diverse classes backed up by reflective practice with colleagues, supported by more specialist teachers capable of making the necessary accommodations for children with different impairments, is the best experience for pre-service teachers and their trainers as well as on-going development of in-service teachers.

Inclusive education is not primarily a theory of education, but a way of being and thinking and is therefore transformative.

3.2. The stakeholder context

In reviewing the situation of teacher education in relation to inclusion and the education of children with disabilities, it is vital that we look at the context in which education stakeholders are operating, and the relationships between stakeholders (we already touched on this briefly in Section 3.1.4 when discussing how context and culture interact with understandings of inclusive education).

In this section (3.2.) we see the importance to inclusive education of a comprehensive approach to involving a range of stakeholders across the lifetime of an initiative. We see the challenge of improving teacher education within the context of a huge global demand for more teachers

3.2.1. Comprehensive approach to stakeholder involvement

In any situation, an analysis of the people who have a stake in education, and in the process of making education more inclusive, is likely to reveal a complex web of individuals and organisations at all levels in society.

EADSNE's (2010, p.20) extensive literature review led them to suggest "there is a need to recognise that legislation, funding, curriculum, assessment and accountability should be considered holistically if they are to support a move towards more inclusive practice in which teacher education plays a key role". The wide range of people involved in all of these aspects of work indicates the potential extent of stakeholder involvement that is needed.

The literature supports a comprehensive approach in relation to the involvement of such stakeholders in inclusive education. Forlin (2012b, p.11) emphasises the importance of connections between schools, governments, policy-makers and training institutions. Various other reports stress the importance of stakeholder collaboration, for instance: "the importance of school learning communities and principals being agents of change, and collaborating with parents is emphasised" (Mirosevic, 2007, p.11).

In Stubbs's (2008) experience, evaluations demonstrate repeatedly that connections between different stakeholders are essential for effective, sustainable and successful programmes. This is particularly true in relation to disability and inclusion, which are issues that permeate society and require engagement of multiple sectors and levels within society. Yet it is still rare to find examples where all the relevant stakeholders have been involved from inception and throughout the development of a programme. Teacher education for inclusion is no exception when it comes to this (poor) level of stakeholder involvement throughout the process.

EADSNE (2011a, p.2) further highlight the importance of stakeholder collaboration by stating that "Working with others: collaboration and teamwork are essential approaches for all teachers" when building competence in inclusive education.

3.2.2. Inclusive education within a complex environment

The overall context in which teachers are working and education systems are operating has changed and become more complex. There are pressures to achieve EFA and the provision of free primary (and increasingly, secondary) education; plus calls to include children with disabilities and from linguistic minorities, street children, children living with or affected by HIV and AIDS, and previously excluded girls (or boys, depending on the context). Societies are becoming more diverse and the demands on teachers are more complex. Perhaps inevitably, therefore, inclusive education is often perceived as an additional burden for teachers, and for those tasked with preparing teachers (despite examples

illustrating how teachers can find that appropriate training and support around inclusion can actually make teaching more enjoyable and effective).

In addition to pressures generated by EFA and increasingly diverse societies, the demands arising from the Millennium Development Goals to drastically increase enrolment, also require education systems to 'produce' millions more teachers in a short time. Hardman et al (2011, p.11), estimate that "In South and West Asia and in sub-Saharan Africa, acute shortages of teachers exist and it is estimated that 14 – 25 million additional teachers will be required to reach the objectives of Education for All by 2015". Such pressure leaves governments, etc, feeling there is little time for a thorough re-visioning of the whole structure, approach and content of teacher education. This is despite that fact that it would arguably make more sense to ensure the new wave of teachers receive, from the start, an improved training for work within a more inclusive system, rather than governments and NGOs playing an even bigger game of catch-up several years down the line by trying to deliver inclusive education in-service training to an even larger teaching population.

3.2.3. Conflict and refugee situations

It is not just within stable situations that education and teacher education is needed. Working in more than 20 countries affected by conflict, Save the Children has been educating and supporting teachers at pre-service and in-service levels to use a range of teaching and classroom management strategies that encourage learning and make children feel safe. The training offered in many of the countries has focused on curriculum content, teaching methodology, child rights and teaching without physical and humiliating punishment, active teaching and learning methods, and language courses (Save the Children, 2012, p.14).

However, disability issues may not always be integral to education in emergencies and conflict work. Inclusion International, for instance, has criticised the conflict- focused EFA Global Monitoring Report (UNESCO, 2011) for its lack of focus on disability and education:

"While the report draws attention to direct and indirect impact of conflict on the health of children, it does not adequately examine the particular exclusion from education of children from various disadvantaged groups. Conflict not only results in increased incidents of disability, children with disabilities in conflict areas are disproportionately less likely to have access to education."¹⁹

Yet within conflict and crisis situations one potentially finds a different set of interests and capacities among education stakeholders, which can be harnessed to support inclusion. In situations where government infrastructures break down, it is often civil society and NGOs who are most effective at creating and sustaining the necessary programmes and community relationships (Stubbs, 2000a). In Palestine, for instance, a group of 17 NGOs jointly implemented a CBR programme that included inclusive education, because it was community-based and decentralised (ibid, p.40). In Mozambique, a DPO had a role in training teachers (ibid, p.24). Ironically, conflict situations can break down rigid education systems, and the post-conflict period can offer an opportunity for rebuilding a more inclusive system. The guidance produced by the Inter-Agency Network for Education in Emergencies (INEE, 2009) argues a similar position. Carl Triplehorn (2000, p.17) reaffirm this in their examination of child landmine survivors: "Conflict situations are 'vulnerability multipliers' – poverty and disability

¹⁹ Inclusion International,2011,Press Release UNESCO Global Monitoring Report on Education for All on the impact of Armed Conflict Ignores Children with Disabilities <http://www.inclusion-international.org/press-release-full-story-4/>

increase. Education infrastructures collapse, but ironically, may offer a fresh opportunity for rebuilding a more inclusive system”.

3.2.4. Relationship with community and families

In the process of developing more inclusive education, a strong relationship between schools/teachers and the local community is frequently recommended in the literature: “Schools which had close collaboration with the community were more likely to develop learner friendly environments” (Grimes 2009, p.96). A strong relationship with parents is also emphasised in many reports, and this has a sound basis. While teachers have been educated and may believe themselves to be the main experts in education, parents have often been in the forefront of the struggle to develop inclusive education for their children with disabilities around the world. It is important that their experience is recognised (Inclusion International, 2009).

Bringing parents on board as ‘allies’ in the development of inclusive education is therefore vital. For instance, Inclusion International’s survey of 400 parents of children with disabilities in 75 countries find that: “...when their child with a disability is included in regular education ... [parents]... are much more likely to recommend this outcome to others, than are parents whose children are not included. Inclusion breeds success, higher expectations, and continued support” (Inclusion International, 2009, p.114). The report suggests that parental awareness and advocacy for inclusion of children with disabilities is crucial, and teachers need to be prepared to encourage this (ibid, p.119).

Mitchell’s (2010) comprehensive review of the English-speaking literature also examined the key role of parents and found that they play critical roles in supporting children’s education. Many countries have legislation and/or policies on parent involvement. At a minimum their participation in major decisions, such as IEPs and placements is needed. Five different levels of parental involvement have been identified: (a) being informed, (b) taking part in activities, (c) participating in dialogue and exchange of views, (d) taking part in decision-making, and (e) having responsibility to act.

Unfortunately, according to the Alliance for Inclusive Education in the UK,²⁰ parents of children with disabilities can often be persuaded into choosing segregated education for their children with disabilities:

“Most, if not all parents, start out wanting inclusion, i.e. they want their child to be welcomed into the world and given the respect and the resources they need and deserve. Unfortunately many families do not experience this. The uneven nature of the development of inclusive services from one area to another – indeed one school to another – means that many parents still experience hostility and rejection in their search for inclusion. Some of these parents find a better mainstream, whilst others are drawn to the segregated system. Here, they may find a sense of safety and security which was missing from previous placements. If they have been sufficiently seduced by the medical model they may feel that their child will be made ‘better’ in the special school because of the promise of more therapies and specialist input. Our experience also is that parents who walk down this road realize too late, that it does not do what they thought it would. Their young adults are completely isolated from their local communities, do not have social skills, have very poor level of education, and are channelled down a route of further segregation, discrete courses, or exclusion” (Allfie, 2005).²¹

²⁰ The Alliance is a network of disabled people, parents of disabled children, teachers and other professionals who support inclusive education. See: www.allfie.org.uk

²¹ Alliance for Inclusive Education, Evidence to UK Parliament Education Select Committee 2005. See: www.publications.parliament.uk/pa/cm200506/cmselect/cmmeduski/uc478-vii/uc15302.htm

Teachers therefore need to be made aware of these pressures and arguments, and be able to reassure parents about inclusion and create the kind of inclusive welcoming classrooms that can counter segregation arguments.

CBR programmes offer another way of creating links between parents, health and education workers, and other stakeholders in the community (WHO, 2010, pp.4-5). CBR programmes can usefully support the transition of children with disabilities from home into school, and so can be a very effective inclusive education partner with in the community.

The documents reviewed indicate that, between countries and regions, there are wide cultural variations in relation to parental involvement in education. In many Asian and Eastern European countries, it was found that involving parents in education development was an unfamiliar concept. In many African countries, however, the literature suggests that parents can be the drivers for inclusion. Here, parents' associations can have (and have had) a main role in promoting and sustaining inclusive education programmes, including educating teachers about their children. Katende (2006), for instance, using a Ugandan example, demonstrates that parental support and involvement is essential for successful inclusion, particularly of children with disabilities. Teachers need to learn how to listen to, welcome and talk with parents. In the Ugandan programme outlined by Katende, parent groups were encouraged, and as a result parents even took their educational demands to the district level government. Teachers actively reached out to parents by visiting their homes and persuading parents to send their children to school. This was also part of the early work in Lesotho letting parents know children with disabilities were welcome at school and getting trained parents to work with teachers (Mphohle and Paneng, 1997).

Stubbs (2011, p.13) insists that learning how to relate sensitively to parents and community members, and how to invite their collaboration in making education more inclusive, should be a core competence for teachers. The evidence from the literature supports this argument.

3.2.5. Support services and para-professionals

In considering strategies for developing and improving teacher education on inclusion, it is important to look at the context in terms of what support services exist that teachers can or could make use of, and how compatible these are with inclusive education. The ideal type, location and nature of specialist support within an inclusive education system is an area that remains contested.

Stubbs (2008) suggests that district-level support – that can work with school clusters and provide support to whole schools – is more effective than school-based specialist support, which leads regular teachers to devolve responsibility, or individual child support, which leads to increases in stigma and labelling. Grimes (2009) in Lao PDR points to monitoring and support from District Advisory Implementation teams as important in creating effective inclusive education in schools. This involved regular visits, collaborative relationships and creation of school learning networks or clusters (ibid, p.95).

Examining the context of supporting teacher quality development in general, Save the Children (2012) suggest a school-based training model supported by advisors/inspectors working across clusters and often backed up by distance learning. They quote the following example from Kenya.

“Kenya recognized that professional development programs need to focus on processes in the school and classroom as the necessary level of intervention for improving the quality of teaching and learning. Likewise it saw the need to link teacher education with head teacher

training and community empowerment, including the development of a school text management system and quality assurance procedures.

The Ministry of Education - through its INSET unit - ran a national, distance-led teacher education scheme for classroom teachers, the School-based Teacher Development (SBTD) program. SBTD was designed to be cost-effective and to combine the benefits of distance education with school-based teacher development. The program was supported by a zonal-based teacher advisory system of over 1,000 teacher advisory centre tutors, who were trained to provide group-based support service to the Key Resource Teachers (KRTs) who were working with distance learning materials while carrying a full time teaching load.

A baseline evaluation of the SBTD suggested that there had been major changes as a result of the school based training, particularly for those who had received the direct training. However, the 'cascade' model of school based training, whereby KRTs work with other colleagues in the school to pass on their training, was having less impact than had been anticipated by the program's designers" (Save the Children, 2012, p.9)

Other reports highlight the issue of the 'para professionals' – teaching assistants, physiotherapists, speech therapists, etc, who generally are not included in teacher education for inclusion initiatives, and yet can be the ones most involved with children with disabilities in practice. They can and should be involved in school-based training for inclusion on both tracks.

The support personnel available to teachers may not always have significantly more skills or experience in 'being inclusive' or supporting learners with disabilities than the teacher him/herself. Fox (2005, p.12) notes that in Canada "There is little credentialing being required of teachers, resource and methods staff, administrators or student service personnel in the standardization of skills and knowledge required for working with students with exceptionalities, the value of inclusiveness and differentiated instructional techniques". This is reiterated by Forlin (2012a, p.87): "There is much inconsistency with regards to the role of support in the classroom. Sometimes qualified special education teachers are used, more often, unqualified teaching assistants (TAs) focusing on individual children. Often the untrained adults are given the most challenging students".

Longitudinal research by Blachford et al (2007) suggests that Teaching Assistants on English 7-11(KS2) primary classes make no difference to the attainment of pupils with disabilities in mainstream schools. They do help the pupils be more involved facilitate teacher interactions. It is recommended they need more training on pedagogy and this is now occurring with degree equivalent (Level 3 QCF²²) training in special support for teaching and learning. Groom and Rose(2005) examining Teaching Assistants for children with social,emotional and behavioural needs in KS2 primary schools in one large English county found that 74% of teachers and headteachers in the schools they were thought they prevented the pupils exclusion and segregation in special schools. They found they were most effective when their was a wholeschool ethos of inclusion, they were encouraged to, not just support one child, but all pupils in the class, they planned with the teacher and had access to training. Teachersneeded training on how to work with other adults in the classroom.

3.2.6. Conclusion

The modern world is complex, with poverty, discrimination, HIV and AIDS, conflicts, acute shortages of teachers, corruption and natural disasters, many of which challenge traditional ways of organising

²² <http://www.teachingassistanttraining.co.uk/>

and schooling. Yet adversity can be the mother of invention, developing new and progressive ways to solve these issues by involving various stakeholders.

Teachers need to be aware and investigate the local situation they are working in. EADSNE (2010) recognise the wide range of stakeholders and that they are invaluable to developing inclusive education. Schools, governments, policy-makers and training institutions need to be in regular dialogue and communication.

It is noted that the involvement of DPOs is still a rarity. This is in sharp contrast to the role they played in drafting the UNCRPD.

“DPOs, many of which became members of the International Disability Caucus (IDC) contributed enormously and tirelessly to the understanding of human rights issues in the disability context and therewith the drafting of a text strongly focused on the rights of persons with disabilities seen from a disability perspective” (Shulze,2010 p9)

DPOs need to be recognised as the huge asset they are, remembering their members have experienced the issues and oppression children with disabilities are currently encountering. They are children with disabilities grown up. DPOs need to be involved as key stakeholders.

Inclusion International (2009) make the strong point that parents need to be involved as equal partners in their children’s education. They need to be embraced as allies in inclusive education and their full involvement is critical. Teachers need to develop constructive ways of collaborating and involving parents in their children’s education.

Para-professionals need to be respected and educated to work as part of a team supporting the learning of children with disabilities. Teachers must take on the role of reflective leader and facilitator in their class.

3.3. Models of delivery and structure of teacher education

If there is one thing a literature review like this reveals, it’s the range of different ways in which governments, NGOs, communities and schools are attempting to educate teachers to provide more inclusive education. Despite concerns indicated in Section 3.1.4 about the importation of ideas or solutions from one country to another, we are (fortunately) still far from having a universal way of preparing teachers for inclusion.

The Open File on Inclusive Education (UNESCO, 2001a) provides guidance for administrators and managers around professional development for inclusive education and remains a useful summary of recommended options. Topic 2 “Professional Development for Inclusive Education” (pp.41-54) draws on the considerable work around the world since Salamanca (UNESCO 1999 and 2002), highlighting developing practice in 20 low and middle income countries to identify eight approaches for teacher education on inclusive education. We have therefore chosen to organise this section according to these eight approaches. This will enable us to see whether these 11-year-old recommended approaches remain valid according to the current literature, and whether alternative or additional strategies have emerged in the subsequent literature.

3.3.1. Professional development as part of a whole-system approach to change

Open File suggestion 1: “Professional development needs to be seen as part of a whole-system approach to change”

“It seems to be important not to rely too heavily on short training inputs as the only motor for change. Countries have found it much more effective to ensure that changes in professional development are sustained over time and that they are accompanied by changes in other aspects of the system – funding support, for instance, or assessment procedures – so that newly-trained teachers are enabled to work on the application of new practices” (UNESCO, 2001a. p.43).

This suggestion made by the Open File is, of course, in line with the systemic changes advocated by the social model.

The MUSTER research project into teacher education in Ghana, Lesotho, Malawi, South Africa and Trinidad and Tobago (Lewin and Stuart, 2003), carried out in-depth investigation into the teacher education systems in these countries. Faced with a massive shortfall in teachers in Africa and antiquated training that was disconnected from practice, they suggest the following:

- more strategic use of untrained teachers supported by on-the-job training and distance learning, though this requires sufficiently motivated school-based mentors
- modularising pre-service teacher education, with the development of skills and competencies through a cumulative model linked to a progressive career structure
- a staircase approach to teacher education linked to rewards, embedding the training process firmly in schools, where more training would take place closer to professional practice, helping to overcome the gap between theory and practice
- induction and continuing professional development for teacher educators at school and college levels to make them aware of recent developments, such as the inclusion of children with disabilities
- colleges could “move away from being monotechnic institutions focused purely on residential long course qualifications, towards becoming dynamically integrated nodes of innovation, professional development activity, and advisory support” (ibid, p.xxxi-xxxii).

Such recommendations are now being used to reform teacher education at a macro level, but what does this mean at the school level?

Every teacher responsible for all learners

One of the challenges that emerges frequently in the literature, in relation to achieving systemic change towards inclusion, is the challenge of convincing teachers that they have a responsibility to uphold the education rights of *all* learners. The World Report on Disability (WHO, 2011, p.222) emphasises the need for teacher education on inclusion to be about attitudes and values, not just about knowledge and skills. Jordan et al (2009) draw on two decades of research to conclude that effective inclusion is effective for all students; and teachers who believe students with SENs are their responsibility are more effective teachers overall. These conclusions from Jordan et al link to the argument made in Section 3.1.1. that education standards and inclusion are not mutually exclusive, indeed inclusion can enhance standards.

But how does an education system’s approach to teacher professional development achieve a situation in which all teachers believe they are responsible for all learners, especially where there has historically been segregated special education, relieving mainstream teachers of the responsibility of teaching many children?

Embedded/permeated approach to inclusion training for teachers

Much of the literature reviewed proposes a model for delivering teacher education around inclusion that is integrated, embedded or permeated. This means the inclusion-related training is part of the training given to *all* teachers across the lifespan of their professional careers, and is reinforced within *every element* of their training.

“The principles and practices of inclusive education cannot be taught effectively through separate courses. There needs to be a constant message running through all pre-service and in-service courses, distance learning programmes, informal exchange opportunities, mentoring systems and cluster school programmes” (Stubbs, 2011, p.9).

EADSNE’s literature review on training for inclusion also stresses that:

“Finding ways for inclusion to feature in all these learning opportunities is vital. Inclusion is – and must be seen as – a way of perceiving the diverse world rather than a separate topic that is only focused on sometimes. In teacher education, there is a move towards supporting the ‘permeation’ or ‘embedded’ model, where inclusion is an integral part of the curriculum for all trainees, rather than an optional add-on, or a course that only some trainees or teachers attend” (EADSNE, 2010, p.21).

Experiences of inclusion as a compulsory dimension in training for all teachers are recorded in the literature, for instance within programmes in Vietnam (Catholic Relief Service, 2010 p.9) and Lao PDR (Grimes, 2009, p.100).

The role of separate courses within a whole-system approach

Separate course on inclusive education (or in many places, on ‘special needs education’) have been, and often remain, the only formal training option for teachers in this area. Using separate courses to prepare teachers to teach children with disabilities may have some impact on improving their access to school. However, as Lewis (2009a, p.37) found, in Ethiopia and Rwanda, while more children with disabilities attended school as a result of training courses in special education, they were not necessarily attending in inclusive settings.

EADSNE’s (2010, p.21) literature review stresses that separate modules or units on special education or inclusion, which are not obligatory for all trainees, serve to reinforce the belief that some children are not the responsibility of regular teachers. In other words, these courses increase a sense of segregation and separation between mainstream teaching for the majority of learners and ‘special’ teaching for a minority.

Rouse (2012) also states that preparing teachers for inclusion has long been an elusive goal because of the separate certification and accreditation for teachers preparing to work in special education in many countries. He believes this “absolves the rest of the education system from taking responsibility for all children’s learning” (ibid, p.xviii). However, he also stresses that the absence (or removal) of separate routes for training does not mean that teachers trained to work in regular schools are automatically well prepared for inclusion.

Reviewing primary teacher education in Bangladesh, Ehsan (2011) confirms this sense of separation. The review mentions a certificate in education training in special education, which is free for all primary teachers, but then highlights its key weaknesses: the lack of a follow-up system, and lack of interaction with the mainstream education and training system (ibid, pp.31-32).

Developing an embedded/permeation model of teacher education need not preclude the running of 'stand-alone' modules in addition to having embedded learning about inclusion. Indeed, research in Northern Ireland showed that teachers preferred this (Winter, 2005 p.5).

It remains common practice for countries to have a system of specialist training or modules, even when the goal is inclusion. For example, in Papua New Guinea (PNG), a Bachelor of Special Education degree programme is being used to train school principals and teachers, in the 'hope' that it will promote inclusive education (Gentle 2006, p.10). There is also evidence from Hong Kong that separate 20-hour training modules can make a difference, but they are not sufficient in themselves to promote and sustain inclusion (Stella, Forlin and Lan, 2007, p.175). The development provides a challenge to schools and teachers, in the last 12 years of large numbers of children with disabilities being placed in Hong Kong mainstream schools. As Ming-tak Hue (2012) identifies after 9 years of delivery of in-service training to teachers in Hong Kong there are still major barriers in the rigid school discipline system failing to respond to a more humanistic approach, in the existing pastoral system not being child friendly, and the curriculum and assessment, as fixed by the Government, being too rigid.

3.3.2. School-based training

Open File suggestion: "School-based training, aimed at supporting school development, can be particularly powerful in the early stages of the move towards more inclusive education"

"Many successful training programmes, therefore, have been based around providing external support to schools and at the same time enabling teachers in those schools to support each other" (UNESCO, 2001a, p.44).

A related issue, which is increasingly emerging in the literature, and particularly in evaluations of education projects/programmes, is the overall lack of practical, hands-on learning that teachers and trainee teachers are exposed to. This is particularly the case with pre-service training, which in many countries remains heavily biased towards learning the theory of inclusive education without opportunities to practise and gain confidence with teaching methods needed to support diverse learners. Research into pre-service training in low-income countries suggests that the dynamic linking of college-based learning to its application in the classroom is the exception rather than the rule (Matteson, 2006). However, even in-service training provision can fail to offer school/classroom-based learning opportunities, instead focusing on learning theory in a workshop setting.

The Rewrite the Future Programme is an initiative on improving literacy, supported by Save the Children (2012). The training offered in many of the countries has focused on curriculum content, teaching methodology, child rights and teaching without physical and humiliating punishment, active teaching and learning methods, and language courses. An evaluation of the programme, covering Angola, Afghanistan, Nepal and South Sudan, "found that school-based training and cluster-based systems were proving effective in changing teacher beliefs and pedagogic practices and improving attendance and completion rates, with Angola showing the largest improvement in learning outcomes between 2008 and 2010" (Save the Children, 2012, p.14).

In Kyrgyzstan from 2003, training was conducted in a number of 'pilot professional development schools' and also 84 cluster schools. Resource trainers acted as mentors to existing teachers in mainstream schools, and there was much sharing of experience at seminars. This helped teachers to tackle many existing obstacles to inclusion. The next step was to introduce the *Index for Inclusion*. This resource pack helps schools to change policies, practices and cultures within schools. Co-ordination

groups of teachers, parents, administrators and children were formed. In addition, a course for university students was developed entitled 'Inclusive Education Principles and Practices.' This is delivered by the Resource Trainers (Djumagulova, 2006, p.15).

Shenkuti and Focas Licht (2005) report on a project in Ethiopia supported by Save the Children through which resource teachers assist classroom teachers to find ways to include excluded groups in the learning process. Resource and classroom teachers received in-service training on the idea of 'presence, participation and achievement' – three essential elements of inclusive education. As part of the training, the teachers had to go back to their classes and do observation and investigation work (into 'presence, participation and achievement'). They presented case studies at the next workshop, and continued to do more observations and investigations after that. At a third workshop, teachers learned about action research (the 'look-think-act' process), and were asked to return to their schools and carry out a simple action research cycle – identifying and analysing a barrier to inclusion and experimenting with some actions. At a fourth workshop teachers discussed their experiences, shared ideas and motivated each other to keep doing more action research to learn more about, and solve, more inclusion challenges. This approach to practical training not only helped teachers to respond better to children at risk of exclusion, but also helped teachers to start working together on solving problems, where previously they had all worked in isolation (and as a result had felt over-burdened).

UNESCO's Policy Guidelines on Inclusion in Education (2009, p.20) support the move to school-based teacher education and highlight the importance of a shift away from theoretical pre-service teacher education towards 'continuous in-service development' of teachers. This is linked to the principle of 'universal design', meaning design that is appropriate for all, regardless of age, ability, characteristics. This is a principle that is promoted in the UNCRPD. However, Rouse (2012, p.xviii) indicates that institutions have not transformed their programmes to reflect this principle, despite the reality of diversity in schools. Theory is important in the development of inclusive attitudes and values as part of a move to more school placement in initial training is welcome. This will only be as good the understanding of inclusion and the quality of provision for children with disabilities often the best professional development can be undercut by teacher's conservative ethos and attitudes. To be effective attention must be paid to a structured plan of post training implementation.

Drawing on the Latin American experience, Vaillant (2011) highlights what happens when there is a lack of school/classroom-based practical learning/training.

"Many studies conducted on education in Latin America stress that teachers generally do not apply what they have learned during their professional development courses. This likely happens because course content appears to be too distant from teachers' realities. Professional development does not serve its purpose unless teachers are monitored and given classroom-level technical assistance for months after they complete their training. In practice, teachers tend to teach in the style in which they were taught themselves. In Latin America, this too often has meant a teacher-centered approach that relies on copying and memorization. Instead of understanding students' needs based on formative assessment practices and planning instruction to meet those needs is not yet common practice in Latin America" (Vaillant, 2011, p.8).

3.3.3. Cascade models

Open File suggestion: "Where training resources are scarce, cascade models can enable training to be disseminated throughout the system"

“...where countries are attempting more widespread change, such approaches [as school-based training] cannot reach all the teachers involved. One solution to this problem is to opt for ‘cascade’ models in which a relatively small number of professionals is trained, who then have to disseminate (or ‘cascade’) their skills and knowledge to wider groups, who in turn cascade to others” (UNESCO 2001a, p.46)

Cascade models seem to have become particularly popular within NGO programmes and/or donor funded programmes, quite likely because they appear to be very cost effective – large numbers of teachers can be ‘reached’ with a relatively small investment of training at the ‘top’ of the cascade.

Numerous examples exist. In Mongolia, for instance, a cascade system is being used to train teachers who pass on knowledge, skills and motivation to others. Particular care is taken to choose teachers for the initial training who are dedicated and committed to inclusion (Ramsden ,2006, p.19).

However, in evaluating UNESCOs efforts in teacher education for inclusion, Tomlinson et al (2004) highlight some of the downsides to cascade training:

“The cascade model was common but there are some dangers inherent in it: in that the message can become more diluted and potentially distorted or inaccurate the further down the cascade ” (Tomlinson et al, 2004, p.32).

Stubbs (2011), in reviewing teacher education for inclusion, rejects the cascade approach and points out that:

“One of the main criticisms from teachers in many countries is that their initial training (and even any subsequent in-service training) involved insufficient or irrelevant practical experience in the classroom. The practical experience needs to reflect the theoretical input. In relation to inclusion, this means that trainee teachers need experience of working collaboratively in inclusive settings, being aware of their own assumptions and behaviours, and practising problem-solving and creative solutions” (Stubbs, 2011, p.8).

In a tightly controlled approach where implementation by the participants is monitored cascade training can be highly successful. For example the first attempt to use behaviourist approaches to children with severe learning difficulty-the Education for the Developmentally Young- run by the Hester Adrien Research Centre in Manchester managed to launch this method into regular and equally successful, use in schools across England from a one week training course for one staff member from each local authority. This was made more incredible because a large part of the training was in schools with children with SLD.(McBrien, J, 1981).

A qualitative study in the Kwa Zulu Natal Province of South Africa by Ntombela (2009) also highlighted the problems with a cascade approach. The research examined the extent to which, and the ways in which teachers in the Philani district were trained for the implementation of the Department of Education’s 2001 Education White Paper 6 on Special Needs Education. The findings suggest that the cascade model was ineffective for disseminating innovations and preparing teachers for implementing these innovations. Teachers did not acquire adequate understanding of inclusive education and so the desired re-culturing of schools and classrooms did not occur – with knock-on implications for the implementation of inclusive school and classroom policies and practices.

The World Bank provides a useful list of the advantages and disadvantages of cascade training for teachers:

“Cascade model of teaching training

Well documented problems are:

- Concepts at the top of the cascade do not meet the needs of teachers at grassroots level
- Dilution of the initial training so that the recipient receives scant benefit
- Quality of teaching at grassroots level unable to achieve the objectives of the programme
- Success dependant on quality of the trainers

One-off training courses using the cascade model are particularly vulnerable and for the dissemination of teaching skills have proven largely ineffective.

Advantages of cascade training

- is flexible is participatory
- is field based can train large numbers in a relatively short period,
- makes only moderate demands on professional training resources
- is cost effective empowering
- builds capacity at each level

For cascade training to be effective it must be supported by

- detailed trainer’s materials
- lesson plans
- training resources
- central monitoring
- the trainers at each level must receive on-going professional development.”²³

To this list should be added a planned implementation contract with the school/agency where the training is to be implemented. If the first trainees are the leader(s) of the school this can also improve implementation as school culture changes.

The most effective application of cascade training was in Latin America in 1990’s and involved 28 countries. First, two specialists per country were trained in special education need. These specialists trained an additional 30 people in each country, until 3,000 were ultimately trained (UNESCO, 1995).It is reported this led to some embracing of inclusive education ideas, but it was not formally evaluated.

3.3.4. Distance learning, and alternatives to formal training

Open File suggestion: “Where there are logistical problems in giving teachers access to training, distance learning can be important”

“In many countries there are serious logistical problems in giving teachers access to training because of the considerable distances between remote schools and the larger centres of population. One danger in such situations is that training is offered repeatedly to teachers in urban schools whilst their rural counterparts receive little or nothing. This problem sometimes has been addressed through creating systems of distance education” (UNESCO, 2001a, p.47)

While in 2001 the Open File suggested distance learning an option, if more formal teacher education could not be accessed, there is a growing body of work around offering far more diverse and creative (and indeed inclusive) alternatives to formal training. Distance learning is still an option. Studies still advocate web-based instruction, for instance (Smith and Tylor 2011). Save the Children’s (2012, p.11)

²³ <http://info.worldbank.org/etools/docs/library/241469/PresentationTeachertraining.pdf>, p.4

review of teacher education in low income countries also suggests that “...school-based training **supported by distance learning materials**, school clusters and local support agents is the best way of closing the gap between theory and practice, and raising the quality of teaching and learning in low income countries”.

However, teachers can learn in far more innovative ways than through training, whether face-to-face or virtual. This is perhaps one way in which the literature has moved on since 2001. While the Open File did advocate teacher-to-teacher learning, sharing and co-operation within schools as a way of moving inclusive education forward, there is now a larger body of information about projects facilitating teachers/trainees to engage in more creative, active and inclusive ways of learning (although formal training still dominates). Given today’s complex world and the wide range of diverse communities (including remote rural environments, refugee and conflict situations as well as rapidly changing external contexts) it’s inevitable that inclusion needs to permeate a wider range of teacher development options, not just a narrow version of formal pre-service and in-service trainings.

The growing range of models for delivering teacher education include: distance learning, informal mentoring, school cluster groups, school observation visits, participation in teachers networks, attendance at conferences where teachers themselves present, peer observation and coaching (Stubbs, 2011 p.7; OECD, 2009, p.57-58). Action research approaches are also increasingly used as a way of enabling trainees/teachers to connect theory with reality, and contribute to practical changes in the school/system at the same time (see the Ethiopia example in Section 3.3.2.). One example is the work carried out by the Atlas Alliance in Uganda and Tanzania, through which school children with and without disabilities explained their views and needs relating inclusion to their teachers using photography, drawing and discussion (Lewis, 2008).

The use of cluster schools for supporting teacher education is another increasingly common approach. Save the Children’s Pivotal Schools Model in Egypt has ‘specialized training halls’ which serve clusters of schools. Through collaboration with a university and other partners, experienced teachers were trained to become trainers, and their subsequent training of teachers was periodically observed and monitored. Between 2008 and 2010, Save the Children worked with the Minya Governate to bring the Pivotal Schools Model to all nine districts. A 2009 evaluation showed that there had been improvements in pupil and teacher attendance and in learning results. Teachers were using more active approaches and were convinced of the benefits of these approaches, even in large classes and resource poor contexts. The cascade aspect of the training (see Section 3.3.3) however, was acknowledged to be the weakest element, in need of greater follow up with teachers in the classroom (Save the Children, 2012, p.13).

In Vietnam, key teachers – experienced teachers who have their own class but go out and support other teachers – are used, together with a focus on networking between teachers and training institutions (Catholic Relief Service, 2010).

Study tours within and between countries can also be effective (Lewis, 2009b). Study tours are often used as part of a programme for training trainers, or for giving teachers a chance to experience what teaching and learning is like in another context. They can be expensive yet are often not used to their full potential. Using EENET’s experience of running inclusive education study tours, Lewis (2009b) highlights how to make a tour beneficial for the visitors and the hosts: for instance, involving two-way learning; recognising learning needs and expectations; and incorporating practical, active learning methods into the programme.

The literature highlighted a wide range of forms of delivery used in different countries, for example in Uganda (DANIDA 2005), some teachers are trained to become special needs coordinators, and in Burkino Faso, an NGO for deaf and hearing people trains teachers to work in integrated settings (Imerovic, 2006).

3.3.5. Hierarchy of knowledge

Open File suggestion: “At some point, it will be necessary to review the structures of teacher education. In particular, it will be necessary to set up a ‘hierarchy’ of training opportunities, so that all teachers know something about barriers to learning, and some teachers have the opportunity to develop further expertise”

Singal (2005, p.337), in her review of inclusive education in India, identifies the Project Integrated Education for the Disabled (PIED). The PIED was launched in 1987 in collaboration with UNICEF as:

“A mission to provide equal educational opportunities as well as equal educational experiences to disabled children ... to demonstrate that the general education itself could be geared to meet the educational needs of disabled children. It aimed at providing education for all disabled children in the context of EFA” (Mani, 1994, p.1).

PIED was based on selected geographic areas and launched in ten blocks across the country. PIED used cascade training arranged as a three-tier system. All teachers in a ‘block’ (location) were given training for a week (Level 1 teachers), then 10% of them were selected for six weeks of training (Level 2 teachers). After this, 8-10 teachers per block received specialist training so they could support a range of disabled children, and were then placed in cluster resource centres. The evaluation in 1994 showed increased enrolment and good achievement levels for disabled children, and improvements in the school environment, parental awareness, community collaboration and inter-departmental links (Mani, 1994). In 1999 Mani went further stating: “The PIED experiment is indeed the answer for special education in India and the wonderful work and results of this programme should not remain only an intellectual exercise” (Mani, 1999, p.95).

However, Ainscow et al (1995, cited in Singal, 2005), were more critical of PIED, indicating that the approach continued to encourage categorization and labelling of children and the withdrawal of children with special needs from certain activities. They also highlighted that while the enrolment of children with special needs did increase, there was a parallel increase in the number of children already in schools, who were designated as having special needs. They found that the learner-centred teacher education programme was unsuccessful and remained very high cost.

The UNESCO(1993) Teacher Education Resource Pack, an initiative carried out under the guidance of Ainscow *et al.*, was launched in 1991 to bring children with special needs into the classroom. The project was based on the view that “the way forward was to reform schools in ways that will make them respond positively to pupil diversity, seeing individual differences as something to be nurtured and celebrated” (Ainscow et al 1995 p.136). The project involved 338 experienced teachers, 248 pre-service teachers, 9,896 children and 115 schools. In two of the schools, a whole-school approach was adopted and, as noted by Ahuja (1996), it was particularly effective. This, Ahuja noted, showed that teachers have few reservations in meeting special needs if provided with appropriate training and support to assist teachers to work collaboratively and take responsibility for their own learning. Thus, Ainscow *et al.* (1995, p. 131) conclude that “relatively small changes in schooling, supported by better teacher preparation, can facilitate the education of many children with disabilities and make better arrangements for many others who experience difficulties in learning”.

More recently, Sarva Shiksha Abhiyan (SSA) is an attempt to bring in-service teacher education for inclusive education to scale, focused largely on children with disabilities. SSA training in each state provides for a hierarchy of courses: a short course of 1-3 days, a 20-day course and a 45-90-day course to provide expertise on certain impairments such as Braille and Sign Language. The programme also provides for aides and appliances, home education (for children with severe impairments) and specialist peripatetic teachers. A recent report by IDA and the Indian National Assembly of People with Disabilities examining budget allocation and use, suggest a high proportion of funding allocated to this programme (which they point out is inadequate) is not being spent due to bureaucratic barriers.²⁴

SSA only applies to state schools, yet in India a growing number of children attend either state aided or unaided private schools. A study examining the position of children with disabilities in 7 private schools with extra resource teachers in Mumbai, shows that there was widespread bullying, the children had a low concept of self, that the class teachers did not know what to do and had had no training in their pre-service. (Das & Kattumuri, 2010). A strong argument for mandatory basic training for all teachers on inclusion and meeting the needs of children with disabilities.

Rieser (2012) examines the various projects to develop the capacity of teachers to include children with disabilities in India (including the rolling out of SSA), and highlights the dangers of the hierarchy approach while recognising the need for teachers with specialist knowledge.

“The perception of disability as a problem located in the child, which must be corrected still dominates, and little attention is paid to examining the environmental factors that might impact on the child’s ability to participate. Overall, the emphasis is on giving access to children with disabilities, with little regard to their participation in the classroom, its culture or the curriculum” (Rieser, 2012, p.137).

3.3.6. Train special educators towards inclusion

Open File suggestion: “It will be necessary to give special educators access to training which helps them reorient their roles towards working in inclusive settings”

There is growing recognition in the literature that, while special schools may not be the desired option per se, their resources and expertise – built up over many years in some cases – should not be wasted, and can play a useful role in the development of inclusive education.

UNESCO Bangkok’s (2009b, p.95) guide, “Towards Inclusive Education for Children with Disabilities” suggests that specialist teachers can take on advisory roles, supporting regular teachers to build skills. They may become resource teachers within a school who can advise on and demonstrate teaching strategies needed for working with more severely impaired learners. Some may work in support centres that assist a cluster of schools and/or that assist families in achieving the best education solutions for their children. The guide notes that this requires the continuation of specialist teacher education programmes.

Special schools are increasingly being converted into resource centres. Special school staff then support regular teachers in cluster schools. Several countries in Europe as well as the USA and Canada have adopted this model. In Bangladesh, the cluster approach is used to provide in-service education of teachers through upazila (sub-district) resource centres (Lynch, 2001).

²⁴ Paper presented at UNICEF New York on Friday 14th September 2012. International Disability Alliance.

South Africa's Department of Education White Paper No 6 (2001) put forward the notion of turning special schools into resource centres serving the schools in the surrounding areas. However, progress has been slow due to principals of special schools and district psychologist, who act as gatekeepers for children with disabilities, retaining a medical model approach (OECD, 2008; Naicker, 2006 and Rieser, 2012).

See also Section 3.9 for further debate on the issue of the relationship between special and mainstream or inclusive schools.

3.3.7. Reorienting teacher trainers

Open File suggestion: "Teacher trainers also may need opportunities for reorienting their role, particularly where mainstream and special education training have traditionally been separate from each other"

See section 3.5 for a detailed look at what the literature says about teacher educators.

3.3.8. Sustained training, and beyond

Open File suggestion: "Training efforts need to be sustained over time in a planned, systemic way"

The Open File envisaged sustained and systematic teacher education mostly in terms of schools developing training plans, governments offering incentives to teachers to keep engaging in training, and school inspection mechanisms monitoring training in inclusive education (UNESCO 2001a, p.52).

Holistic approaches and the whole-school environment

However, as indicated in Section 3.3.4, much more diverse methods of educating teachers about inclusive education are evolving, beyond the delivery of training – and the literature suggests this is a positive move. Williams (2009, p.5) highlights the inherently conservative nature of schools and teacher education. He explains that newly trained teachers may have enthusiasm and skills relating to inclusion, but they quickly get absorbed into the status quo of the school, and find it impossible to innovate or to put into practice what they have learned. Whole-school approaches to inclusion and change, with teacher education being tackled from all angles and through different methods, are therefore vital.

A positive example of this is in Kyrgyzstan where a range of approaches are being used (resource teachers, the *Index for Inclusion*, mentoring) to support whole-school change with active involvement from different stakeholder groups including parents and children (Djumagulova, 2006, pp.8-9).

Another example of a longer-term approach is the work done in Zanzibar with parents, DPOs and the Ministry of Education. Training was provided and films used to spread good practice (leading to more than 1,000 young people, predominantly with learning difficulties, re-entering school or taking up vocational education (McConkey, Mariga and Maalim, 2007).

A move towards school-based and cluster-based training is evident in the literature, reflecting a clear shift towards sustained whole-school approaches and a more rights-based approach, rather than the training of individual teachers via a cascade or short course model (Save the Children, 2008). Many of Save the Children's country programmes, for instance, have been providing training for teacher

educators, head teachers, advisors and inspectors to equip them with the knowledge and skills needed to training at the school and cluster level (ibid, p.27).

Continuing professional development

Many authors acknowledge that pre-service teacher education cannot prepare teachers for every challenge that they may meet in their careers, and so teacher education needs to be perceived as a life-long process of professional development (Rouse, 2012, p. xviii). Indeed, many of the more successful approaches to educating teachers for inclusion are at the in-service stage, when teachers have some experience of teaching, and have real life challenges and children to work with. The Kyrgyzstan programme mentioned above is one such example (Djumagulova, 2006, pp.8-9), as is the work in northern Zambia, where primary school teachers were involved in participatory action research and documenting their experiences of making their schools more inclusive (Kaplan, 2006). This evolved into the teachers producing a collection of reflective accounts (with publishing support from EENET) which they considered akin to their own inclusion manual; new teachers joining their schools were required to familiarise themselves with the action research process and documented results.

Roberts (2011) found, when researching training in a full-service school in South Africa, that the training offered was inadequate, and that more planning and thought needs to go into the in-service programme:

“The study was conducted in a primary schools in the North West province that was converted into a full service school in 2008. The findings indicated that educators demonstrated misunderstanding of the Screening, Identification, Assessment and Support strategy. The misunderstanding can be ascribed to the kind of training educators received. The training lacked in-depth content and practical demonstration” (ibid, p.1).

This reinforces the point that, to be effective, in-service training needs to be continuous, reflective, interactive and well led by the principal of the school.

In conducting the current literature review it was much easier to locate examples of in-service inclusion-focused teacher education, than examples of pre-service programmes. This is perhaps explained by the fact that NGOs – upon whom a lot of inclusive education work is dependent – have engaged in in-service programmes far more than pre-service (the latter requiring more complex buy-in from governments that NGOs are not always able or willing to work towards).

The literature also emphasises the need for continuity between pre-service and subsequent training. There is often a gap between ‘antiquated’ pre-service systems and more innovative in-service training. Hardmann et al (2011, p.680) examined teacher education practices in Uganda, Kenya and Tanzania. They observe:

“Ideally, teacher education should be treated holistically and PRESET [pre-service training] should be linked seamlessly to INSET [in-service training] provision, although in practice these linkages are often not made and INSET is developed while antiquated PRESET systems remain... there is a need to adopt a planning continuum that integrates the use of distance education and face-to-face delivery in a 'flexible model', and supports teachers in the classroom by ensuring resources, capacity building and incentives are devolved to those responsible for observation, coaching and assessment.”

The opposite gap is also an issue; in Malawi, teachers were trained in pre-service with the use of a disability toolkit, yet there is no evidence that this is subsequently used in schools (Lynch and Lund, 2011, p.12).

In-service teacher education is perceived by many low income countries as a more effective way of “closing the gap between policy and practice” in order to respond to the demands of the MDGs for teacher education (Save the Children, 2012, p.3). However, the same report points out that effective in-service training needs resourcing and careful planning and monitoring, and in fact, there is no evidence base for which model of teacher education is most effective.

The issue of teachers accepting the responsibility for their own lifelong learning is also highlighted in some of the literature, for instance, UNESCO (2009).

3.3.9. Conclusion

There is a huge diversity of ways of organising training for in-service teachers. The Open File (UNESCO, 2001a) drew on practice in 20 countries in the 1990s to propose ways to organise training. It still seems largely valid 11 years on.

A key finding is that teacher and school change towards inclusive education is much easier if the whole education system aligns with this through linked changes in curriculum, assessment and school finance.

In areas of dire teacher shortage and low income, many alternatives to expensive residential pre-service training are evolving. These include mixtures of in-school, local courses, distance learning and modules at residential college.

A move towards school-based and cluster-based training is evident in the literature, reflecting a clear shift towards sustained whole-school approaches and a more rights-based approach, rather than the training of individual teachers via a cascade or short course model.

There is considerable agreement that all teacher development should be linked to practical application of the ideas. The cascade approach needs a strong implementation framework. The EDY trainees only became accredited on evidence of practical competencies in the classroom. Such schemes are labour intensive. There is growing evidence that those trained in school-based systems are more effective than those trained by cascade models (Save the Children, 2012).

A large amount of specialist knowledge is held by teachers and others trained in the special education sector, but several attempts to transform this into supporting inclusive education have not been successful. Underlining this point, many in traditional special schools feel threatened by moves to inclusion and need to be helped with transforming their skill and knowledge-base to inclusive education, otherwise they are likely to reproduce the segregative solutions that they know. Whole-school approaches, based on transformative methods and supported by a stable staff, school principals and local advisors, seem to be the most effective means of longer-term training for the inclusion of children with disabilities, but the impairment specific knowledge for reasonable accommodations still need to be available e.g Braille, sign-language, communication aids, adapted ICT, equipment and work with children with profound and multiple learning difficulties. This can be provided by turning special schools into resource centres or making specialist teachers peripatetic.

3.4.Culture, values, belief, ethos

3.4.1. Negative teacher attitudes

A lot of documentation indicates the 'unwillingness' of teachers to embrace inclusion. Some studies reflect positive attitudes, and many more reflect a mixed approach (Forlin, 2010b, p.6).

Forlin (2012b) describes holding a global roundtable of teacher educators in 2010. The discussions found that in teacher education for inclusion "negative attitudes still prevail" in all regions, with teachers expressing fear, anxiety and reluctance to include learners with special needs. Pessimistically Forlin thinks, despite responding to global pressures for inclusive policies, "teacher education for inclusion in most regions has been tokenistic at best and non-existent at worst." (ibid, p.4) There is evidence here which suggests the position is better than this in many places, though not adequate.

Oyler (2011, p.125) found that teacher training institute colleagues in USA were critical of discrimination as it related to gender, ethnicity and other forms of diversity, but were less committed in their objections to discrimination based on disability.

3.4.2. Teacher attitudes – changing to positive

As there are many reasons for negative attitudes, it is often more useful to find studies that discover what contributes to teachers becoming positive and motivated about inclusion. Scruggs and Mastropieri (1996) analysed 28 studies conducted from 1958 to 1995 and found that, overwhelmingly, teachers endorse the general concept of providing support to students with disabilities. Nevertheless, only one-third of the teachers felt that they had the time, preparation, resources and skills needed. This continues to be a much-voiced concern: Forlin (2001); Loreman (2002); Jobling and Moni (2004); Sharma, Ee and Desai (2003); Shippen et al (2005); and Lambe and Bones (2006).

Exposure to and working with people with disabilities

A range of literature highlights the importance of trainees/teachers meeting and working with people/children with disabilities if they are to accept and act on inclusive education training. For instance, pre-service teachers who had regular and systematic course contact with persons with disabilities were more likely to feel positive about including students with disabilities, according to Sharma, Forlin and Loreman (2008, p.783). Oyler (2011) also points out that "the more experience teachers have with people with significant disabilities, the more confidence and commitment they express in teaching them". This view is backed up by Bowe, 1978; Hamre and Oyler, 2004; and Shapiro, 1999.

Sharma et al (2009) in Pune, India, found that teacher attitudes were more positive if teachers had exposure to people with disabilities, or had a higher level of education. Similarly, Parasuram (2006) examined the attitudes of two Mumbai groups of teachers to inclusion, and despite checking many variables found the only one that positively influenced attitudes was the amount of personal exposure to people with disabilities. Linked to this, teachers who had a high level of confidence about responding to diversity, had more positive attitudes and impact in classrooms. Studying policies and knowledge about inclusion did not address teacher stress about inclusion, according to Forlin and Chambers (2011), but being exposed to people with disabilities did.

A further example comes from Cambodia. An NGO called Epic Arts has worked with a teacher education college in Kampot, to develop sessions for pre-service student teachers through which they use performance art to work with people with disabilities. This has raised the student teachers'

understanding of disability and confidence to work with disabled learners, though they did also ask for more specific support (such as learning sign language).²⁵

However, Forlin and Chambers (2011) showed that teachers who had most contact with persons with disabilities were *less* supportive of inclusion of students with a broad range of disabilities. Forlin suggests that this may be because they are more aware of the demands on them to fully meet the needs of these students. This again highlights the importance of a comprehensive, whole-school approach and on-going support (Forlin and Chambers, 2011, p.28). Further, as we saw in Sections 2.3 and 2.4 (Peters and Reid, 2009) exposing students to a range of experiences which get them to challenge their disabilist thinking can be highly beneficial in developing inclusive practice for children with disabilities.

More recently, Baglieri and Shapiro (2012) have provided a very useful resource book for teachers. Their rationale is that:

“By understanding disability as a product of culture we can better consider our beliefs and attitudes about disability as amalgamation of social messages and personal experiences. Rather than accepting common, often negative stereotypes of disability and difference, we can teach youngsters to respect and appreciate diversity as a positive idea” (Ibid, Preface).

They go on to demonstrate use of the social model, and disability studies based upon it, to change teacher understanding; and suggest many useful different ways for teachers to raise this issue with their school students to change their perceptions and attitudes as well, so that classrooms become more accepting of difference.

More attention needs to be paid to developing positive attitudes towards people with disabilities among pre-service and in-service teachers. Al Zyoudi et al (2011) for instance, found in Jordan that if trainees left training with a negative attitude towards children with disabilities, then these attitudes were very difficult to change at a later date.

Age and experience

De Boer, Pijl and Minnaert (2011), in a review of 26 studies carried out between 1998 and 2008, found that teachers with the least number of years' experience had more positive attitudes than those with longer service. Yet there are always exceptions, and in Singapore, it was older teachers who had more positive attitudes (Sharma et al, 2003, pp.212-215).

Knowledge levels

A review by Save the Children (2008, p.27) found that educating teachers to develop positive attitudes and behaviours was even more vital than equipping them with knowledge and skills. In other reviews, attitudes are found to be more positive when inclusion has been the policy for a longer time, or when teachers had knowledge about policy and legislation (Sharma et al, 2003). This contrasts with Forlin's findings (above) that indicate that knowledge about policy and legislation does not improve attitudes. A report by Al Zyoudi et al (2011, pp.1-2) found that trainee teachers' attitudes were more positive when the trainees had some knowledge and experience of people with disabilities .

²⁵ Charlene Bredder, VSO Education Adviser, Cambodia, available at: www.inclusive-education-in-action.org/iea/index.php?menuid=25&reporeid=113

Acceptance through practice

Gansore (2006) reports on a Handicap International project in Tanghim Dassrum District, Bukino Faso, backed by the government. Inclusion of children with disabilities was a new idea introduced into the training of teachers in 36 schools. The project found that teachers became enthusiastic about inclusive education when the training content related to everyday concerns and when there was practical work in schools, through which teachers were able to create solutions to real issues. As a result (and using team teaching, differentiated learning strategies and peer teaching) the enrolment of children with disabilities rose from 54 to 228 in two years.

In a global study of primary teachers, attitudes towards including children with disabilities were more positive among those who had received more inclusion training, and most positive when they had experience of inclusion in their classes (De Boer et al, 2011). In Malawi, extremely negative attitudes and discrimination were found in relation to students with albinism, due to superstitious beliefs and lack of knowledge, yet with very simple practical suggestions and education, this was changed (Lynch and Lund, 2011).

Gansore's experience links with the concepts of 'managed experience' and the importance of practical, real life-based training mentioned frequently in the literature. Research in Australia highlights that knowledge about policies and even confidence building is not enough to reduce the concerns of teachers in relation to having students with disabilities in their classrooms (Forlin and Chambers, 2011). They found that when teachers had first-hand experience of inclusion and knew people with disabilities, they became more aware of what was needed and what would be expected of them, and so developed concerns about being able to deliver this. Skills, strategies and support are needed to enable teachers to reduce stress levels and feel more positive about inclusion. This requires on-going professional development and collaboration between universities and schools. (Forlin and Chambers, 2011, p.28).

Timescales

Sharma et al (2009) also emphasises that the timing of when disability is introduced as a topic is important for teacher trainees. If it is introduced too early in the training, it is not as effective at influencing attitudes than if introduced at the mid-point. However, Sharma et al (2009) also quote Forlin's findings, highlighting that not only does too much focus on causes and characteristics of impairments increase negativity, but also that better results come from introducing disability later in the year of the training rather than mid-point.

Culture of positive attitudes

The literature suggests that what motivates teachers to develop positive attitudes and behaviours is related to cultural issues. In Thailand, there is a focus on teachers having 'strong moral characters' capable of loving all their pupils (Narot, 2011 pp.5 and 21).

Stubbs (1995) relates experience of programmes in very poor contexts, where teachers are enthusiastic about inclusion because they perceive themselves and their communities as 'resourceful' and take a problem-solving approach to teaching rather than expecting a blueprint from above (ibid, pp.95-97). In Lesotho, for instance, teachers had a strong sense of Christian duty and community responsibility, which was prioritised over individual development, and this motivated them to work hard to ensure students with disabilities were included despite lack of resources and overcrowding (ibid, p.84). Shifting from negative to positive attitudes was frequently experienced like a 'conversion' – once the teachers understood that children with disabilities could learn and had a right to learn,

they felt a strong corresponding duty, or moral obligation, similar to that described in Thailand, (Narot, 2011).

Dyer et al (2004, pp.41,45-49) stresses the importance of using local knowledge and local engagement in teacher education, not just focusing on skill transfer.

The idea of perceiving difference as a resource, and not as a problem, is also gaining ground within teaching culture. EENET's action research project, for instance, was entitled 'Learning from Difference',²⁶ and Oyler (2011, p.6) explains "In our program,²⁷ we take these differences as a given, and work toward preparing teachers to assume difference, and urge them to teach inclusively—not in spite of these differences but because of these differences").

3.4.4. Discrimination

Studies abound about the way in which teachers discriminate in the classroom. For example, in Lao PDR, 40% of teacher educators were found to have discriminated against their students based on sex, ethnicity, social or physical status in relation to opportunities for participation (DTE MoE Lao, 2011, p.15).

Explicit strategies are needed to help teachers/student teachers reflect on their attitudes and learn about others. EADSNE 2010 (p.43) suggest:

"[extended practical experiences] presented in simultaneous, closely interwoven coursework; Explicit strategies [to] help students (1) confront their own beliefs and assumptions about learning and students and (2) learn about the experiences of people different from themselves... Case study methods, teacher research, performance assessment and portfolio evaluation [to] apply learning to real problems of practice".

3.4.5. Collaboration and support

Traditionally, teachers work alone and survive or thrive on their own in the classroom. Recommendations and evaluations repeatedly mention the benefits, and even the need, for teachers to collaborate – with a wide range of stakeholders as well as each other – in order for inclusion to succeed. Collaboration, the willingness and ability to work with others is one of four core values highlighted by EADSNE for teachers to cultivate in inclusive environments.

"Teachers need to be able to seek and use the support of other actors who can serve as valuable resources in inclusive education, such as support staff, parents, communities, school authorities..." (EADSNE, 2010, p.23).

3.4.6. Primary stakeholders

Attitudes towards the role of stakeholders in inclusive education and teacher education are not always positive. It was mentioned earlier (in Section 3.1.2), that activists often push the agenda for educational reform, and educationalists are not consulted. Further, it is often assumed that teachers are the primary stakeholders, and yet actually the students are the main primary stakeholders, and they are even more rarely consulted and involved than their teachers.

²⁶ See various documents from the project here:

www.eenet.org.uk/resources/resource_search.php?theme=ar&date=0&author=0&publisher=0&type=0&country=0

²⁷ Masters teacher preparation course at Teachers College, Columbia University in New York

There is a movement to involve students in school councils, and various NGO projects have sought to consult children about their views on inclusive education and teachers/teaching. Lewis (2008) demonstrated how disabled and non-disabled school students in Uganda and Tanzania could use photography and discussion to come up with thinking to challenge their teachers' conceptions of inclusion. However, the potential for proactively involving students with disabilities in influencing the training of teachers has yet to be properly explored.

“Teachers need to be motivated, to be well informed about and understand our needs. They need to be well trained, ask us what we need and to be well co-ordinated among themselves”. The views of disabled young people in the Lisbon Declaration (Soriano et al., 2008, p.22, cited in EADSNE, 2010, p.43).

3.4.7. Labelling

In some inclusive settings, labelling arises out of a (well-meaning if misplaced) desire to highlight and address specific needs. Yet labelling very often increases segregation and stigma:

“knowing a student has a label (disabled) pre-disposes a teacher to look for deficits associated with that label and respond to the student as if they actually had those characteristics” (Broderick et al, 2005, p.200).

This is why a comprehensive, whole environment approach would also seek to have high expectations for all learners and would ensure teachers focused on creating an environment for learning. Rieser (2007) writing from a historical perspective in a book aimed at trainee teachers, makes clear the importance of the language we use and what it signifies:

“The inheritance of the past conditions current attitudes, policies and practice towards disabled children and young people in society and within education. This is nowhere more clearly demonstrated and symbolized than in the language used. Take, for example the negative connotations associated with ‘cripple’ (without power) ‘sufferer’, ‘invalid’ and ‘handicapped’ (commonly used as a noun to describe children, when it is actually a verb meaning imposed disadvantage from beyond the person)....

Within education, impairing condition labels such as ‘epileptic’ and ‘diabetic’ and evaluative labels such as ‘educationally sub-normal’ or ‘physically handicapped’ (*in the UK*) have been replaced by labels based on bands of need...for example ‘MLD’ (moderate learning difficulty) or ‘SLD’ (severe learning difficulty). Inevitably, since children are assessed to fit these categories of need, they become known by their label and their destination, which tends to be specific separate provision” (Rieser, 2007, p.166).

Clearly an important element of teacher education for inclusion is to examine the language used and its meaning to encourage a Disability Equality approach.

3.4.8. Conclusion

Teachers have an unwillingness to embrace the inclusion of children with disabilities. They support the idea but don't feel confident that they know how to make it work. These are mainly studies of pre-service teachers around the world.

Just exposing teachers to disabled people may improve their attitudes, but in some cases this leads them to becoming more anxious. However, if they are immersed in disability studies they empathise and are much more supportive. Discriminatory attitudes are still a feature of some teachers' thinking, especially those who have been in the profession longer.

Discrete courses have little positive impact on attitudes, but permeation across their whole course makes them feel more prepared.

Across all levels of training, practice with knowledgeable and adept colleagues makes the most positive impact. Collaborative working in a team of colleagues provides self-confidence and enhances methodology of inclusive education.

Labelling of children with disabilities can reinforce negative attitudes and old paradigm thinking among teachers.

3.5. Teacher educators

3.5.1. Training and induction for teacher educators

The EADSNE review on teacher education for inclusion in Europe found that teacher educators lacked “knowledge, understanding, commitment and experience” to teach about inclusive education. Yet there is generally no formal induction for teacher educators, even though it requires very different skills from classroom teaching (EADSNE, 2010, pp.41-42). This point is highlighted by Forlin who states that it is unrealistic to expect teacher educators to use innovative approaches when they have had no preparation themselves (Forlin, 2012b, p.7).

It was found in Lao PDR that teacher educators not only need ‘training’ but also the same practical classroom experiences and observation of child-centred approaches as their teacher trainees (Grimes, 2009, p.100).

Vietnam offers an example of this is being addressed. A nationwide programme aimed to ‘upskill’ all teacher educators so that they had the necessary skills, curriculum and pedagogical knowledge to educate teachers for inclusion. There was a strong focus on self-critical reflection which was also important in enabling teacher educators to reflect on their own responses to diversity (Forlin and Nguyet, 2010, p.36 and p.42). Forty-seven university teachers of teachers from six universities, three colleges and a centre participated in a five-day course. At the outset, 85% did not understand the concept of inclusive education and all but two did not believe it was effective. By the end of the course, all were much more accepting, though they still wanted more information on ‘best practices’ (ibid, p.39).

3.5.2. Self-critical reflection and modelling inclusion

The EADSNE review highlighted the importance of teacher educators having critical self-awareness, and being models of reflective inclusive practice themselves.

“Teacher educators need to develop a self-critical awareness of their own beliefs, attitudes and expectations, and their own culture, bias and discriminatory practices. They must also be models of reflective practice themselves – so in relation to inclusion, modelling inclusive training and environments. The teacher educators not only teach about inclusive teaching, they teach by teaching it. However, this modelling must be explicit and connect the behaviour to theory to be most effective. Research found that implicit modelling has a lower impact” (EADSNE, 2010, p.41-42).

Teacher reflexivity has been highlighted as an important quality for teacher education for the Indian context, in general (Dyer et al, 2002, pp.337, 344 and 348). Some researchers found that modelling needs to be explicit in order to be effective, so in other words, teacher educators not only need to practise what they preach, but also to know *how and why* their own behaviours and attitudes promote inclusion, and be able to make that clear to trainees. The way in which teacher educators model inclusion could be more important than the content of what they teach (Korthagen et al, 2005, p.588).

3.5.3. Co-teaching and collaboration

The literature in general highlights the importance of collaboration and co-teaching in inclusive settings. Yet the EADSNE review on teacher education found that there was no curriculum and no culture supporting co-teaching or collaboration between teacher educators. If co-teaching could be modelled for teacher trainees, it could create a paradigm shift, according to Nevin et al (2009, pp.569-

574, cited in EADSNE, 2010, p.42). Forlin also found that team teaching or co-teaching is being promulgated as a best practice for inclusion. She highlights an example from Turkey, where it was found that co-teaching was effective if there was time to plan collaboratively and if training was given in co-operation skills (Gurger et al 2011, cited in Forlin (ed), 2012, p.88).

There are different forms of co-teaching. For example Harpell (2010, p.195) identifies:

- “One person teaching, one assisting
- Station teaching (teachers are based at 3 different stations and groups of learners rotate through the stations)
- parallel teaching - dividing a class into two equal groups, or alternatively, one larger group and one smaller group requiring more individual attention, and
- team teaching - both teachers working together”.

The last, with adequate joint planning time, is also important when other adults-parents or teaching assistants are working alongside the teacher. (Moran and Abbot,2002)

3.5.4. Teacher educators with disabilities

In order to be a teacher educator one usually has to have been a trained teacher first. There are often medical restrictions placed in the way of disabled people becoming teachers even when they are suitably qualified, making it inevitably more difficult for them to become teacher educators. This point is well illustrated by the General Secretary of the National Union of Teachers (England and Wales) the largest teachers union in Europe (NUT, 2000, para.5):

“Too often, employers see teachers with disabilities as a liability rather than an asset, and unfortunately many teachers are eased out into early retirement against their wishes. The NUT believes emphasis should be given to the significant contribution made to society by disabled people and to their key roles. Teachers with disabilities can help to break down barriers against discrimination. There are many examples to show how teachers with disabilities can be extremely effective, given a little extra support and positive attitudes, and can make a valued contribution in their schools.”

A United States perspective of reasonable accommodations is provided by the Job Accommodation Bureau (2012) which gives a useful list of the many accommodations that can allow teachers and teacher educators with disabilities to carry out their job.

The literature highlights the importance of having disabled teacher educators who can be role models. For instance, in Bangladesh, a national disability organisation– and the national umbrella body NFOWD – has several trainers who have visual impairment or other impairments, and they are important role models for both teacher trainees and young people.

If people with disabilities are not allowed access to teaching they will not be able to become teacher educators. The picture of access to education is very mixed around the world. There are 400 teachers with a visual impairment employed as mainstream teachers in Nepal – following the 1989 change of government and pressure by the association of people with visual impairment for their employment. Global Deaf Connection is based in the USA and provides mentoring for trainee deaf teachers of the deaf in Africa; Kenya has been quite successful.²⁸

²⁸ Personal Communication with Susie Miles of EENET and Manchester University.

3.5.5. Profiles and recruitment of teacher educators

One challenge is that reviews of teacher education do not generally disaggregate information according to disability, so we do not have accurate information about disabled teacher educators. In a review of teacher education facilities in Lao PDR, there was a strong focus on gender, and it was found that teacher educators were selected according to several criteria including academic background, morality and 'good health', but there was no mention of the importance of selecting teacher educators with disabilities. It is not clear whether this last stipulation ('good health') would result in discrimination *against* potential teacher educators with disabilities (DTE MoE Lao, 2011, pp.12-13).

3.5.6. Specialist teacher educators

The role of special educators and staff from special schools in the mainstream teacher training process is gaining attention. The reviewed literature sounds notes of caution in this respect. For instance, Lynch and Lund (2011, p.3 and p.12) recounted how, in Malawi, teacher educators from the Special Education college told teacher trainees that albinism leads to blindness, and so trainee teachers should teach Braille to children with albinism. This is not correct and led to inappropriate interventions with pupils as well as wasted time and resources.

Mainstream teachers and educators tend to believe that inclusion requires specialists and specialist knowledge, yet the example above shows that it may not always be sensible or even safe to rely on 'expert' knowledge without question. Rouse (2008, p.17) also states that "there are still unanswered questions about the purpose and nature of specialist knowledge in the area of additional support needs".

Lewis (2009a) recounts a promising example from Rwanda (where census figures revealed 217,861 disabled people aged under 19 years and 105,104 aged 5–14 years):

"Handicap International's work in Rwanda focuses on developing sustainable links between special centres for disabled children and local mainstream schools, in order to increase the inclusion of disabled learners in their communities and mainstream schools.

The work recognises the resources and expertise within special schools and uses this to offer quality education for disabled learners through a wider range of options than just special schools. Handicap International has been raising the capacity of centres for children with profound and multiple learning disabilities to become resource centres for local schools that are trying to develop inclusive education approaches. Centre staff have received management training and staff at local mainstream schools have received disability awareness training and teacher training" (Lewis, 2009a, p.36).

See also Section 3.9 for further debate on the issue of the relationship between special and mainstream or inclusive schools.

3.5.7. Conclusion

Teacher educators generally lack knowledge, understanding, commitment and experience to include children with disabilities. Specialists in special needs have the knowledge and skills but often do not know how to apply it in mainstream inclusion. Reflectivity, co-teaching and collaboration will help overcome some of these barriers.

In Vietnam, a week's training for teacher trainers meant they felt more comfortable and changed their thinking.

There are very few disabled teacher trainers, as the medical restrictions on entry to teaching also impact upon them. Where they take on this role through DPOs they have proved very effective at influencing trainee teachers.

3.6. Teacher trainees

3.6.1. Professionalization, identity and incentives

Many of the lessons from research documented in the reviewed literature apply to the profession of teaching in general – there are challenges in recruitment, provision of incentives and support for on-going professional development across the board, not just in relation to inclusion but across the board. In recent years, there have been huge changes in the teaching environment and the external environment. This affects how teachers perceive themselves and their roles and how they understand what they have been trained for, and this inevitably affects their willingness and ability to tackle inclusion (Rouse, 2008, pp.8-9).

Umansky (2005), examining teaching in Latin America, observes that the salary scale usually gives priority to those with more years of experience. The only way to earn more is to leave the classroom and become a principal or supervisor. Some researchers suggest that increasing the salaries in Latin America could draw higher quality candidates into the profession and reduce the need for teachers to work double shifts or multiple jobs.

Incentives (such as higher pay) can help professionalise teaching, retain teachers and inspire them to face the many challenges – not just of inclusion but teaching in general. Incentives could include better living conditions and home leave (UNESCO, 2009, p.17). In Latin America, creating an award system for teachers has proved successful in motivating them and raising status (Vaillent, 2011). The initiative has mainly focused on innovative broad brush inclusion approaches:

“ In recent years, various Latin American countries have worked to improve the image of the teacher, by rewarding the most effective educators and by identifying and promoting successful teaching practices, especially in inclusive education. These initiatives have varied greatly. In some countries (Mexico and Peru), the awards are open only to teachers who work in the public sector, while in others (Brazil, Colombia, and Guatemala), they include teachers from both the public and private sectors. In addition, some initiatives include only basic education teachers, while others include secondary teachers.

All the initiatives require the teacher to be implementing a project or an innovative education strategy, and some require that this methodology be implemented for a specific period of time” (ibid, p.9)

In a comprehensive OECD report, teaching ‘special learning needs’ was the area that teachers from 23 OECD countries rated as the aspect that most needed professional development. However, the report also found that in terms of appraisal, the teaching of students with ‘special learning needs’ was not given importance (OECD, 2009, p.48, 146, 153, 156 and others). In Canada, Crawford (2003, p.7) reported that if there is no consistency in teacher trainees’ preparation for inclusion, they can feel “overburdened and stressed”.

3.6.2. Trainees with disabilities

“One of the most important elements in developing inclusive education is the education, training and employment of disabled people as teachers, so that they are role models for both children and the community, and so can change attitudes. Disabled teachers also bring a great understanding of living with an impairment and the adjustments that are necessary to include

disabled learners. Disabled teachers face many of the barriers disabled children and students face, as well as bureaucratic barriers such as the UK regulations on 'fitness to teach'. Despite this, legislation and shifts in attitude have meant, for example, that in 2008/2009 in the UK, 6 per cent of trainee teachers declared themselves disabled. This has gone up from 2.3 per cent in 2001" (Rieser, 2012, p.257).

Anti-discrimination legislation in the UK has proved important in removing barriers to entry and progression within teaching for people with disabilities. The website of the Graduate Teacher Registry – the route into one year postgraduate teacher training - shares this rather ambiguous message that nevertheless is aimed at encouraging graduates with disabilities to enter teaching.

"The Equality Act was introduced in 2010, building on the previous Disability Discrimination Act. Under the Equality Act, it is unlawful for **training providers to discriminate against trainee teachers by treating them less favourably** when offering places and providing services. They have a legal requirement to make 'reasonable adjustments' **so that disabled students are not put at a substantial disadvantage**. In addition, all higher education institutions should have a **Public Sector Equality Duty, which requires them to eliminate discrimination, harassment and victimisation, foster good relations and generally improve disability equality across their institution**. As part of the application process for an initial teacher training course, the law currently requires you to pass a physical and mental fitness to teach test. All applicants have to complete a declaration of health questionnaire and may also be assessed by an occupational health adviser. **The Department for Education recognises that many people with disabilities or long-term health conditions have the health and physical capacity to train to teach**. Furthermore, if you have a disability, the occupational health adviser must consider **all reasonable adjustments** to enable you to meet the Fitness to Teach criteria"²⁹

In many countries there are considerable obstacles to people with disabilities becoming trainee teachers, for example, laws that require trainees to pass a medical before entering college. In Cambodia, the law states that teachers have to be 'free of disabilities' (Kalyanpur, 2011, p.1058; Royal University of Phnom Penh, 2009, p.37). OECD (2009) highlights that teachers have stressed their need for training on how to teach students with 'special learning needs'; yet reports on recruiting and training teachers for diversity focus only on teachers from different ethnic backgrounds and ignore disability (OECD, 2010a, pp.13-16).

There are examples of countries making efforts to recruit teachers with disabilities. For instance, in Mozambique, a national NGO worked closely with a national DPO to train teachers with disabilities. However, the trainee teachers still face challenges and discrimination, such as being denied a salary and a contract. In the case cited, the trainee persevered, won the respect of inspectors and colleagues, and eventually gained a salary and contract (Schurman, 2006, p.21).

In Bangladesh, one review found that out of 14 colleges, there were six trainees with disabilities. The colleges promoted the inclusion of these students through the use special measures such as special seating, allocating an attendant with them in the classroom, 'behaving sympathetically', allocating a ground floor hostel room, and special seating during examinations (Ehsan, 2011, p.ix).

The literature contains various individual case studies of disabled people who have managed to train as teachers. Rieser (2012) cites the case of David who was born blind in Kerala, India. He overcame many barriers to become a teacher in an isolated village school where he is the only teacher:

²⁹ <http://www.gttr.ac.uk/students/disabledtraineeeteachers> Accessed 20.12.2012

“How can a person with an impairment do so much alone? For David, patience, a positive attitude and the urge to give something instead of expecting support from others bring success to his life. He is content with his job and is an inspiration to all. The Kerala branch of the National Association of the Blind recently gave him a computer to help him fulfil his long-standing ambition to become computer literate. Surmounting all odds, David has emerged as a winner and an example to others” (Rieser, 2012, pp.257-8).

However, there are still relatively few stories like this, due to institutional barriers such as iniquitous medical fitness tests and attitudinal barriers among teacher trainers, school principals and administrators. With the right support and accommodations disabled teachers can be successful (Rieser and Mason 1990/1992, p49-60).

3.6.3. Conclusion

Trainees’ recruitment and retention are impacted upon by the professionalization of teachers, their pay and salary structure. Often teachers have to leave the classroom to become a supervisor or principal if they want to achieve a pay increase, which fails to keep effective teachers in the classroom. Awards for good practice can work as an incentive to develop good inclusive practice, as outlined by Vaillent (2010) in Latin America. An OECD (2009) study found that special education needs was the area that teachers in 23 countries most wanted development on.

Recruitment of trainees often excludes disabled candidates on medical grounds, and where accepted, the culture and failure to provide reasonable accommodations often militates against them. Diversity is often interpreted as ethnic or linguistic diversity, excluding disability, when it comes to recruitment.

DPOs in Mozambique and Nepal have campaigned for and got more teachers with disabilities recruited, but these are generally the exception.

3.7. Curriculum

3.7.1. Complex demands

The increasing demands within the educational environment have implications for the curriculum for teacher trainees. UNESCO’s Policy Guidelines on Inclusion in Education mention the need for teachers to be trained in teamwork, skills for working with parents and civil society, ability to adapt to different age groups, interactive methods, ability to respond to gender and the individual needs of all learners, protection, health and safety of all children (UNESCO, 2009, summary of key points). This is by no means a small list of training expectations, on top of learning more general teaching skills and subject-related content.

3.7.2. Permeated/embedded model

Section 3.3.1 offers greater detail about this model, which is particularly relevant to a discussion of curriculum. Forgac’s meta-review of pre-service teacher education highlights the problem with inclusion not being an overarching concept within teacher education curricula, but relegated to separate courses on special needs, and not being aligned to curricula in schools. (Forgacs, 2012, p.7 and 10). This is affirmed by Schaeffer in relation to Vietnam and Cambodia, where inclusion is not understood as an over-arching concept in education (Shaeffer, 2009, section IV, para 2 and 11).

3.7.3. Teacher competencies

Many documents list ideal or expected teacher competencies – which in theory should be developed via the training curriculum.

Williams (2006, pp.3-4) emphasises four key competencies for inclusion:

- Ability to address diverse needs of all learners, even in large, under-resourced classrooms
- Ability to promote child-centred approaches
- Ability to use appropriate, accessible and diversity-based materials
- Ability to innovate and make changes.

The European Training Foundation lists three broad competencies, then a range of others under these three headings:

- personalised approach to learning,
- understanding and respect for diversity,
- commitment to values of social inclusion (European Training Foundation, 2010, p.55).

EADSNE (2011 b, pp.51-52) also lists four core competencies: valuing learners' diversity; supporting all learners; working with others; and professional personal development (meaning that teachers take lifelong responsibility for their *own* learning and development).

Forlin (ed, 2012a, p.86) highlights the following competencies amongst others: knowledge of disability and legislation, strategies; interpersonal communication skills; curriculum development and differentiation. As well as these competencies, Forlin reiterates the importance of 'head, hand and heart' in any approach to teacher education. This relates to work by Shulman on the 'three apprenticeships' of head, hand and heart, meaning knowing, doing and believing. He claims that teachers need a cognitive and evidential basis, technical and practical skills. Finally the 'apprenticeship of the heart' refers to ethical and moral dimensions, attitudes, values and beliefs (Shulman, 2007, cited in Florian and Rouse, 2009, pp.191-193).

Jordan et al have found that effective inclusive teachers demonstrate the following competencies (Jordan et al, 2010, cited in Forlin, 2012a)

- clearly communicating expectations that engage all students in learning,
- setting high expectations for all students,
- establishing routines that free up time for small group and individual instruction,
- spending time with learners who are struggling.

In Scotland, UK, reform of the teacher education curriculum has been based on the understanding that inclusion and standards are not mutually exclusive. To support this, there are three core assumptions that form the basis of this reformed teacher education (Florian and Rouse, 2009, p.600):

- a) teachers must understand that difference is a normal aspect of human development,
- b) they must understand that they are capable of teaching all children,
- c) they must develop collaborative ways of working.

From experience in teacher education in Mexico, Hernández (2010, pp.102-113) lists seven essential components for preparing teachers

1. high social and community content,
2. quality, equality and equity – translated into specific actions,
3. working collaboratively,
4. dialogue – critical discussion,
5. contextual practice – including reflecting critically on own school experience,

6. comprehensive – IE [inclusive education] at all levels and all states of teacher education,
7. counselling and mentoring - working with experienced mentors.

3.7.4. Conclusion

As UNESCO (2009) makes clear, the expectation of a wider model of inclusive education places many demands on teacher education. Inclusive education is still not seen as an overarching concept in the curriculum for pre-service teachers (e.g Vietnam and Cambodia).

In England the core special educational need (SEN) competencies are required to be completed successfully by all trainee teachers. These are trainee teachers should have the opportunity to develop the core skills that enable them to teach all learners. These skills include:

- planning and teaching for inclusion and access to the curriculum
- behaviour management, and an awareness of the emotional and mental health needs of pupils (to build their self-esteem as learners)
- assessment for learning (learning skills)
- an understanding of when professional advice is needed and where to find³⁰

These are backed up by advanced Master level qualifications for Special Educational Needs Coordinators (SENCO) who must be qualified teachers and every state funded school must have a SENCO. There are also on-line courses available for advanced skills in SEN and disability for other teachers³¹. These are comprehensive and full of useful information and activities.³²

Various sources have developed a range of key competencies that teachers should be able to address to become effective inclusive practitioners.

The three adopted throughout the teacher education system in Scotland are particularly useful:

- teachers must understand that difference is a normal aspect of human development,
- they must understand that they are capable of teaching all children,
- they must develop collaborative ways of working.

3.8. Pedagogy

There are two main issues in relation to pedagogy of inclusion: the pedagogy that teachers use in the classroom (and whether or not this is inclusive for all learners); and the pedagogy that is used when training teachers (and whether or not this is inclusive for all trainees, and whether or not it prepares them to subsequently use inclusive pedagogy in the classroom). The two issues are, of course, very closely linked, and therefore sometimes confusingly presented in the literature. Forgacs found this in her review, “Use of teacher-centred rather than learner-centred pedagogy/methodology and therefore very limited participatory methods that encourage student teachers to be active in their own learning process and to use experiential learning; limited interaction, group work or other forms of collaboration between learners, limited use of methods that promote critical thinking, questioning and reflection on their own experience. This is linked also to the fact that many university educators have limited experience themselves of working with these approaches, or working directly with children.” (Forgacs, 2012, p.37). Pedagogy is crucial to pre-service teachers, in-service teachers, school

³⁰ <http://www.education.gov.uk/schools/careers/traininganddevelopment/b00201451/sen-skills/advanced-skills>

³¹ <http://www.education.gov.uk/schools/careers/traininganddevelopment/b00201451/sen-skills/sen-resources/sen-self-study>

³² Advanced SEND skills covering support teachers in mainstream schools who wish to gain specialist skills for teaching pupils with: autism spectrum disorders (ASD); dyslexia or specific learning difficulties (SpLD); speech, language and communication needs (SLCN); behavioural, emotional and social difficulties (BESD); moderate learning difficulties (MLD). <http://www.education.gov.uk/lamb/>

leaders and teacher educators at all levels. It is the thread that links effective inclusive education for all children with disabilities.

3.8.1. Pedagogy in the classroom

Various documents deal with the issue of how to make classroom pedagogy inclusive and supportive. There are numerous guides for teachers on how to do this. One such guide is UNESCO's *Teacher Education Resource Pack Special Needs in the Classroom* (UNESCO, 1993). This sought to move away from the existing approach to special needs in the classroom which focused on labelling and categorising children. Labelling was seen a negative approach which lowers expectations; leaves 'labelled' children working alone; implies the need for additional, special resources that are not always be available; and generally prevents innovation in pedagogy that could benefit all learners. While revising this guide (originally published in 1993), Ainscow (2004, p.29) explained that the guide had originally emerged:

“...as a result of a critique of existing approaches and through the processes of collaborative planning and inquiry. This led us to take the view that the dominant perspective on special needs in education works to the disadvantage of the children it is intended to serve. Furthermore, it can be argued that the domination of this thinking on practice in the field has the effect of preventing overall improvements in schools”.

In an alternative 'curriculum view', educational difficulties are defined in terms of tasks, activities and classroom conditions. Drawing on the school improvement literature and earlier work developing special needs practice in mainstream schools, Ainscow and Muncey (1989, p.35) identified common features of schools experiencing success:

- “Effective leadership from a headteacher who is committed to meeting the needs of all pupils.
- Confidence amongst staff that they can deal with children's individual needs.
 - A sense of optimism that all pupils can succeed.
 - Arrangements for supporting individual members of staff.
 - A commitment to provide a broad and balanced range of curriculum experiences for all children.
 - Systematic procedures for monitoring and reviewing progress” p35 Ainscow 2004.

Ainscow (2004), further reflecting on the most successful school improvement he has been involved with, identifies five common features and good inclusive schools need to reflect this in the pedagogy and systems management their teachers deploy:

- a. “The emphasis has been on development in the context of particular schools and including classroom-based staff development activities.
- b. They have been conducted in ways that have encouraged collaboration between colleagues.
- c. At various stages particular individuals have adopted key roles of leadership and co-ordination.
- d. Timing was important in the sense that change in practice always seems to take longer than anticipated
- e. Continued support for individuals is crucial as they wrestle with new ideas and attempt to develop classroom practice.” p37

The evidence from the above literature suggests that supportive leadership, collaboration and reflective thinking are crucial.

A recent pedagogy programme based on co-agency, transformability and trust (called 'Learning Without Limits') has demonstrated that these three principles, and the methods they lead to, can be used to transform education for all (Hart et al, 2004; Swann et al, 2012).

Mitchell (2008) analyses the various pedagogies and methods that have proved effective for learners with special educational needs: co-operative group teaching; peer tutoring; a supportive classroom climate; social skills training; cognitive strategy instruction; self-regulated learning; memory strategies; phonological awareness and processing; behavioural approaches; functional behavioural assessment; direct instruction, review and practice; formative assessment and feedback; assistive technology; augmentative and alternative communication. Indeed, most of these strategies have been shown to be effective for all learners. Such methods ought therefore to be being taught to teachers/trainee teachers, but are they?

3.8.2. Gaps and challenges in preparing teachers to use inclusive pedagogy in the classroom

Forgac's meta-review of eight countries in the EAPRO and ROSA regions highlights that in most countries the use of teacher-centred rather than learner-centred, participatory pedagogy/methodology persists. She found this was linked to the fact that many university trainers (teacher educators) have limited experience themselves of working with these approaches or of working directly with children, making it hard for them to instil such approaches in their trainees. The review also found limited commitment of teacher education institutions to identifying barriers to inclusion, and limited teaching practice hours, which were not properly supervised. Further there were limited numbers of instructors from diverse groups, including teacher educators with disabilities, and more male instructors than females – all of which impact on new teachers' approaches to pedagogy (Forgacs, 2012, pp39-43).

There is widespread acknowledgement that pedagogy is out of sync with the demands and challenges of the inclusive educational environment. Examining training in the Balkan countries, European Training Foundation (2010, p.47), suggests: "This should move away from the current almost exclusive emphasis on subject content toward a focus on skills, values and attitudes as embodied by the concept of competencies".

3.8.3. Supporting teachers to become collaborative, reflective practitioners

There is increasingly a recognition that teachers already have a lot of knowledge, and need to learn how to make better use of it. This was clear from early experiences in low income countries such as Lesotho and Zambia (Miles, 2009). What teachers lack is often confidence in their own competence when it comes to including children with disabilities. Stubbs, 1995 quotes teachers who had been on a three week course for integrating disabled pupils in Lesotho.

"the awareness-raising and training for the teachers is perceived as a sort of conversion process, whereby they come to 'see the light', they are now really convinced that all children can learn, that they as teachers are responsible for children's learning, and that children are individuals. They respond more appropriately to children who are quiet or a bit slow, and are more aware of the influence of family background and problems on learning".

As one teacher said in a community inspired development of an inclusive primary school with positive action to include girls and children with disabilities, in Douentza District, Mali, one of the poorest areas in the world.

"To begin with we had the commitment to include disabled children, but we did not really believe that they could be in school. Now we have seen for ourselves and we have moved from commitment to conviction!" (WHO, 2010, p29)

Transformability is a concept gaining ground, whereby teachers can transform learning for all pupils, with the pupils 'co-agency' – learning is the responsibility of both teacher and learner (Hart et al, 2004). Another similar concept is 'the ethic of everybody' – a focus on a teaching and learning environment where everybody benefits (Florian and Linklater, 2010, p.372).

Much emphasis is given in the literature to the importance of teachers being educated as reflective practitioners who learn skills of collaboration and team work with other teachers, para-professional and parents (Ainscow, 2004).

Johnson and Johnson (1989) indicated that schools can be structured in one of three possible ways: individualistic (teachers work alone to achieve goals unrelated to their colleagues); competitively (teachers strive to do better than their colleagues); and co-operatively (staff strive for mutual benefit recognising they share a common purpose). The third option is the primary requirement of an effective and inclusive school.

Achieving this third option is not about using methods recommended by expert research, as methods identified in this way are often not replicable in different classroom situations. Instead, methods need to be learned through courses that develop self-reflection, through which teachers develop wider understandings of the nature and outcomes of particular educational events and situations. "This leads to a form of teacher education that encourages teachers to take responsibility for their own professional learning" (Ainscow, 2004, p.47).

3.8.4. Educating teachers in child-centred and interactive pedagogy

There is a lot of general material available on good teaching pedagogy (i.e. child-focused and interactive). Examples include the wealth of materials on the EENET website³³ or UNESCO Bangkok's (2004) Embracing Diversity Toolkit. Many case studies exist, such as a pioneering, though small-scale, inclusive programme in Burkino Faso which uses child-focused activities to improve learning for all, and to include children with hearing impairment. The Integrated Education and Training Centre for Deaf and Hearing People runs teacher training workshops. "We use the workshops to give teachers an insight into the variety of (non-formal) techniques that can and should be used for teaching/learning. E.g: Icebreakers, brainstorming, group and pair activities, role play, using visual images and games etc. We get them to discuss how they feel as workshop participants/learners, and we ask them to discuss ways of learning in the workshop and rules for making the workshop positive and constructive for everyone." Teachers are then asked to run a 'workshop' in their classes, on a specific curriculum topic. This helps them see that these active-learning techniques are really relevant and useful (Imerovic, 2006, pp.12-13).

As a contrast, Hardman warns against a simplistic polarisation between 'teacher centred' and 'child centred' pedagogy which ignores the realities of poor communities, suggesting building on practice of rote learning to develop class questioning, peer discussion and whole class discussion (Hardman, 2011, p.670). Hardman elaborates on this in another article, demonstrating how more innovative methods can work alongside traditional approaches (Hardman and Stoff, 2012, pp.46-47).

Currently, too much effort and too many resources are going into training teachers about the large range of impairments and their medical causes and presentation, for example SSA training in India. Too little time and effort goes into working on an inclusive pedagogy that will reduce the number of individual adjustments necessary for children with various impairments (Rieser, 2012, p.272).

³³ <http://www.eenet.org.uk/>

That said, there are examples of literature that attempts to develop inclusive pedagogy in the way advocated by Rieser. For example, Bunch (1999), in his ground-breaking *How to Book of Inclusion*, identifies four key areas teachers need to think about in planning an inclusive lesson.

1. As you are planning any lesson for pupils ask yourself: What are the essential knowledge, skills or understanding I want all students to get from the lesson?
2. Ask yourself – how do my pupils learn best? Take account of learning styles. Most pupils can learn in visual, auditory or kinaesthetic ways, though most have a preference and it is good to know these.
3. Ask – what modifications to the lesson plan would permit more pupils to learn more effectively in my classroom? All teachers are used to modifying their lessons to enhance their pupils learning.
4. How will my pupils show what they have learned? Ask the pupils to respond in ways they can handle. Assess pupils through their strengths, not their weaknesses

In addition, Perner and Porter (2008), based on work in Canada and Latin America, put forward a number of key points to develop differentiated or multi-level instruction when assuming inclusion of all students. The process helps teachers to plan and implement one lesson to accommodate all students and encourages each student to participate at his or her own level.

- The teacher plans for all students within one lesson.
- The teacher is able to weave individual goals into the classroom curriculum and through instructional strategies.
- The necessity for separate programmes is decreased.

3.8.5. Special pedagogy?

There has been a long debate about what is ‘special’ about special needs. Regular teachers assume that there are special techniques appropriate for special pupils, requiring special training. However, increasingly, the research disputes this; “...the teaching approaches and strategies... were not sufficiently differentiated from those which are used to teach all children to justify a distinctive SEN pedagogy... the more important agenda is about how to develop a pedagogy that is inclusive of all learners” (Davis and Florian, 2004, p.6). The roles adopted by those perceived as being special needs specialists is vital. Increasingly they must focus on working in ways that encourage collaborative problem-solving perspectives among teachers. It is through the successes of school-based initiatives based on this perspective that attitudes and practices will be developed.

This means that special education specialists need to develop a new repertoire of tools and techniques, some of which also use their old knowledge and skills. This change of practice is illustrated by Peters (2003, p.17) who examined one special educator in Ontario and her professional journey.

“Marsha Forest is one of the recognized pioneers of Inclusive Education in North America. She began her career as a special consultant at the Montreal Oral School for the Deaf in 1968. After years of struggling to make Inclusive Education a reality in Canadian Schools, she orchestrated a confrontation with school officials who had refused admittance of students with mental handicaps to Ontario schools. Several Ontario Schools eventually became models of Inclusive Education. As demonstration schools, they hosted visitors from all over North America and European countries. At the center of this inclusive vision was Marsha’s belief in children and their capacities. This belief is manifested in several widely adopted best practices that began in Ontario schools: Person Centered Planning, Making Action Plans (MAPS), Circles of Friends, and PATH (Planning Alternative Tomorrows with Hope) (Stainback S and Stainback W 1996). These educational programs are powerful tools for building connections between schools, parents and

communities, and for solving complex individual, family, and systems issues that may act as barriers to Inclusive Education. Evidence of the impact of the pioneering work of Marsha and the Ontario Schools abounds in the literature (Thomas, Walker and Webb,1998) and describes a comprehensive implementation of IE in several cluster schools in the UK that were developed with the technical support of the Marsha Forest Centre in Toronto. In 1989, Marsha and her husband, Jack Pearpoint, established the Centre for Integrated Education and Community in Toronto, Canada. This center continues to initiate and support path-breaking activities to advance inclusion in education and communities .”³⁴

O’Gorman’s (2010) examination of the position of Irish teachers asks whether there is a need for specific SEN/impairment training and reaches the conclusion it is necessary because of previous exclusionary pressures:

“The need for specific Professional Learning(PL) in SEN may be debated given recent research findings which maintain that there is no significant difference between pedagogy for students with and without SEN but merely a difference in the degree of its intensity and appropriateness of the application (Davies & Florian, 2004; Lewis & Norwich, 2001, 2004). A logical progression of this argument is to propose that if there is no specialist SEN pedagogy there is no need for specific PL in SEN/Inclusion. The response to this dilemma is the acknowledgement that the current education system is exclusionary and that a change towards a more inclusive system will require a change in the regular class teacher’s unitary strategy where all students, irrespective of individual difference, are given the same educational experience” (O’Gorman, 2010, p.41).

3.8.6. Materials

Teacher education curriculum content needs to be supported by relevant and appropriate materials. This is often not the case, however. In Lao PDR, it was noted that although inclusion was supposedly integrated into teacher education, there were insufficient documents to give guidance (Department of Education Lao PDR, 2011, p.4, p.12).

Forgacs’s meta-review of eight countries in the EAPRO and ROSA regions highlights the following gaps in teacher education materials in most countries: lack of material exploring inclusive education as an overarching concept; the existing material refers to inclusive education narrowly as the education of ‘children with special needs’ or children with disabilities; limited gender-sensitivity: gender stereotypes are more often reinforced rather than challenged; bias in relation to ethnic diversity, lack of material in minority languages; over-theoretical textbooks; lack of accessible materials for student teachers with disabilities (Forgacs, 2012, p.7 and pp.34-38). This is reinforced by Schaeffer’s meta-review which found that in general curriculum materials, persons with disabilities are nearly invisible and “in 85% of the illustrations that represent them, they are shown as ugly, unintelligent, hopeless or sad” (Schaeffer, 2009, pp.13-14).

The *Index for Inclusion* – not strictly a teacher education tool, but a tool that teachers use with the school community to learn about and improve inclusion in their schools (including making improvements to pedagogy) – has been translated into over 20 languages and used in over 70 countries. For example, in Kyrgyzstan it has been used to change policies, practices and culture as part of an NGO assisted programme to transform the system (see Section 3.3.2). In South Africa, it has been used where teachers from disadvantaged communities still struggled to accept ownership for their professional development Okwaput 2006, p9 and p22). See Booth and Black-Hawkins (2001) for

³⁴ The Centre has been renamed the Marsha Forest Centre in her memory after her death in 2000. The Centre maintains a website, Inclusion Press, and Inclusion Network at www.inclusion.com

some of the problems and adjustments that needed to be made to adapt it to be used in South Africa, India and Brazil.

Booth and Dyssegard (2008, p.9), focusing on making EFA more inclusive, note that:

“Some of the most extensively used inclusive education materials are those supporting in-service education for teachers. UNESCO Paris and UNESCO Bangkok are very prominent in this work although their work seems to have some important differences in orientation. Materials to support pre-service teacher education are underrepresented yet of great significance. There is a case for ensuring that all materials address implications for teacher education but also that the nature of inclusive teacher education be more comprehensively addressed.”

UNESCO's Teacher Education Resource Pack (1993) is cited by Tomlinson et al's (2004) evaluation as a widely used manual with considerable impact in up to 80 countries. Facilitators have used it mainly to work in schools but also in initial teacher education, introducing trainee teachers to approaches for planning and teaching all children through active collaborative methods. UNESCO Bangkok's Embracing Diversity booklets were also cited as influential.

3.8.7. Conclusion

There is a need to distinguish the pedagogy which teachers use in the classroom and the curriculum used to train teachers. In many countries both are teacher-centred rather than learner-centred. For children with disabilities we need to refer to resources produced in the early 1990s (e.g. by UNESCO, 1993) which also deal with impairment-specific issues.

The wider inclusive pedagogy of successful teachers consists of examining the environmental context, collaboration with colleagues, co-ordination from leaders, change which takes more time than anticipated and giving support to the individual teacher (UNESCO 2001a, Ainscow and Muncey, 1989).

In many countries, the pedagogy is out of sync with the demands brought by inclusive education. There is a need to move away from subject-dominated learning to skills, values and attitudes. Ensuring the intentional building of relationships is in the pedagogy, using techniques like MAPS, PATH and Circles of Friends has proved highly effective (see Section 3.8.5).

The development of reflective teachers is key. There is a danger of collapsing into an individual support model where an individual education plan is seen as the primary focus of the disabled child's learning rather than also accessing whole-class teaching and learning. Transformative Pedagogy (Hart et al, 2004) holds out an answer.

Bunch (1999) and Perner and Porter (2008) present ways of approaching including children with disabilities from a whole-class teaching pedagogy. Davis and Florian (2004) establish that there is no separate pedagogy for children with disabilities. O'Gorman (2010) developing Professional Learning in Ireland thinks it necessary to have a discrete module for all teachers on the impairment specific adjustments in addition to the general inclusion pedagogy.

There are many gaps in appropriate materials that embody inclusive pedagogy , both for teachers to use in class, and for use in their training.

3.9. Twin-track approach

The twin track approach is arguably a vital component in the development of inclusive education for learners with disabilities. See section 2.4 of this report for more discussion of this issue. It also encompasses the pertinent issue of how mainstream, inclusive schools work with special schools within a unified education system (see also Sections 3.3.6 and 3.5.6). Preparing teachers to work within a twin-track paradigm is therefore important, but is it happening?

3.9.1 Lack of twin-track approach

In the literature on teacher education for inclusion, there is much focus on preparation for the *general* learning environment. It is rare to find a discussion of how teachers can be prepared to respond to individual needs of students with disabilities. Lewis (2009, p.7) in her literature review of inclusive education in Rwanda and Ethiopia notes that “the weakness of EFA goals in relation to disability is being reflected in national plans and policies, even though there are programmes focusing on including disabled children on the ground”.

Miles and Singal (2010, p.10), examining the impacts of policies in Southern countries, point out that “rather than 'twin-track', what is happening is more of 'divorced track' as the EFA and inclusive education movements polarise, with increases in special schools happening alongside big initiatives to increase school enrolment”.

Cavanaugh (2000, p.3) makes the important point that educating teachers on the use and ethics of assistive technology can be important part of the curriculum for inclusion. However, this is often a tricky area where there may be misconceptions that the facilitator is doing the pupil with disabilities' thinking or work for them.

In a programme in Lao PDR, students with complex needs and autism were not catered for in the inclusive education programme as teachers claimed they did not know how to meet their needs. Students with visual impairment lost motivation at higher stages of education, due to difficulty in accessing the curriculum. (Grimes, 2009 p99). Both result from the lack of a twin-track approach in teacher education.

3.9.1. Indications of a twin-track approach

UNESCO Bangkok's *Towards Inclusive Education for Children with Disabilities* (2009b, p.95) is a very useful guide which suggests the following arrangements – congruent with a twin track approach – to deal effectively with the impairment specific needs of pupils with disabilities:

“During the transition period from a separate to an inclusive education system and after an inclusive system has been established, there will be a very strong and continuing need for teachers who have additional levels of expertise in teaching children with special needs and with particular disabilities. The role of these teachers will be to advise and provide support to the teachers in the regular schools and classes as they develop their own expertise in teaching more diverse groups of children. They may work as resource teachers within a school, advising or demonstrating particular teaching strategies needed by children with more severe disabilities such as severe intellectual disabilities, multiple disabilities, and skills such as Braille and sign language to blind and deaf children respectively. They may also work in support centres providing expertise and assistance to a cluster of schools, and to individual children and their families in determining the most appropriate school placement and teaching programme. Specialist teacher education programmes will be necessary to develop personnel with these skills and abilities”.

USAID (2010) examines the development of inclusive education for children with disabilities in the Eurasia region and suggests the following cost-effective initiatives to meet the demands of workforce development:

“Regionally, converting special schools into resource centers, the development of model schools to serve as local training centers, and the use of mobile teams to visit mainstream schools on a rotating basis”. p.ix

UNESCO Bangkok, (2009a), in a review of inclusive education in four countries, identify structures within Thailand’s 2002 Ministerial Regulations (relating to the 1999 National Education Act) which point to the provision of reasonable accommodation/support needs, etc, for children with disabilities. Regulations include:

- “Allocation of a budget for special education which provides 2,000 baht for each disabled child to purchase services and materials. This means assistive devices and learning materials, including tutor-fee, and to borrow expensive devices such as type-writers, home computers, hearing aids, wheelchairs, etc;
- Service providers must be personnel who have undertaken training in one, three and 15-day short training courses, or short-term by professionals such as doctors, occupational therapists (OT) or audiometrists for the deaf;
- Early intervention must be provided for each disabled child;
- An IEP must be prepared for each disabled child;
- Thai teachers cannot refuse to teach a child with a disability;
- Assistive devices, technology, Braille and appropriate teaching materials must be provided;
- A Centralised Equipment Pool (CEP) has been established in partnership between the MOE and the National Electronics and Computer Technology Centre (NECTEC), by means of Memorandum of Understanding (MOU) for Research and Development under the Ministry of Science to develop prototypes such as electric wheel-chairs; software for teaching, reading and writing. Items produced for distribution can be purchased, made available free, or bought with a loan;
- A coupon scheme will be extended throughout the country” (UNESCO Bangkok, 2009a, p.72).

There are other examples where students with disabilities receive the appropriate support they need. For example, in Mongolia, there are sign language classes where, parents, classmates and teachers are taught. There is also close collaboration with the Association of Parents with Disabled Children to enable the provision of glasses, hearing aids, prostheses, wheelchairs (Ramsden, 2006, pp.21 and 25). This appreciation of the impairment-specific needs is a good illustration of twin-track approach working and being recognised by teachers.

Lynch and Lund (2011, p.3), examining provision for children with albinism in Malawi, found that while there was a “generally supportive attitude towards the inclusion of pupils with visual impairment”, several inappropriate strategies were being used with children with albinism. Equipment that has been provided remained unused; Braille was being taught unnecessarily on the assumption the children would go blind. The report recommends early identification, in-service training and visits from itinerant teachers, all of which will help establish a twin-track approach.

In Save the Children’s (2002) experience of programmes focusing on educating students with disabilities, the initial focus was on elite special schools which benefitted a relatively small number of children with disabilities, though fully catering to their needs (e.g. Morocco). When the policy switched to inclusive education, a programme in China transformed pre-school education to a child-

focused approach, which enabled the integration of children with mild or moderate learning difficulties. However, the author states that the programme did not progress as planned to include children with more severe impairments, and also there are reports that the disability angle was not really present any more – the environment is child centred, but children with disabilities are still excluded (Stubbs, 1998, p9-10,19-20). This offers further evidence of the need for all teachers to be aware of the impairment-specific needs of children with disabilities.

The UNESCO Bangkok (2004) *Toolkit for Creating Inclusive Learning-Friendly Environments* attempted to shift the focus on education to inclusion in general by providing practical advice drawing on experience in the Asia Pacific Region. The original pack consisted of six booklets:

- Booklet 1 Becoming an Inclusive Learning-Friendly Environment
- Booklet 2 Working with Families and Communities to Create an ILFE
- Booklet 3 Getting All Children in School and Learning
- Booklet 4 Creating Inclusive Learning-Friendly Classrooms
- Booklet 5 Managing Inclusive Learning-Friendly Classrooms
- Booklet 6 Creating Healthy and Protective ILFE.

Schaffer (UNESCO Bangkok 2004a, p.12) in an introduction to the toolkits makes clear the perspective. “...it does not assume that there is any actual educational difference between students with special learning or educational needs and regular students”. This had to be rectified some years later when an extra booklet was produced: ‘Specialised Booklet 3 Teaching Children with Disabilities in Inclusive Settings’ (UNESCO Bangkok, 2009b). This booklet examines the main range of impairments and provides tips on what to do to overcome barriers to learning and the type of individual adjustments that work. This belated recognition of the need to cater for impairment-specific needs within the general inclusion framework is welcome, but far too many of the advocates of inclusion have not recognised this such as Booth and Ainscow, 2002; Ainscow, 2004 and UNESCO, 2009).

Inclusive ethos, values, curriculum and pedagogy are a vital first track for inclusion. However, there remains a pressing need for all regular teacher education to contain a component on the impairment-specific aspects of inclusive education – the second track. Without this there is a grave danger of reinforcing special education and the development of special schools, and of mainstream teachers and schools (contrary to the evidence) claiming that they can only meet the needs of children with mild or moderate impairments.

3.9.2. Conclusions

The twin-track approach is arguably a vital component in the development of inclusive education for learners with disabilities. There is ample evidence of the impairment-specific adjustments being ignored or given little attention in broad brush inclusive education materials. (See Section 4.1 for a discussion on why this might be.)

However, there are increasing calls for training and the establishing of specialist teams, support teachers and itinerant specialist who can provide impairment-specific advice. This does not mean going back to a categorical special needs model with the pressures to separate. It means equipping all teachers with a basic understanding of different groups of impairment and the adjustments and supports these pupils may need so they can function and achieve their potential as part of a classroom run on inclusive education principles.

3.10. Practice

3.10.1. Importance of practical experience

Common feedback from teachers is that there is a lack of appropriate practical experience or practicum in their training. Equally important as providing practical experience, is ensuring that it is appropriate and relevant.

The EADSNE literature review summarises key approaches which address core challenges in teacher education:

“[extended practical experiences] presented in simultaneous, closely interwoven coursework; Explicit strategies [to] help students (1) confront their own beliefs and assumptions about learning and students and (2) learn about the experiences of people different from themselves... Case study methods, teacher research, performance assessment and portfolio evaluation [to] apply learning to real problems of practice”. (EADSNE ,2010, p.43).

3.10.2. Managed experience

Holdsworth advocates ‘managed experience’ as an effective approach that takes into account an incremental and minimal interventionist approach. She defines managed experience as being about giving people learning experiences based in real situations, but controlling the situation so that tasks fit the current levels of learning (Holdsworth, 1997, p.5). She also points out that it is in the fine detail that inclusion can work or not – a teacher providing a child with a special chair can increase isolation and ‘specialness’, whereas another teacher making a slight adaptation to a piece of equipment promotes the full inclusion of the child without drawing any attention to the child (Holdsworth, 2000. P.7). In Mongolia, a similar incident demonstrated the difference that training can make, when a teacher who had been trained managed to accommodate a child’s needs without drawing attention to them, while the untrained teacher created a special seating area in her classroom for a child with cerebral palsy, and told other children the child was ‘special’ (Save the Children, 2008, p.25).

Teachers in Lao PDR were given very specific training on how to make ‘small changes’ to promote inclusion. Instructions included:

“‘The children are expected to take part in all normal school activities *with the least amount of change or extra help.*’

This is accomplished firstly by:

- using a variety of methods and activities;
- making small changes in activities – such as providing large clear writing for a child with poor vision, or a similar (but easier) puzzle or question for a child with learning problems.

If this is insufficient, then by:

- providing the child with the least amount and the least intrusive form of help that is needed.

And if this is still insufficient, by:

- additional activities in school aimed at reducing the particular difficulties the child is facing;
- activities with the family so that additional training and help can be given by them.” (Holdsworth, 2000, p.8).

Perner and Porter (2008) advocate Multilevel Instruction Processes. These enable teachers to plan and implement one lesson to accommodate all students. The approach is particularly useful for working with students with developmental disabilities because it focuses on developing concepts by

using specific content as a means for teaching specific skills, rather than teaching content as an end in itself. Multilevel instruction involves a four-step planning process which considers: concept to be taught, methods used to help students understand on their own terms, how new information is presented to student, how students show understanding of what they have learnt.

3.10.3. Contextualised practice

It is important that practical experience is contextualised, and that consideration is given to whether teacher education materials created in one context, contain concepts and images that are understood and/or appropriate in another context.

One way to help teachers observe contextually relevant good practice, to develop their thinking without being in the classroom, is through film. However, the films need to be made by educationalists who understand not just the context but also disability equality issues and inclusive education. Richard Rieser, as a disabled teacher and an expert on inclusive education teamed up with a disabled film-maker, Ann Pugh, to produce three DVDs.³⁵ These were indexed for types of impairment, type of practice, and phase of school visited. They were made available to all schools in England by the UK Government and helped to expand the vision of teachers as to what sorts of practice and adjustments were possible (DfES, 2006). Another project for the Government of South Africa by the same team was shot in ten primary schools in four Provinces and has been used widely for both pre- and in-service training in schools and training colleges (Rieser and Pugh, 2008).³⁶

McConkey et al (2007) used similar methods to show inclusive education in practice in Zanzibar, going into the sort of detail that teachers need if they are to be able to apply the ideas to their own teaching. The Zanzibar project focussed on children and young people with intellectual impairments which makes it both very useful and rare.³⁷ The video programmes involved 20 schools and have three main objectives:

- to raise awareness of inclusive education in Zanzibar among schools, families and people with disabilities
- to document the methods used in the pilot project on inclusive education and youth development

³⁵ Shot in 41 schools (20 Secondary, 18 primary, two early years schools and a special school) across England. The schools had self-nominated their good practice; 400 responded out of 9,000 sent a questionnaire. From these, by panel ranking and telephone interviews, the schools were selected and a filming schedule agreed with the school.

³⁶ Developing Inclusive Education in South Africa (2008) DEE www.redweather.co.uk/developing-inclusive-education-in-south-africa.html

³⁷ Roy Mc Conkey, Lilian Mariga and Mpaji Ali Maalim, Zanzibar Association for People with Developmental Disabilities (ZAPDD), Zanzibar Ministry of Education and Vocational Training (MoEVT), NFU Initial Pilot, 2004–2006.

Introduction to ZAPDD: <http://www.youtube.com/v/C-y9Do2AHTU> (2.45 mins)

Feasibility study: <http://www.youtube.com/v/l9xm2fCpEzo> (3.17 mins)

Pilot project: <http://www.youtube.com/v/nmCSYXlkJ1M> (1.34 mins)

Working in Partnership: <http://www.youtube.com/v/61oMy-gD8gE> (2.24 mins)

Parents as partners: <http://www.youtube.com/v/SQbXrXfihCo> (2.09 mins)

Support for teachers: <http://www.youtube.com/v/2fJBHnoYHJQ> (3.30 mins)

Skills training for youth: <http://www.youtube.com/v/2RcgGjhrhm4> (3.12 mins)

Assisting students to learn 1: <http://www.youtube.com/v/UFDCiyU-GAg> (2.53 mins)

Assisting students to learn 2: <http://www.youtube.com/v/YtqrJYsVY0c> (2.54 mins)

Number work: <http://www.youtube.com/v/7EVib48RSmQ> (2.50 mins)

Sign language: <http://www.youtube.com/v/Wbb2eK2m0C4> (2.05 mins)

Visual impairment: <http://www.youtube.com/v/qrmujsLBVuo> (3.54 mins)

Background: <http://www.ii.inclusioneducativa.org/Africa.php?region=Africa&country=Zanzibar> & http://www.experience=Inclusion_In_Action#6

- to produce practical tools for schools to assist with the consolidation and expansion of inclusive education in Zanzibar.

3.10.4. Benefits of practical experience

It is valuable for pre-service teachers to spend time in a classroom, observing good practice and moving on to interacting with the children, planning and delivering lessons, especially when linked to a critical dialogue with the class teacher.

Time spent in real classrooms was a contributor towards teachers having a greater sense of efficacy, increased use of inclusive practices and high levels of leadership, according to the EADSNE's literature review (2010, p.26). Gansore (2006, p.2) reports that teachers in Burkino Faso value having the opportunity to learn how to respond to real challenges in real classrooms. In Ethiopia, practical work in classrooms helped promote collaboration between teachers (Shenkuti and Focas Licht, 2005, pp.8-9). UNESCO (2001b) also suggest teachers learn much about inclusion when given the opportunity to shadow experienced teachers in inclusive settings.

Challenges

However, experience has shown that it can be difficult to find relevant practice placements, either because examples of inclusion in practice do not exist, or inclusive schools are overwhelmed with demands for placements/visits (Forlin, 2012b, p.6). Teacher training establishments should keep a register of accessible schools that disabled trainees can visit, and of mainstream schools with good inclusive practice to which practicum visits for trainees can be arranged. If this is not done there is a tendency to arrange visits to special schools, which reinforces the separation in the minds of the trainee teachers between mainstream and accommodating children with disabilities. However, the key message seemed to be across all case studies that teachers aren't getting the opportunities they need to develop practical skills and experience.

3.10.5. Conclusion

Both teachers and researchers (EADSNE, 2010) agree that exposure to practice as part of a teacher's training is essential, especially if they are to develop a new inclusive pedagogy and know how to make the specific adjustments children with disabilities may require.

The local context is important.

A way of extending the range of practical observation to many different schools with children with different needs is to film classroom practice and interview the teachers about why they did what they did. A number of such resources are mentioned and more detail is given in Section 4.

3.11. Assessment

This important topic has different dimensions – how teachers themselves are assessed for their performance; how they are trained in relation to assessment of pupils with diverse needs and disabilities; how schools are assessed; and the characteristics of inclusive assessment. The report by EADSNE (2007) on Assessment in Inclusive Settings offers comprehensive guidance on these many dimensions.

UNESCO (2001a) says the aim of assessment is to make it possible for teachers and schools to provide responses to a wide diversity of students. Assessment has to help teachers plan for student diversity in their classrooms and has to help schools develop so that they become more inclusive. Much of the

most useful assessment can be carried out by teachers themselves, and the range of techniques at their disposal needs to be extended by training:

“Where specialist assessment is undertaken, it has to inform educational decisions about how students should be taught. This is more likely if teachers have access to specialists in the school and working in teams close to the school. Parents, families and students themselves can make an important contribution to the assessment process. Early assessment of emerging difficulties is essential so that early intervention can take place. Early assessment is not just about the first years of the child’s life. It is about identifying potential problems at any stage” (UNESCO, 2001a, p.53).

3.11.1. Assessment related to pupils

The Open File suggest that teachers need to learn:

- “how to assess the progress of all students through the curriculum, including how to assess students whose attainments are low and whose progress is slow;
- how to use assessment as a planning tool for the class as a whole
- how to use assessments to draw up individual plans for students
- how to observe students in learning situations, including the use of simple checklists and observation schedules
- how to relate the behaviours of particular students to normal patterns of development (particularly important for teachers of young children)
- how to involve parents and pupils in the assessment process
- how to work with other professionals, including knowing when to call on their specialisms and how to use their assessments for educational purposes” (UNESCO, 2001a, p.62).

EADSNE (2007) emphasises the challenges facing countries seeking to develop assessment systems that facilitate rather than hinder inclusion. The author points to the importance of i) involving pupils in assessment procedures, ii) resource allocation not being based on initial identification of pupils needs alone, iii) danger of medical/deficit approaches in assessment procedures, and iv) curriculum reform should be centred on learning needs not content (EADSNE, 2007, pp.35,50, 56)

EADSNE (2007, pp. 49-50) further highlight key features of pupil assessment , including: its role in promoting learning and celebrating achievement; the pupils’ right to be actively involved in the assessment; the need for all forms of assessment to be linked; the need for pupils with special needs to be assessed through general as well as specific measures; and the importance of not allowing assessment to foster labelling and segregation. The report lists in detail the elements of inclusive assessment and methods, providing a potentially daunting list for teachers and those who need to educate them about inclusive assessment of learners.

Heijnen (2006, pp.1-4) advocates CFA (continuous formative assessment) as the best way for teachers to be trained to assess students in inclusive settings. This is a process of purposeful on-going observation and reflection on students learning. A shift from quality *control* to quality *assurance* is proposed – the latter involves adjusting teaching as needed – using assessment *for* learning.

Formative assessment is also recommended by Opertti and Brady (2011, p.465), who say it is important not to over-emphasise standardised outcomes which do not take into account social and vocational dimensions. In Vietnam, teachers are trained, during pre-service, in skills for working with evaluation teams should they identify children with disabilities in their classrooms (UNESCO Bangkok 2009b).

There can be conflict between the different paradigms operating, as Lewis found in Armenia – teachers were concerned about the medical focus of assessment, which contradicted what they were learning about inclusion. In addition, schools received additional funds for every child assessed with special needs, which encouraged labelling and assessing (Lewis, 2010, p.5).

Inter-agency Network for Education in Emergencies (2010, p.75), examining inclusive provision in the wake of conflict or disasters, suggest:

“Trainers, managers or supervisors may need to support teachers to think through the reasonable adjustments that can and should be made in these conditions to ensure that on-going assessment and any formal exams can continue. For testing, teachers may need particular help with working out how to make assessment and exams more accessible for learners with disabilities. They can be encouraged to use ideas that are already being used in the classroom – such as using support assistants or buddies to help learners with disabilities record their answers. Alternatively, if assessment systems were not in place before the emergency, there may be opportunities to encourage teachers to think about how they know what progress children and young people are making, and to start recording their progress.”

3.11.2. Teacher assessment

An OECD report found that the teaching of students with 'special learning needs' was not given importance during appraisals of teachers. Yet research showed that the more attention was given to an issue in feedback and appraisal, the greater the changes in practice. (OECD, 2009, p.154 see also diagram p.165, p.167)

A detailed example of how teachers can be assessed based on their response to the diversity in their classrooms, without the need to label or single out particular pupils, is given by Oyler, 2011. This is an example of teacher assessment where students with disabilities are not named, but teachers are asked to “analyze the effect and quality of differentiated instruction to plan for future lessons’ and if they are ‘aware of who participated in lessons and the degree to which students were struggling, comfortable, or challenged’” (ibid, p.214). Likewise, teachers are asked how they “work toward social justice and inclusivity’, ‘develop classroom community’, ‘are prepared to deal with challenging behavior’, ‘plan for classroom management’, and also their ‘reflections on how your life experiences with various social locations (linguistic, racial, ethnic identity, nationality, gender expression, class position, dis/ability, religious practices and affiliation, sexual orientation, etc.) may inform your views about children and their families and communities as well as your own teaching practices’” (Oyler, 2011, pp.214-5).

The issue of assessing teachers and student teachers with disabilities is not given much focus in the literature. However, one personal account comes from a blind student teacher in Kenya.

“As a blind [teacher] trainee, I use Braille, but we lack Braille reading materials and sometimes there is a shortage of Braille paper. There is also a lack of mathematical equipment which makes it impossible for visually impaired students to be examined in this subject. There are no qualified lecturers in special education, and only one knows Braille, so there can be challenges when it comes to transcribing and marking exams” (Mwanyalo with Lewis, in press).

Given the limited focus on enrolling and supporting student teachers with disabilities, seen earlier in this report, Mwanyalo’s experience, in relation to being assessed as a student teacher is likely to be common; and is an issue that needs further attention in the literature on teacher education.

Current pressure for global learning metrics is creating pressures to increase normative assessment, that has already been educationally discredited (Peters, 2003; Opertti and Brady, 2011) and will make the inclusion of children with disabilities harder, as such metrics reduce the room for adjustments on assessment. The current discussion of the Learning Metrics Global Task Force seeking to develop a way of measuring quality education around the world has many pitfalls especially for inclusive pedagogy.³⁸

3.11.3. Conclusion

This important topic has different dimensions – how teachers themselves are assessed for their performance; how they are trained in relation to assessment of pupils with diverse needs and disabilities; how schools are assessed; and the characteristics of inclusive assessment. The report by EADSNE (2007) on Assessment in Inclusive Settings offers comprehensive guidance on these many dimensions.

Formative rather than normative assessment is far more useful to teachers with diverse learners as it helps them guide the next steps in learning. Oyler (2011) suggests trainees analyze the effect and quality of differentiated instruction to plan for future lessons, and reflect on whether they are aware of who participated in lessons and the degree to which students were struggling, comfortable, or challenged.

There is little in the literature about the specific impairment adjustments needed to create fair assessment for disabled teachers or indeed children.

Political moves for more rigour and normative testing and learning metrics can undercut inclusive assessment which relies on portfolios, diaries, videos and samples of work.

3.12. Leadership

3.12.1. Importance of leadership

Many reports emphasise the importance of good leadership for inclusion to be effective. The negative attitudes of head teachers, inspectors and other leaders can be major barriers to inclusion (UNESCO, 2009, p.20). The literature review by Stubbs (2011), found that leadership was important in that it improves student-teacher relationships, leads to better outcomes from teacher appraisals, and aids improved collaboration between teachers.

Grimes (2009) in Lao PDR found that effective leadership led to more effective inclusion:

“where there was a committed Principal, schools were developing more inclusive practices. Effective principals were found to have attended trainings and refresher courses, maintained collaboration with district support advisors, network with other principals, observe teachers work, encourage collaboration between teachers, encourage creativity and innovation, have good collaboration with parents and community, have high expectations of themselves and learners” (Grimes, 2009, p.94).

3.12.2. Type of leadership

The type of leadership needed for an inclusive school, in which teachers are willing and enabled to learn about inclusion, is different from the traditional, authoritarian role still present in many schools.

³⁸ <http://www.globalcompactonlearning.org/global-learning-metrics/>

Leaders need to be role models. They need to be able to encourage teachers and pupils to work together, to be creative, to problem solve, and to learn from mistakes and failures, whilst having the highest expectations of everyone (Stubbs, 2011, p.16).

“Leadership involves an interactive process entered into by both learners and teachers. ...there is a need for shared leadership, with the principal seen as a leader of leaders. Hierarchical structures have to be replaced by shared responsibility in a community that becomes characterised by agreed values and hopes...” (Ainscow and Miles, 2008, p.28).

These authors quote Riehl (2000) who concludes, following an extensive literature review, that school leaders need to attend to three broad types of tasks a) fostering new meanings about diversity; b) promoting inclusive practices within schools; and c) building connections between school and community. This can be achieved through discursive practice:

“When wedded to a relentless commitment to equity, voice and social justice, administrators’ efforts in the tasks of sense-making, promoting inclusive cultures and practices in schools, building positive relationships outside of the school may indeed foster new forms of practice.” (ibid. p71)

Research in Croatia found that “...the success of educational inclusion does not depend only on teachers, but it is based on the teamwork of members of expert services”. The document also notes that school principals must be agents of change, “Hence it is necessary to establish training programs for principals to prepare them for more intense cooperation between schools and local communities, and parents” (Mirosovic, 2007, p.11).

Forlin states that a more pro-active style of leadership is required for inclusion, and that school principals who promote inclusion need to be listened to and their views taken into account in teacher education, as the challenges of implementation are more important than theory (Forlin, 2012b, p8).

Harpell speaks of “transformational leadership style” which also promotes empowerment, whereby teachers are participating in developing schools goals and improvement plans (Harpell and Andrews 2010, pp.202-203). This is reinforced by the Learning Without Limits Project in the UK (Hart et al, 2004 and Swann et al, 2012) where schools developed their inclusiveness through the agency of the staff developing a transformative pedagogy under the leadership of head teachers. Lewis (2010, p.19-20) identified in Armenia that strong leadership is a key issue in helping schools become more inclusive, and so capacity building of leaders needs to be built into training programmes.

UNESCO Bangkok’s review (2009b) singles out one particular head teacher in Thailand for praise, although he was acknowledged as a solitary example. He was commended for providing a model for how inclusive education should be implemented in Thailand. Key aspects of his approach included:

- sending seven teachers to Bangkok to receive 200 hours of training
- arranging for university input into the training
- arranging for teachers to get experience at a school for the blind, and then pass on their learning to colleagues
- training all teachers to prepare IEPs
- collaborating closely with staff and discussing the challenges
- planning for teachers to attend certificate level training
- raising teachers’ awareness through a simulation exercise
- encouraging staff and students to carry out a survey into out-of-school children.

He further intended to increase staff capacity, find and enrol more disabled children and enhance the community links (UNESCO, 2009b, p.100).

3.12.3. Leadership within and beyond the school

VSO (2010), evaluating their work in Cambodia, noted:

“Training initiatives targeted provincial and district education management personnel to develop supervisory skills to monitor and evaluate teachers' implementation of IE practices. VSO volunteers also helped to support the development of school improvement plans and in school self-assessments, tasks that are undertaken by school directors in conjunction with School Support Committees, and to facilitate their involvement in decision-making processes concerning the allocation and disbursement of Programme Budget funds” (VSO, 2010, p.10).

The importance of giving leadership training to Provincial and District Offices Education, Teacher Training Colleges, and School directors – as a way of developing vision statements which provide guidance and achievable goals for administrators, trainers, and teachers (pre- and in-service) – was frequently stressed in the findings of the evaluation. School leadership training and school support visits noticeably improved the management of many lower secondary and primary schools, thus contributing to an increase in access and quality of children's education.

An early move to a fully inclusive education system came in the Hamilton-Wentworth Catholic School Board in Ontario, Canada (Hansen et al, 2006). The Assistant District Supervisor had regular weekly surgeries to problem solve with all the principals, and this was absolutely crucial to ensuring the success of the project. The move to inclusion by Hamilton-Wentworth Catholic District School Board started in 1969, led by Jim Hansen, the Board's Deputy Principal, who was in charge of special education. Today, the Board's schools cater for 30,000 students and it does not have a single special class or special school.

Every student with special needs attends lessons in a regular classroom in a community school alongside their peers. Regular classroom teachers, supported by administrators and special education teachers, welcome and teach all students. Normative and intelligence tests were abolished and replaced by a child-focused approach. A teamwork model was introduced, giving rise to a genuinely creative innovation – the diagnostic prescriptive team with new special needs resource teachers in every school. The team was school-based and mandated to meet weekly and respond to the needs and requests of students. In doing this, it received backing from support services and comprehensive support systems were set up. Staff were proactively supported by relevant in-service training. The review group continued as the driving force of the new initiative and was copied by many other school boards in Canada and beyond.(Hansen et al 2006)

3.12.4. Teachers, head teachers and leadership

No matter how committed or well-trained a teacher is, the negative attitudes of a school principal can make it very challenging for a new teacher to implement their understandings and ideas. In Zambia, one teacher refused to be limited by the negative attitude of the head teacher, and started to 'democratise the classroom' to promote inclusion and respond to diverse needs. He moved to other schools but still encountered negative attitudes and lack of support from the head teacher. When his students started to obtain some of the best results in the country and drop-outs started to re-attend school, he finally got recognition. He now works as a trainer for other teachers (Mumba, 2001, p.5).

Forlin (2012d, p.178) emphasises the importance of training teachers for leadership.

One UK study interviewed more than 40 head teachers, 300 staff, parents and Local Authority staff, and pupils with disabilities. It found that the key factor for developing inclusion of children with disabilities was the leadership of the head teacher. Head teachers ensured the staff as a whole had an inclusive ethos, a welcoming and 'can-do' attitude, and there was strong engagement with parents and pupils and support from outside the school. Measures introduced to enhance professional development for staff were: a good staffing structure with a senior leader responsible for liaising with multi-professional teams and staff, including children with disabilities; regular training for all staff; accessible information about all pupils with disabilities; regularly releasing staff for more in-depth training; team building; releasing teachers and support staff to observe different teachers; development of curriculum differentiation; and welcoming diversity (DfES, 2006).

Rieser (2012, pp.251-253), reporting on schools in South Africa, notes the importance of school leaders in setting up and convening School Based Support groups in a number of primary schools in Gauteng, Mpumalanga, Eastern and Western Cape, and ensuring their staff are involved and accessing on-going training.

A five-year CIDA sponsored programme (2008-2013) to develop inclusive education for children with disabilities in Ukraine concentrated on developing capacity by training leaders and teachers and setting up two resource centres. The leadership training: "emphasizes the use of evidence-based inquiry in professional learning teams [which are] an effective means of developing a culture of collaboration and collective responsibility in schools" (Deppler, 2009, p.1). The training consists of two 36-hour modules³⁹ involving lectures, seminars and self-study.

Within the professional learning teams, teachers retain accountability for each student and are also collectively responsible for improving their teaching to help all students' learning. The capacity of teachers to be practitioner researchers is built, so that they engage with the school's stakeholders, and critically reflect on and share their experiences with a view to learning as a team and implementing school-wide changes (ibid).

The leadership training has been very popular and, according to Tim Loreman, this programme has been very successful in transforming schools and challenging the hold of defectologists on the Ukrainian education system, thus empowering head teachers and teachers.⁴⁰

3.12.5. Conclusion

Many reports emphasise the importance of good leadership for inclusion to be effective. Where there was a committed principal, schools were developing more inclusive practices (as Grimes found in Lao PDR).

The type of leadership needed for an inclusive school, in which teachers are willing and enabled to learn about inclusion, is different from the traditional, authoritarian role still present in many schools. Leaders need to be role models. They need to be able to encourage teachers and pupils to work together, to be creative, to problem solve, and to learn from mistakes and failures, whilst having the highest expectations of everyone.

³⁹ Course content: Module 1: Leadership for Inclusive Schools: Creating a Collaborative Learning Culture; Building the Professional Learning Team; Sharing Knowledge and Skills; Powerful Partnerships/Multiple Perspectives; Determining Priorities. Module 2: Evidence-Based Inquiry: Developing Practitioner Inquiry; Tools of Inquiry; Evidence for Assessment Teaching & Learning; Student Voice; Reflection and Discussion of Student Work; Sustaining the Learning Community.

⁴⁰ Personal communication Prof. Tim Loreman.

District education management personnel's development of supervisory skills to monitor and evaluate teachers' implementation of inclusive education practices is vital and has been shown to be very effective.

3.13. Change management

Bringing about inclusive education, and in particular bringing about changes in the way teachers are trained and how they work, can be a lengthy and sensitive process, often requiring some sophisticated and/or persistent change management approaches.

3.13.1. Policy/law

Policy changes are often a starting point – sometimes matched with action, sometimes not. UNESCO Bangkok (2009b, p.15) highlight that following changes in policy in Thailand after Salamanca “The enrolment of children with disabilities in the mainstream school system increased from four per cent to in excess of 23 per cent in a four year period from the onset of the policy implementation”. The Thai government had passed regulations to ensure teacher training institutions complied with changes in curriculum to accommodate a move towards integrated and inclusive education.

3.13.2. Commitment not matched by implementation

More common in the literature, however, are reports of mis-matches between policy commitments and implementation/results. For instance, New Brunswick Community Living Association (2007) report that in Canada concepts of inclusive education have been firmly embedded within policy, but reviews have revealed patchy implementation. They recommend educators and administrators need to be given adequate opportunities to learn about and fully understand the fundamental sociological and pedagogical concepts underlying inclusive education. Strong leadership is required. Teachers do not have the skills and knowledge to implement inclusive education and it needs to be a priority for tackling systemic barriers. They reiterate the importance of cross-sectoral co-ordination, collaboration within school system, involvement of parents and regulation of paraprofessional training.

In Nigeria, Garuba (2003) also argues that although there has been a paradigm shift from special education in the 1970s to inclusive education in the 1990s/2000s in terms of policy, there has been very little implementation (due to poverty, attitudes, and competing development priorities – in particular, international and national focus on Universal Basic Education, attention paid to girls and nomadic children but excluding those with disabilities). A special education component is compulsory in pre-service training but is not implemented in teacher training institutions. Nigeria has the largest number of children not in school in Sub-Saharan Africa so clearly getting inclusion right will be part of the necessary restructuring necessary to get education for all.

Eleweke and Rodda (2002, p.5) examine progress in developing countries. They note that while many countries *recognise the value* of inclusive education and aspire to creating inclusive education systems, “it remains the case that inclusion is not being satisfactorily implemented in many countries”. Where programmes are being introduced, they often do not get beyond the pilot phase, because governments are not adequately planning for or financing inclusive education. The authors highlight the lack of staff who are trained to support disabled learners as an implementation barrier, leaving many children present in class but not supported by their teachers. **The article recommends mandatory legislation, CBR programmes, advocacy by DPOs and use of UNESCO's Teacher Resource Pack (UNESCO 1993) to train teachers at both pre-service and in-service levels.**

3.13.3. Ambitious plans

A remarkable programme of teacher professional development that seeks to scale up the inclusion of children with disabilities is taking place in New Zealand:

“New Zealand has a range of policy and legislative initiatives that aim to increase the participation and achievement of disabled students in an inclusive education system. People who have special educational needs (whether because of disability or otherwise) have the same rights to enrol and receive education in state schools as people who do not (1989 Education Act)” (Rieser, 2012, p. 152).

This could be said of a growing number of countries following the adoption of the UNCRPD, but the difference in New Zealand is an expectation from the government that 80% of mainstream schools will become effective inclusive schools by 2014 (and the others 20% will be making progress (Ministry of Education, New Zealand, 2010).

Some DPOs argue that change is too slow, but MacArthur (2009), in concluding an excellent booklet on developing inclusive education in New Zealand schools, argues: “Change has been a long time coming. Many of the issues about segregation and ‘special’ education described in this book have been raised in the research literature of the past three decades. There is now an overwhelming body of research that supports an end to segregation and ‘special’ education thinking p 1” Government Inspectors will be observing for inclusive practice and rating the schools on how inclusive they are of children with disabilities (Education Review Office, 2010).

In addition, the New Zealand Government has sponsored an extensive training programme largely delivered as an in-school/whole-school programme drawing on modules and activities from a website. The New Zealand Ministry of Education has sponsored the three Rs of diversity: recognise, respect and respond. This is best delivered as a whole school activity related to classroom activity and student outcomes. The three Rs website⁴¹ provides a wealth of training materials for New Zealand schools and teachers, designed to help them:

- understand the basic elements that are key to effective practice in meeting the differing needs of students
- develop a flowchart that reflects the school’s unique strategies for identifying and meeting needs
- source strategies for consulting school staff and involving them in the development or review of learning support processes
- ensure that staff are involved in the review process
- source activities that may be useful for professional development
- download examples of models, forms and surveys that may be helpful as catalysts for discussion.

The materials include: statutory requirements, early identification, a model for developing school-wide procedures, inclusive systems and ensuring staff ownership. Each of these topics is broken down into stages involving presentations and activities.⁴²

⁴¹ <http://www.tki.org.nz/r/diversity/develop>

Stage 1: Initial identification http://www.tki.org.nz/r/diversity/develop/stage1-rationale_e.php

Stage 2: Class-based assessment http://www.tki.org.nz/r/diversity/develop/stage2-rationale_e.php

Stage 3: Collaboration with teaching team http://www.tki.org.nz/r/diversity/develop/stage3-rationale_e.php

Stage 4: Collaboration with learning support team or management http://www.tki.org.nz/r/diversity/develop/stage4-rationale_e.php

Stage 5: School-based assessment and support

http://www.tki.org.nz/r/diversity/develop/stage5-rationale_e.php

Stage 6: Collaboration with parents, caregivers, family, and whānau

(extended family) http://www.tki.org.nz/r/diversity/develop/stage6-rationale_e.php

Stage 7: Specialised assessment http://www.tki.org.nz/r/diversity/develop/stage7-rationale_e.php

Neilson (2005) considers the New Zealand Disability Strategy to be serious in rolling out inclusive education for all children and “an illustration of the rights discourse in action”. Eight actions are associated with the education objective of the strategy which is being rolled out, though still only partially achieved:

1. “Ensure no child is denied access to their local school because of their impairment;
2. Support the development of effective communication by providing access to education in New Zealand sign language, communication technologies and human aids;
3. Ensure that teachers and educators understand the learning needs of disabled people;
4. Ensure that disabled students, families, teachers and other educators have equitable access to the resources available to meet their needs;
5. Facilitate opportunities for disabled students to make contact with their disabled peers in other schools;
6. Improve schools’ responsiveness to and accountability for the needs of disabled students;
7. Promote appropriate and effective inclusive educational settings that will meet individual needs; and
8. Improve post-compulsory education options for disabled people, including promoting best practice, providing career guidance, increasing lifelong learning opportunities and better aligning financial support with educational opportunities”.p10

This initiative has clearly not reached every school in equal amounts, but the rights-based programme for education will ensure momentum so that school leaders and their staff keep developing the process of inclusion, enabling wider numbers and different impairment groups to be included. Much of what has been achieved can be used in countries around the world as the work is primarily about values, attitudes and practice.

3.13.4. Teachers meeting and dealing with resistance from leaders and colleagues

Earlier in this report we raised the idea that teachers need to be activists in order to promote inclusion, because it demands high motivation to overcome the status quo. The example is provided of a teacher, Paul Mumba (2001), from Zambia who struggled to overcome resistance from head teachers. Another is a case study of a student teacher from Kenya, studying in Pakistan, who met with a lot of resistance to inclusion and innovation from teachers and parents. She nevertheless continued to engage the children with special needs. When she revisited the school sometime after her training period, the teacher whose class she has been working in thanked her. The children with special needs were now the most active in the class and could not be kept quiet – the class teacher’s said that her view of them had been changed (Musalia, 2006, p.6). An example from Mali, one of the poorest countries in the world, showed how teachers could shift from ‘commitment to conviction’ after seeing the reality of children with disabilities benefiting from education. Often the strongest influence on changing attitudes and improving motivation comes from seeing inclusion in action (Stubbs,2000b, pp.8-9).

Ownership of change

An OECD report found that teachers need to have a sense of 'ownership' of reforms, balanced with a requirement to implement reforms that are mandated through democratic political processes. As mentioned earlier, educationalists are often the least consulted in relation to change within education, which can be driven by governments or activists. Yet their full engagement and commitment is necessary (OECD,2005, p.11).

Lessons from research in Lesotho found that despite poverty and a lack of material resources, inclusion was more successful than in areas with more resources, partly due to the level of stakeholder participation from the inception of the project. The ethos of community solidarity and responsibility was also a factor (Stubbs, 1997, pp.9-10).

In Macedonia, Johnstone (2010) identifies strong negative attitudes by teachers towards including children with disabilities and Roma children, despite legislation and a willingness from the Ministry of Education to move forward. The report recommends that Ministry staff, school leadership, teachers and parents need training in inclusive education principles so they can take ownership of the process of change. Other relevant recommendations include curriculum development, inclusive education training, strengthening of teacher education institutions, and development of a non-formal 'inclusive education leadership' programme. The report suggests that investment in pre-service teacher education may be the most efficient route to achieve the change needed, as current teachers' attitudes are so deeply ingrained. This report is unusual, in that it provides costings for the various recommendations (p.20). UNICEF CEE/CIS are currently working with EENET on developing training for faculty from all six of the Teacher Training Universities to take this strategy forward.⁴³

Despite the negative attitudes of current teachers, as we have seen in many places, change is possible. It is necessary to educate existing and new teachers if real change is to come about, otherwise newly trained teachers will be condemned to schools hostile to change. In much of the Balkans the salaries, terms and conditions of teachers are not conducive to teachers supporting professional development and change and any government action plan on implementing Article 24 will also need to tackle these structural problems.(UNICEF, 2011a)

In South Africa, Muthukrishna and Schoeman (2000) assess the lack of progress towards inclusion. They identify that inadequate teacher education impacts on the learning of children with disabilities, and has created a teaching staff with low confidence/self-esteem and a lack of innovative classroom practices for meeting the diverse needs of children. Recommendations emerging from their report include: training of Community Based Learning Support Team co-ordinators; inter-sectoral partnerships, rationalization of current education support personnel; retraining education support personnel for new roles; education management development; NGO involvement; parent empowerment and development; and the transformation of pre-service and in-service teacher education (Muthukrishna and Schoeman, 2000, pp.329-330). Things have moved on with White Paper No 6 (Department of Education, 2001) but many of the problems identified are still apparent in more recent analyses (OECD, 2008 and Rieser, 2012 pp.165-171). However, in some provinces such as Mpumalanga which now has 150⁴⁴ full service schools, there is clear evidence of ownership.

The Swedish International Development Cooperation Agency (2003) reviewed their support for inclusive education in a number of developing countries. They identified the work they supported in Laos PDR as particularly fruitful. The National Experimental Programme was carried out in partnership with the government and Save the Children UK. The programme's success was attributed to:

“equal emphasis on the teaching and learning environment and management of schools; equal emphasis on the learning of children facing difficulties and the learning of all children in the class; **the use of a process in which changes in teachers' behaviour come through supported practice rather than through reliance on formal training and theoretical models;** the establishment of a National Implementation Team (NIT); the establishment of similar teams at provincial levels (PITs); highly consistent monitoring and support for schools from the NIT at the

⁴³ Personal communication with Paula Federica Hunt, Inclusive Education Consultant within UNICEF in the region.

⁴⁴ Personal communication with Marie Schoemann at Ministry of Basic Education

early stages and then by the relevant PIT; consistent data gathering and year by year planning by the NIT; participatory styles of working; the active involvement of families and communities; cooperation with other sectors; clear achievable goals based on an understanding of the real situation in Lao schools and an understanding of the essential principles underlying inclusion” (SIDA, 2003, p.7).

Supported practice guided by the principles of including children with disabilities is a proven positive approach to inclusive classroom practice.

Activism

Sometimes stakeholder activism (and thus ownership of the issue) is more effective than pushes for change within the education system. An example from Vietnam, reports that teachers were rewarded if a child gained weight, so were unwilling to have children for example with cerebral palsy in their classes who were unlikely to gain weight. Change was brought about by parents advocacy rather than from within the education system which was rigid, (Stubbs, 1997, p.11).

3.13.5. Economic arguments

The AsiaN Development Bank (2010) emphasises the cost-effectiveness of inclusive education, framed as an opportunity for or 'solution' to reducing ministry of education budgets (the cost of funding a network of special schools is far higher than strengthening 'mainstream' systems to ensure all children can participate and learn). There is also less wastage in an inclusive system, with fewer learners dropping out and repeating. They make a strong economic case. ADB argues strongly for systemic change to make inclusive education possible. A core component of this is the restructuring of teacher education (along with EMIS, textbooks and curricula, monitoring and assessment, costing and budgeting).

3.13.6. Conclusion

Bringing about inclusive education, and in particular bringing about changes in the way teachers are trained and how they work, can be a lengthy and sensitive process, often requiring some sophisticated and/or persistent change management approaches.

As so much of the good practice observed takes place through school-based training and development, it needs to be properly planned and supported. A national plan, training and monitoring programme delivered in each school (as in New Zealand) shows how inclusive education can be brought to scale. Having a good plan without full monitoring and evaluation and an implementation strategy for teacher training in schools can undermine the plan (as was seen in South Africa).

Encouraging and using stakeholder involvement, and creating a climate in the country where negative attitudes are challenged consistently, is also important. Teachers having ownership of the change process in their school is important.

There are strong economic arguments in favour of getting all children with disabilities educated inclusively, but these may take time to come on stream as the inclusive system needs to be carefully developed. Spending on effective teacher education and maintaining teacher morale and developing their professionalism will pay dividends in the future and needs addressing thoroughly.

3.14. Poverty dimensions

3.14.1. Poverty and inclusion

It is common in the literature to find poverty given as a reason why children do not attend school and why inclusion is not possible. In poor communities, meeting the demands of really basic needs is naturally prioritised over the potential longer-term benefits of education, or the time consuming process of educational innovation.

Rouse (2012, p.xvi) mentions the high cost of uniforms, books, and the 'costs' of lost labour or help for the family if a child is at school. This is verified by a quote from a mother of a hearing impaired child in India who did not send her son to the local pre-school for hearing impaired children: "My son has a lot to do. I need him to take the goats out to graze. I can only send him when he has no work to do at home" (Stubbs, 2002, p.38).

Research from several different countries shows that poverty affects teacher trainee recruitment too (Kathmandu University School of Education, 2009). For instance, in Cambodia, the low pay of trainee teachers in the Teacher Training Colleges and poor conditions leads to a rapid turnover which is not conducive to developing trainee teachers with a good grasp of inclusive education (ibid, pp.37-38).

In the CEE CIS region transfer from training to teaching is low (only 17% in Kyrgyzstan p10) due to low pay, structural problems with pay, lack of career structure and the high expectations placed upon teachers (UNICEF 2011a). These conditions then impact on a situation where the large majority of children with disabilities are out of school or in need of deinstitutionalising across the region and make it more difficult to develop inclusive pedagogy (UNICEF 2012,p15).

UNESCO Bangkok (2009b) point out that in Vietnam inclusive education has to compete with other priorities in the government budget and policy making, meaning that inclusive education is seen as something of a luxury issue and so teachers see it as this also. The government introduced primary school fees in the 1990s. These are a major burden on families, although families in poverty with children with disabilities can be exempted/supported – those with severe disabilities get 100% reduction, other children with disabilities get 50%. The financial implications of schooling can be a major disincentive for families considering sending their children to school, disabled or otherwise. Official statistics show that children with disabilities tend to be from poorer families (e.g. 38% of children with disabilities come from poor families in Vinc Tuong, a district near Hanoi, compared to 2.7% of all children from poor families) p111. Families will further question the value of education if no job or vocational opportunities await their children with disabilities on completion of schooling. Teacher education needs to prepare teachers to address parental perceptions, and prove the value of education through displaying inclusive practice.

3.14.2. Costs of training

A report from Lao PDR found that registration fees were too high and excluded potential teacher trainees from poor families, including those with disabilities. (DTE Lao, 2011, p11).

Some countries prioritise in-service teacher education, believing it to be a cheaper way to improve the quality of education than reforming pre-school training. However, Hardman et al point out that there is no evidence of this, and that for in-service education to be effective, it takes time and resources (Hardman et al, 2011, p.3).

There are strong economic arguments for developing inclusive education. However, to do this there needs to be more capacity building and training, and a way has to be found to recruit more teachers with disabilities, which will mean – given the very poor retention rate – the need for incentives and

positive action. The whole process represents a viscous cycle. However there is some evidence (Stubbs 2008), that by involving DPOs, parents, young people and the community that this cycle can be broken and progress made.

3.14.3. Conclusion

Disability and poverty are linked in a mutually reinforcing vicious circle. This also limits access to education and subsequently dramatically to higher education. Because of poverty, inclusive education for children with disabilities is still viewed as a luxury in some countries. Poverty also may prohibit potential trainees from paying fees. Education is a human right and should be seen as a social good with the state paying fees or subsidising for the poor. As there is increasing recognition that pupils from marginalised groups should be recruited, forms of positive action are being used, such as grants in for example Ghana, Ethiopia, Kenya, Mozambique and Tanzania, where although fees had been abolished additional fees were preventing the enrolment of the poorest pupils (UNESCO 2010, p189). Another measure was providing guaranteed free places to the disabled child in a family as in Kenya and Uganda.

The recognition of such positive action methods applied to recruiting disabled trainee teachers is still in its infancy. As the Report to the UN General Secretary Realizing the Future We Want for All (UN 2012) makes clear

“To decisively address inequalities will entail resolving the symptoms and immediate effects of poverty and deprivation, but must also go further. Transformative change will require recognizing and tackling both manifested gaps and their structural causes, including discrimination and exclusion widely faced by women and girls, persons with disabilities, older people and members of indigenous and minority groups. National, local and regional strategies will need to be based on evidence and understanding of the structural and intersecting nature of inequalities, and shaped and monitored with the full involvement of the excluded” (UN 2012 p25)

3.15. Involvement of DPOs, parents and community groups

3.15.1. Children

Forlin (2012d pp.179-180) found that in the Asia and Pacific region, there was almost no involvement at all by children in education decision-making. By contrast, Ncube and Macfadyen (2006) plot the rise of an initiative by Leonard Cheshire Disability to give a voice to young people with disabilities, and how they intervened to get their views taken into account by those making the UNCRPD. In February 2010, young representatives from 19 countries met in Johannesburg, South Africa. This what they said about education, teachers and teaching:

“Shortage of trained staff and resource teachers at primary, secondary and tertiary levels;

- Lack of awareness and adoption of upcoming accessible technologies which can help us have equal access to education materials and information;
- No clear guidelines on inclusive education or concrete commitments in terms of budget allocation in our countries;
- Lack of awareness and education facilities for people with disabilities in rural areas;
- Inaccessible schools and local transport;
- No proper guidelines for providing a needs-based curriculum;
- Lack of access to scholarships by persons with disabilities.
- We therefore call on governments and other duty-bearers to recall the commitments made in the UNCRPD and urge them to address the problems as follows:
- Recruit sufficient resource teachers;

- Adopt upcoming accessible technologies and make them easily available;
- Issue clear guidelines on inclusive education and streamline needs-based education;
- Put in sufficient resources (budget allocations) to enable an education of equal importance and quality to be provided to all children with disabilities, including accessible buildings and school transport, teacher training and the provision of additional support for those who require specialist support;
- Develop appropriate solutions to provide education to people with severe disabilities, including home-based education;
- Raise awareness, especially in rural areas, of education facilities and the rights of children with disabilities to education;
- Introduce and expand scholarship opportunities for people with disabilities of all ages”.⁴⁵

The energy and ideas of children and young people with disabilities need to be marshalled in the professional development of teachers. Without the collaboration of children and young people inclusive education will never be achieved. Teachers through understanding the role children and disabled children in particular can play in class to enhance the learning situation should acquire the knowledge, skills and understanding to utilise the voice and experience of children to enhance learning.

This is supported by Peters (2004, p.29), who points out that children constitute an underused resource in schools. Peer tutoring programmes have emerged in the USA and elsewhere. They have shown great promise for providing cost-savings as well as being effective in accelerating the academic progress of both those being tutored and the tutors themselves. A recent example was how children in Madagascar were recruited and used their local knowledge to map children out of school including those with disabilities⁴⁶

Child to child education is one method all teachers need to be aware of. The basic principle of child-to-child support is “It recognises the power children have to change their lives and helps them improve the health development of themselves, their families and communities”⁴⁷ In 1987, Child-to-Child Trust developed a three-week course on Child-to-Child Inclusive Education in Zambia⁴⁸. A Child-to-Child project in Zambia called Twinning for Inclusion involved 16 primary schools. Non-disabled students were peered with disabled students to support each other within their schools and communities. Learning through experience, ‘twins’ in these schools “conduct their own surveys and experiments to discover answers for themselves. The aim was to encourage independence by creating an environment in which children learn to work together and help each other.” (Mumba, 1999, p.8).

Bringing disability into the curriculum

Teachers need to consciously work with students to challenge any disabilist thinking they have and deal fairly and firmly with bullying and name calling towards children with disabilities. A UK survey of young people aged 14–16 found that over 50% had not learned about people with disability in the last year in their school curriculum (Children’s Society, 2008).

⁴⁵ Leonard Cheshire Disability/Young Voices Global Statement, <http://youngvoices.lcdisability.org/learn/>

⁴⁶ www.irinnews.org/Report/96360/MADAGASCAR-Children-with-disabilities-get-a-second-chance-at-school 8.11.12

⁴⁷ Child to Child Trust <http://www.child-to-child.org> 2009 Annual Report

⁴⁸ http://www.child-to-child.org/ctcworldwide_past/zambia.htm

World of Inclusion⁴⁹ carried out a project for the UK Qualifications and Curriculum Authority, following a report from the Secretary of State for Education in 2008 that showed little had been done to include issues surrounding disability in the curriculum.

In 2009/2010, World of Inclusion was commissioned to work with schools in England to bring disability equality into the curriculum from a social model point of view. A report of the project, involving 25 schools is available online, as are nine short films showing promising practices.⁵⁰ Pupils and students were reported to be highly engaged in these activities and behaviour towards disabled peers improved. The work was carried out with pupils in Years 1–13 and covered all curriculum areas. It started by naming all the disabled people who have made a difference to the world and cited a study by Leeds University, based on primary school focus groups, which showed that many children thought disabled people sat at home and did nothing.

Many comments were recorded to show real attitudinal shift such as:

'It's not like they are different just because they are disabled' – Year 1 pupil, Hackney, London

'It's the mental impairments we need to concentrate upon, they are really hidden' – Year 13 pupil, Derbyshire

'You could say a word every day that disabled people find offensive and not know. Now I don't say them' – Year 10 pupil, Derbyshire

'This work is really interesting and changes the way I think about disabled people' – Year 4 pupil, Tower Hamlets, London

Another disability curriculum project was carried out by Playback in Scotland in 2002/2004.⁵¹ An activity on access and barriers was carried out and a film was shown of disabled young people recounting their experiences. A series of activities for citizenship and personal health and social education were developed and trialled in eight Scottish education authority areas over a two-year period from 2002 to 2004, involving 1,780 pupils and 175 teachers.

Data were collated and analysed by an independent agency, Jura Consultants. Its report highlighted that:

- Training sessions raised teachers' competence and confidence in discussing inclusion, disability and equality issues with pupils;
- Class teachers noticed a significant difference in pupils' understanding and perceptions of diversity and difference;
- Class teachers found that the resource activities fully engaged and encouraged pupils to think positively about, and become active in, changing their school environment and community;
- Participating pupils were able to clarify more fully the meaning of disability, reject the 'not normal' tag and recognise that everyone is unique;
- Children began to see disability in a real way and their attitudes shifted from sympathy to empathy;
- Teachers were able to stress the similarities, rather than differences, between children and resources could be widened to encompass all kinds of discrimination, exclusion and marginalisation.

(cited in Rieser, 2012 pp.274-275)

⁴⁹ World of Inclusion, <http://www.worldofinclusion.com/qcda.htm>. There are many lesson ideas here for raising disability equality.

⁵⁰ Resources for schools <http://www.worldofinclusion.com/qcda.htm> and 9 films www.redweather.co.uk/disabilityinthecurriculum

⁵¹ Learning and Teaching e-bulletin, <http://www.teachingexpertise.com/articles/including-disabledchildren-1063>

3.15.2. Organisations of People with Disabilities

Rieser (2012) highlights the important role that people with disabilities and their organisations (DPOs) can play in teacher education:

“Disabled adults and their organisations have a crucial role to play. These organisations need training to become effective advocates of inclusive education and disability equality. At the same time disabled people’s organisations can educate teachers about the social oppression that is disability. There are so few disabled teachers that we cannot wait. Disabled people and their organisations must be at the centre of the drive for inclusive education. ‘Nothing about us, without us’ has real meaning” (Rieser, 2012, p.287).

Having carried out a review of inclusive practice across the 54 countries of the Commonwealth, Rieser (2012) also comments:

“Disabled people’s organisations can help change attitudes by their presence and pressure. They are a very important element of change, by advocating rights-based approaches, compared to charity and medical approaches. Educating teachers to confront their own and their communities’ traditional idea of disability as a stigma is a necessary first step, as is getting them to understand that if they are a good teacher, they can be a good teacher for all children” (Rieser, 2012, p.294).

There are a few examples in the literature of DPOs being systematically involved in teacher education, though more evidence within the grey literature.

The Association of the Blind and Partially Sighted in Mozambique (ACAMO) initiated innovative work on advocacy for the education of blind and visually impaired children. In Beira province, ACAMO trained teachers to work with disabled children and promote inclusive teaching. Meanwhile, with support from the Commonwealth Education Fund (CEF), ACAMO aimed to develop a curriculum for children with special needs and bringing it to the attention of the Ministry of Education so that teachers could be trained to use it to include children with visual impairments. CEF supported ACAMO in sharing this work with a neighbouring country, Malawi. Unfortunately, the work on a new curriculum was not completed due to CEF’s lack of funding. ACAMO received only half of the approved budget. At policy level, ACAMO participated in the preparation of Mozambique’s annual plan for special needs education.⁵²

Handicap International (2010) ‘Rights in Action’ initiative is implemented as part of a broader regional project – Droit, Egalité, Citoyenneté, Solidarité, Inclusion des Personnes Handicapées (DECISIPH) – which addresses the issues of rights, equality, citizenship, solidarity and inclusion of disabled people across six countries in West Africa: Burkina Faso, Mali, Niger, Senegal, Sierra Leone and Togo. DECISIPH is a five-year programme, started in 2008, and implemented in partnership with the Secretariat of the African Decade of People with Disabilities (SADPD); national DPO federations; national and local DPOs; and public institutions responsible for disability issues. SADPD,⁵³ a DPO, has a vision of an African continent where disabled people enjoy their human rights. The primary objective of the ‘Rights in Action’ initiative is to promote practical, evidence-based recommendations on how to achieve inclusive local governance.

⁵² CEF Mozambique: End of Project Evaluation, www.commonwealtheducationfund.org/downloads/EPEs/CEF%20Mozambique%20End%20of%20Project%20Evaluation%20Report.pdf see also <http://acamo.awardspace.com/acamostory.php>

⁵³ www.africandecade.org

One example of how the framework (devised by Making It Work) has been applied is in West Africa, in the San municipality of Mali. Here there has been work on developing and funding capacity building for local teachers to include children with disabilities. Good practice was made possible by constructive dialogue and the creation of a disability focal point inside the local education administration, demonstrating that the concerns of disabled people were being taken into account by policy-makers at the local level⁵⁴ (Handicap International, 2010, pp.56-57, cited in Rieser, 2012, p.98). Another example of DPO involvement in teacher education in Mozambique has already been cited (see Section 3.6.2). Here, a teacher training college worked closely with a national DPO to train teachers with disabilities (Schurmann, 2006, p.21).

3.15.3. Parents

Parents and their organisations have often been the strongest advocates for inclusion, speaking up for the rights of their children. It is also often reported that inclusion cannot be fully successful unless parents are on board, so teachers need to develop skills to work with parents. In a case study from Uganda, it was found that there needs to be a good relationship between parents, teachers and pupils. Parent support and involvement is essential for successful inclusion particularly of children with disabilities. Teachers need to learn how to listen to, welcome and talk with parents (Katende, 2006, p.23). In this Uganda programme, parent groups were encouraged, and as a result parents even took their educational demands to district level. Teachers actively reached out to parents by visiting their homes and persuading parents to send their children to school. Learning how to relate sensitively to parents and community members, and to invite their collaboration in making education more inclusive, is a core competency that needs to be developed in teachers.

Forlin emphasises the need for teachers to work with a wide range of stakeholders, and they therefore require training in collaborative skills. In the Asia and Pacific region, “parents traditionally avoid contact with schools; there is a lack of infrastructure to support a multi-agency approach” (Forlin, 2012d pp.179-180).

Inclusion International organises parents of children with learning difficulties around the world and combined with their children as self-advocates are a powerful lobbying force and catalyst for change. Their assessment of the world situation on inclusive education 15 years after the Salamanca Statement drew on the views of more than 700 parents and painted a largely negative picture of progress, though there were examples of parents working with teachers and educating them to positively include their children. (Inclusion International 2009)

Empowered parents can work as a catalyst for the development of inclusive education:

“A national parent organisation was established in Lesotho in 1992, in close association with the Lesotho National Federation of Organisations of Disabled People. The Lesotho Society for Mentally Handicapped Persons (LSMHP) learned to speak the language of rights and empowerment, and has become an important partner of the Ministry of Education in promoting more inclusive practices in schools and society. This organisation is an example of the empowerment model, where the parents see their role as lobbyists. They have lobbied for their children’s right to access services provided by the government. The empowerment of parents and families is the main focus of the organisation. Empowered parents are more able to demand services for their children. They are less likely to become caught up in service provision themselves. Instead, they are working in partnership with the Ministry of Education’s Inclusive Education Programme. They have realised that they have valuable skills to offer. The

⁵⁴ Making It Work Handicap International <http://www.makingitwork-crpd.org/>
Rights in Action Good Practice for Inclusive Governance in West Africa Mali project reported p56-57 http://www.ak-project.com/IMG/pdf/rapport150PDesiciph_GB_PRODP104_301110.pdf

Ministry of Education has been responsible for introducing inclusive practices into 60 primary schools, out of a total of 1,000. It is the ministry's policy to expand this programme to all schools, but they have a limited capacity".

Family Action for Inclusion(Miles,2002) has many other examples of this process.

3.15.4. Community and CBR

Community involvement is referred to frequently in documentation as an essential ingredient for successful inclusion. Therefore teachers need training and support in how to relate to communities and involve them: "Teachers need to be able to seek and use the support of other actors who can serve as valuable resources in inclusive education, such as support staff, parents, communities, school authorities" (European Training Foundation, 2010, p.23).

Community-based rehabilitation is a strategy that promotes the rights of persons with disabilities and works across different sectors. For a real twin-track approach to inclusion, CBR can be seen as an essential ingredient. CBR workers live in communities and are skilled in working with families and relating to different stakeholders. Kisanji (1999, p.2) explores the links between CBR and inclusive education, and argues for greater recognition of traditional forms of education and. Naanda (2001, p.9) also recommends "Community Based Rehabilitation and Inclusive Education should not be seen as separate entities but more as complementary approaches to serve those with special needs. The need for the Government to decentralise services to communities in support of Inclusive Education and Community Based Rehabilitation was also stressed."

Because CBR can be such an important complement to inclusive education, teachers need to know how to work effectively with CBR programmes, and CBR programmes need to engage in training and supporting teachers with the challenges of including children with disabilities in their schools.

According to CBR Education guidelines (WHO,2010 p2) 'The role of CBR is to work with the education sector to help make education inclusive at all levels, and to facilitate access to education and lifelong learning for people with disabilities'.

"CBR personnel have many responsibilities and are not specialists in education, therefore they need to work in collaboration with the community (schools, families, people with disabilities, community leaders), focusing on raising awareness about rights, inclusion and the social model, and mobilizing and supporting all those involved. Parents know their own child and can provide very helpful information to teachers. Teachers can help parents support learning at home. The district education office needs to be supportive of inclusion if it is to be sustainable. The health and social sectors need to be involved and communicate with each other. Itinerant (travelling) teachers can fill many different roles, create linkages and offer different types of support. These teachers have specific communication skills, e.g. teaching Braille or sign language, and travel to schools to provide advice, resources and support to students with disabilities, their teachers, and their parents".(WHO,2010,p30)

As the World Report on Disability identifies (WHO,2011, p117) Community Based Rehabilitation can provide support in several ways that gets children and adults with disabilities ready to be included.

- By identifying people with impairments More generally CBR last longer and is cheaper and reaches more children.
- By delivering simple therapeutic strategies to families or individuals with disabilities such as better posture to prevent contractures and training in daily living skills.
- Providing individual or group based educational and other support in Thailand two rural areas used CBR to manage their rehabilitation problems collaboratively.

3.15.5. Conclusion

Children, parents, DPOs and the whole community are all important stakeholders in inclusive education and have strong interest in making it work once their traditional ideas have been challenged.

Children can be the biggest resource and strongest advocates for the inclusion of their peers with disabilities; using a child-to-child approach has proved very effective. However, they can also harbour negative attitudes leading to name calling and bullying of children with disabilities. Teachers must challenge and educate all children on where such negative attitudes come from, from a human rights point of view, and then engage the children without disabilities as champions for the inclusion of their disabled peers.

Parents are very powerful advocates, but often focus on children with similar impairments to their own child. Yet they have much to impart to teachers to help them understand inclusion.

DPOs can help change attitudes by their presence and pressure. They are a very important element of change, by advocating rights-based approaches, compared to charity and medical approaches. Educating teachers to confront their own and their communities' traditional ideas of disability as a stigma is a necessary first step, as is getting them to understand that if they are a good teacher, they can be a good teacher for all children.

Enrolling village elders, community leaders and health and social workers in the development of community awareness for including children with disabilities plays a key part in developing inclusive schools, and teachers need to know how to work with the community effectively. CBR programmes offer a very useful set of tools and a bridge into school.

4. Useful resources

4.1. Resources to develop the capacity of teachers to meet the needs of children with disabilities in inclusive settings

Inclusive education is a process to which there is no end (Mason and Rieser, 1994, p.21; UNESCO, 2009, p.7). Teachers and schools just continue to get better at meeting the needs of diverse pupils, and in the case of our review, the needs of children with disabilities. Therefore all professional development, which continues throughout the life of a teacher, has an element of developing the capacity of the teacher to meet the needs of children with disabilities. Impairment specific training is not a requirement for professional development, though sometimes this helps to focus; rather a general inclusive reflective stance supported by the leadership of the school, the local administration and the Government is the key route. The resources identified and commented upon here are viewed from this perspective.

We have seen throughout this review that there are considerable misunderstandings and tensions: between EFA and inclusion; between a 'broad brush' approach to inclusion and the more impairment-specific approach necessary for including children with disabilities; and in terms of how inclusion fits with the concept of child-friendly schools. We have argued that the net effect of these confusions has been to widen the gap between the numbers of disabled and non-disabled children in school. There has been a pendulum swing in relation to literature on inclusive education over the last couple of decades from a primary focus on special needs and children with disability, to a focus on pedagogy and curriculum to include all learners. Some of the most useful material for teachers on development, impairments, practical methods and screening was produced quite a while ago.

In the late 1980s and 1990s a number of resources focusing on disabled children in developing countries were produced, containing very specific means of identifying and meeting their needs. These were often written from a medical or impairment focus and paid inadequate attention to the negative values and attitudes that comprise oppression towards people with disabilities. However they still contain very useful information. For instance, David Werner's 'Disabled Village Children' (Werner, 1987) provides a wealth of easily understood material on identification of impairment and how to provide support and aides for children with disabilities. Similarly the first CBR guidelines (WHO (1989) 'Training in the Community for People with Disabilities') provided a lot of guidance and material to explain children's various impairments and how to accommodate them, at a level that families, communities and teachers could understand. Another example is Thorburn's 'Practical Approaches to Childhood Disability in Developing Countries' (Thorburn and Marfo, 1994) which was developed from applying CBR in Jamaica, etc.

Specifically focused on children with disabilities and education in ordinary classrooms was the video training pack produced for the Lesotho Ministry of Education (Mariga, Phachaka, and McConkey, 1996). This approach was further developed by McConkey et al in Zanzibar, where they use a series of films (available online) to demonstrate the changes of practice needed by teachers to accommodate learners with intellectual impairments in a pilot project in 20 schools (McConkey, Mariga and Maalim, 2007). In this period, their resource was the exception, being specifically focused on adjustments needed to include children and young people with disabilities. The excellent Culturally Appropriate Policy and Practice (CAPP) resources produced in India by Mithu Alur and colleagues (2005a,b,c) are another training pack that has successfully provided specific training on children with disabilities from a social model point of view, along with covering more general inclusion questions.

How did the switch in focus come about?

In the run up to and following Salamanca (UNESCO 1994) – where the primary focus was on children with disabilities – UNESCO made a big push to develop resources and training materials to include children with disabilities in the mainstream classroom. One example was their development of the Special Needs in the Classroom Teacher Education Resource Pack (UNESCO 1993) and the commissioning of Mel Ainscow to write the companion teacher education guide ‘Special Needs in the Ordinary Classroom’(UNESCO 2004/1994). This material and its application to teachers and schools was piloted in 20 countries and reported on in *Inclusive Schools and Community Support Programmes. Report on Phase 1: 1996-1997* (UNESCO, 1999) and *Phase 2: 1998-2001* (UNESCO, 2002). This process produced considerable insight for the way forward, which was drawn together in the ‘Open File on Inclusive education Support Materials for Managers and Administrators’(UNESCO, 2001a).

In all these documents the primary focus was on children with disabilities, though – as at Salamanca – other excluded or marginalised groups were mentioned. However, some researchers faced with the enormity and variety of out-of-school children began to have a different vision of inclusion as encompassing all excluded groups. For instance, Ainscow et al. (1995) examining inclusion in India, state:

“It recognized that in many developing countries like India the continuing struggle to achieve compulsory education for a majority of children takes precedence over meeting the needs of those with disabilities” (Ainscow et al, 1995, p.135).

In the next decade UNESCO increasingly produced resources that dealt with inclusion as a generalised approach for all excluded children. The details of meeting impairment-specific needs was not mentioned much, or was assumed to be covered by special educational needs provision. ‘Changing Teaching Practices - using differentiation to respond to students' diversity’ (UNESCO, 2004) makes clear this new wider focus, following on from Dakar’s reaffirmation of Education for All and the Millennium Development Goals (which do not mention children with disabilities).

“The exclusion often has a social, financial, ethnic and lingual base. Groups remaining ignored in education are often children from ethnic and linguistic minorities, girls, children with severe social stigma (e.g., sex-workers’ children, children from slums), working children, street children, domestic helpers, children who are physically and intellectually challenged and many others. Reaching out to all the marginalised groups of children is not about addressing the needs of certain students to the disadvantage of others” (UNESCO, 2004, p.7).

UNESCO Bangkok’s (2004) ‘Embracing Diversity: Toolkit for Creating Inclusive, Learning-Friendly Environments’ provided six excellent booklets on developing an inclusive education approach for all. It was not until five years later, however, that the additional and excellent booklet ‘Teaching Children with Disabilities in Inclusive Settings’ (UNESCO Bangkok, 2009) was produced. UNESCO’s ‘Guidelines for Inclusion: Ensuring Access for All’ (UNESCO, 2005a) also emphasise this broad brush approach which leaves out the specific impairment needs of different groups of children with disabilities, as does the newer version ‘Policy Guidelines on Inclusion in Education’ (UNESCO, 2009). Nowadays it is not so common to find a combined approach to inclusion, with information on how to fully support learners with disabilities (the twin-track approach). A case in point is some modules developed by Ainscow, Miles and Slee (2011) for UNICEF Iraq.⁵⁵ They start by taking the position argued in Section

⁵⁵ A Study of Education Opportunities for Disabled Children & Youth and Early Childhood Development in Iraq A Study of Education Opportunities for Disabled Children & Youth and Early Childhood Development in Iraq Teachers for inclusive schools in Iraq. A training model for primary teachers in Iraq to extend the educational opportunities of disabled children and young people. Ainscow M Miles Slee R (2011) Volume 3 Training Module ,UNICEF

1, that all teachers need a Disability Equality approach, and suggest these modules could be the basis for mainstream primary training elsewhere for teaching children with disabilities. So keen are the authors to get away from the idea that “Specialists in disability can play a role in breaking down the technical ‘mystique’ associated with special education” (ibid. p.16) that there is no mention of reasonable accommodations, specific supports or impairment specific needs, only a reliance on general inclusion methods. Without these it will not be possible to successfully include children with a whole range of impairments.

However, the key resources mentioned in Section 4.3 below help to bridge that gap.

Particularly useful training course materials for the inclusion of children with disabilities are:

- the three ring binders produced by Dr Mithu Alur et al (2005a,b,c) and her team at the National Resource Centre for Inclusion, India – CAPP1,CAPP2 and CAPP3. These come from a social model analysis, but provide the impairment specific adjustments necessary to successfully include children with disabilities.They are organised around the macro level (policy), mezzo level (administrators) and community and micro level (schools, classrooms and individual children with disabilities).
- UNESCO’s Special Needs in the Classroom Resource Pack (UNESCO 1993) and the companion teacher Education Guide ‘Special Needs in the Ordinary Classroom’ (Ainscow 1994/2004)
- UNESCO Bangkok’s Teaching Children with Disabilities in Inclusive Settings, (Embracing Diversity: Toolkit Specialized Booklet 3), which is particularly useful on impairment specific accommodations.

4.2. Resources that support screening practices

Information on screening is included in several of the practical manuals and toolkits listed below. For instance, Werner (1987 Ch. 6, p.36) – although dated and medical model orientated – provides simple to use and straightforward illustrated guidance on identifying different impairments. This book also provides many useful tips on what families and health workers and teachers should do.

Thornbury and Marfo (1994) ‘Practical Approaches to Childhood Disability in Developing Countries’ provides similar practical guidance based on three years of CBR work in Jamaica. The chapter on ‘Observation and assessment’ within Daniels and Stafford (1999) ‘Creating Inclusive Classrooms’ (produced with the Step by Step Foundation) contains lots of guidance and tools for identifying the particular impairment needs of children in an early years and primary setting. The publication comes from an SEN position, but provides an easily understood approach.

The WHO (1989) ‘Training in the Community for People with Disabilities’ manual is for people in the community who are planning, implementing or evaluating a CBR programme. The manual consists of four guides and 30 training packages. The guides target local supervisors, the community rehabilitation committee, people with disabilities, and school teachers. The training packages are for family members of people with disabilities, and contain information about different types of disabilities and rehabilitation procedures that will help them to assist people with disabilities in their daily lives. It is focused on the impairment specifically, but has lots of easily understood information.⁵⁶

<https://www.escholar.manchester.ac.uk/api/datastream?publicationPid=uk-ac-manscw:131680&datastreamId=SUPPLEMENTARY-8.PDF>

⁵⁶ Introduction [pdf 1.6Mb] http://whqlibdoc.who.int/hq/1991/31922_intro.pdf Guide for Local Supervisors [pdf 3.2Mb]
http://whqlibdoc.who.int/hq/1991/31922_guide1.pdf Guide for the Community Rehabilitation Committee [pdf 1.7Mb]
http://whqlibdoc.who.int/hq/1991/31922_guide2.pdf Guide for People with Disabilities [pdf 527kb]
http://whqlibdoc.who.int/hq/1991/31922_guide3.pdf Guide for School Teachers [pdf 1.9Mb]

The revised CBR guidance (WHO,2010) do not go into such impairment specific detail, but the education guidance is very useful at showing the interconnected role of CBR and teaching.

‘Guidelines for Full Service Inclusive Schools’ (Directorate Inclusive Education, Republic of South Africa, 2010), provides a useful set of questions and checklist on (i) Policy/legislation, (ii) Characteristics of a full service/inclusive school, (iii) Management of whole school development,(iv) Collaboration and team work, (v) Professional development , (vi) Provision of support , (vii) Assessment of learners’ needs, (viii) Curriculum, and (ix) Teaching and classroom practice⁵⁷.

Still in development, and therefore not formally available for review is a screening manual for use as part of a five-module training of teacher educators programme in Macedonia. The manual is being developed by EENET for UNICEF Macedonia. It takes a fairly broad stance on screening for learning needs and identifying barriers to learning, not on identifying impairments as such, but makes specific reference to disabled learners throughout.⁵⁸

‘Schools for All’, published by Save the Children (2002, pp.65-72) provides advice to teachers on how to assess children. During the development process, debates arose about whether the assessment checklists for teachers should be included, given that the manual was not part of a face-to-face training package (the latter might help teachers to better understand how to use assessments to support inclusion rather than to reinforce segregation). The checklists were included, although no formal evaluation of the manual has been carried out to enable understanding of whether and how teachers made effective use of the screening and assessment guidance.⁵⁹

Ahmed (2006) provides an interesting example from Pakistan about training teachers to use child-to-child methods which were then put to use to help the teacher screen children for visual impairments. The work includes child participation/voice, building child self-reliance, and teacher and pupil engagement with parents – all of which are useful to the teacher throughout the school day, not just for the sight testing piece of work.

4.3. Tools that can support teachers

In this section we provide details of some of the key manuals, guides and toolkits that exist and that we feel to be most pertinent or useful in the context of developing programmes to support regular teachers to include children with disabilities

http://whqlibdoc.who.int/hq/1991/31922_guide4.pdf Training package for a family member of a child who has a difficulty seeing [pdf 1.7Mb] http://whqlibdoc.who.int/hq/1991/31922_1-3.pdf Training package for a family member of a person who has difficulty speaking and hearing or speaking and moving [pdf 2.0Mb] http://whqlibdoc.who.int/hq/1991/31922_4-7.pdf

Training packages for family members of people who have difficulty moving [pdf 9.3Mb]

http://whqlibdoc.who.int/hq/1991/31922_8-16.pdf Training packages for family members of people who have no feeling in the hands or feet [pdf 1.1Mb] http://whqlibdoc.who.int/hq/1991/31922_17-18.pdf Training packages for family members of adults who show strange behaviour [pdf 701kb] http://whqlibdoc.who.int/hq/1991/31922_19-20.pdf

Training package for family members of people who have fits [pdf 522kb]

http://whqlibdoc.who.int/hq/1991/31922_21.pdf Training package for family members of people who have difficulty learning [pdf 1.9Mb] http://whqlibdoc.who.int/hq/1991/31922_22-24.pdf General training packages [pdf 6.2Mb]

http://whqlibdoc.who.int/hq/1991/31922_25-30.pdf

⁵⁷ Full Service school in the South African context means “schools and colleges that will be equipped and supported to provide for the full range of learning needs among all our learners” (Education White Paper 6, 2001: p. 22).

⁵⁸ Module 4: Screening and Identification of Learning Needs. Trainer’s manual. Personal communication, Ingrid Lewis, EENET

⁵⁹ Personal communication, Ingrid Lewis, EENET.

UNESCO (1993) Special Needs in the Classroom: Teacher education resource pack⁶⁰

“These student materials are part of a UNESCO project to help schools and teachers respond to pupils with special needs. The materials are intended to be used flexibly to fit in with different situations.

They may, for example, be used as:

- 1 Part of an initial training course for teachers;
- 2 An in-service workshop for experienced teachers;
- 3 The basis of a school-based staff development programme.

The materials consist of four modules as follows:

Module 1 An introduction to ‘Special Needs in the Classroom’

Module 2 Special needs: Definitions and responses

Module 3 Towards effective schools for all

Module 4 Help and support.”

The pack has been used in more than 80 countries, according to Booth and Dyssegard (2008) and was led by Mel Ainscow (Ainscow, 1994) which was a summation of the views and practices of an international resource team. ‘Special Needs in the Classroom’. It was updated and a second edition published in 2004.

Culturally Appropriate Policy and Practice

These three modules produced by Dr Mithu Alur et al (2005a,b,c) and her team at the National Resource Centre for Inclusion, India offer a practical and accessible training pack. It was developed initially through training teachers and other professionals firstly in Mumbai, and for the last ten years through supporting the training of professionals across the Asia and Pacific region (funded by the Women’s Council UK). This is both comprehensive and detailed and has grown out of the pioneering work the National Centre for Inclusion Mumbai (formerly the Spastic Society of India) has carried out in Mumbai and beyond, as outlined in ‘The Journey for Inclusion’ (Alur and Bach, 2010)

CAPP1 Macro level – Alur and Bach (2005a)^{61 62}

- Module 1 Global view Disability: Education and Inclusion; History of the Oppression of Disabled People; Shift from a Medical to a Social Model and Human Rights Model Process of Social Change.
- Module 2 Vision and Principles of Inclusive Education: Commitments and Barriers; Roles in Creating Inclusive Education Systems.
- Module 3 The Policy Making Process for Inclusive Education: Policy Making and Fragmentation; Policy Fragmentation and Policy Barriers stop Inclusive Education; Designing a Policy Framework and Policy Making Progress. The Macro module then ends with some of the ‘big’ ideas that drive the broad track of inclusive education. Module 4 Teacher Preparation for Inclusive Education: Multiple Intelligence; Differentiation of Needs and Curriculum; Changing roles of teachers and students; Teaching Strategies to facilitate inclusion.

CAPP II Mezzo level The Whole Community Approach to Inclusive Education – Alur, Rioux and Evans (2005b).

This consists of a series of training manuals which deal with the key arguments and activities that are necessary to set up a local district inclusive system.

⁶⁰ <http://unesdoc.unesco.org/images/0009/000966/096636eo.pdf>

⁶¹ NRCI, Bandra Reclamation K.C., Marg Bandra (West), Mumbai 400 050, India. www.adaptssi.org

⁶² The World Bank have compiled a detailed summary of contents of CAPI,II & III with some examples of the activities http://siteresources.worldbank.org/DISABILITY/Resources/Data/299157-1242058318159/AP05_2_CAPP.doc

- Manual 1 – for policy makers to raise awareness of the barriers in the Indian context.
- Manual 2 – training for bureaucrats and administrators.
- Manual 3-6 – these are aimed at changing attitudes in the community – a very important skill that teachers need to interact with their local community.
- Manual 7-11 – explains how to plan inclusive programmes, professionals, master trainers and anganwadi workers, being child centred, cost effective, using recycled material. These lay out some of the essential parts of professional training and will be very useful to school leaders and trainers in higher education.
- Manual 12 – how to train anganwadi workers (pre-school) to understand children with disability and include them in the classroom. Unlike many of the currently in-vogue training packs, CAPP does go into detail about specific impairment accommodations and how to make them in a low resource environment.
- Manual 13-14 – shows how to develop aids and appliances and how to work on health and nutrition. This section would be a useful addition to the screening tools in the last section.
- Manual 15-16 – demonstrates identifying children with disabilities, planning an inclusive classroom and including children with different disabilities.

CAPPIII Micro level – Alur and Timmons (2005c)

This is based on action research in Mumbai entitled ‘A Journey from Segregation to Inclusive Education’ (Alur and Bach, 2010). Starting with those who have been identified as key ingredients to making a whole-school approach to inclusive teacher development work, Section 1 deals with heads and leaders, and then moves on to training materials to use with staff, covering: what is inclusive education, how all children should be treated as full members, ensuring adequate support, working with families, collaboration, setting an example. As we have seen, co-agency and collaboration between teachers is vital but often neglected by top down models. Section 2 covers: ‘Teachers Supporting Teachers’ – teaching all children, understanding inclusion, creating a child-centred curriculum, welcoming the child, full participation, enabling families, collaborative practice, working with other professionals, children interacting with each other, enjoyable learning, children supporting children, supporting families, tips for teaching children with different impairments.

Each section is ready to use in a training situation with activities, overheads and examples; a very useful resource.

Index for Inclusion

Booth et al (2000,) ‘Index for Inclusion: Developing learning and participation in schools’. The 2002 version Booth and Ainscow (2002) was adjusted in light of comments from schools using the Index. The latest version(2011) includes wider values of peace and sustainability.

The ‘Index for Inclusion’ is a set of materials to guide schools through a process of inclusive school development. It is about building supportive communities and fostering high achievement for all staff and students. It is based upon the social model of disability, DPOs being involved in the original working group to design the index and so focusses on identifying barriers and finding solutions to those who are excluded.⁶³

The index can be used to:

- “adopt a self-review approach to analyse... cultures, policies and practices and to identify the barriers to learning and participation that may occur within each of these areas.
- decide [the school’s] own priorities for change and to evaluate their progress.

⁶³ See p6 Index and page 102.

- use it as an integral part of existing development policies, encouraging a wide and deep scrutiny of everything that makes up a school's activities.

The Index takes the social model of disability as its starting point, builds on good practice, and then organises the Index work around a cycle of activities which guide schools through the stages of preparation, investigation, development and review.”⁶⁴

The 2002 edition is available on line and has been translated into over 20 languages and used in over 70 countries.⁶⁵ Many of these are available on line at this EENET page including an Early Years version.

The index is also an excellent training tool. It uses largely the broad brush approach to inclusive education.

*Embracing Diversity: Toolkit for Creating Inclusive Learning-Friendly Environments*⁶⁶

(UNESCO Bangkok 2004)

“The Toolkit promotes and provides guidance on how to create an inclusive, learning-friendly environment (ILFE), which welcomes, nurtures, and educates all children regardless of their gender, physical, intellectual, social economic, emotional, linguistic, or other characteristics. They may be disabled and gifted children; street or working children; children of remote or nomadic peoples; children from linguistic, ethnic or cultural minorities; children affected by HIV/AIDS; or children from other disadvantaged or marginalized areas or groups”⁶⁷. All of this tool kit has been developed and trialled in countries of the South and is available in a number of languages⁶⁸

“This toolkit contains an introductory booklet and nine booklets (including three specialized booklets), each of which contains tools and activities for self-study to start creating an inclusive, learning-friendly environment. Some of these activities ask the reader to reflect on what his/her school are doing now in terms of creating an ILFE, while others actively guide the reader in improving his/her skills as a teacher in a diverse classroom.”⁶⁹

- **Booklet 1 Becoming an Inclusive Learning-Friendly Environment**

Explains what an inclusive, learning-friendly environment is and how it can be created.

- **Booklet 2 Working with Families and Communities to Create an ILFE**

Explains how important families and communities are to the process of creating and maintaining an inclusive learning-friendly environment, as well as how to involve parents and community members in the school and children in the community.

- **Booklet 3 Getting All Children in School and Learning**

Lists the barriers that exclude rather than include all children in school, and describes how to identify children who are not in school and deal with barriers to their inclusion.

- **Booklet 4 Creating Inclusive Learning-Friendly Classrooms**

⁶⁴ www.csie.org.uk/resources/inclusion-index-explained.shtml

⁶⁵ www.eenet.org.uk/resources/resource_search.php?theme=indx&date=0&author=0&publisher=0&type=0&country=0

⁶⁶ Download wentire toolkit

http://www.unescobkk.org/fileadmin/user_upload/appeal/human_rights/ILFE_Toolkit_complete_01.pdf

⁶⁷ <http://www.unescobkk.org/education/inclusive-education/resources/ilfe-toolkit/>

⁶⁸ Albanian,Arabic (coming soon), Bangla, Braille (coming soon) Dari (Afghan version) English (Afghan version) English (original version) Hindi (coming soon) Indonesian, Laotian, Karen, Khmer, Myanmar, Pashto (coming soon),Swahili (coming soon),Thai.

⁶⁹ <http://www.unescobkk.org/education/inclusive-education/resources/ilfe-toolkit/>

Describes how to create an inclusive classroom and why becoming inclusive and learning-friendly is so important to children's achievement. It explains how to deal with the wide range of different children attending one class, and how to make learning meaningful for all.

- **Booklet 5 Managing Inclusive Learning-Friendly Classrooms**

Explains how to manage an inclusive classroom, including planning for teaching and learning, maximising available resources, and managing group work and co-operative learning, as well as how to assess children's learning.

- **Booklet 6 Creating Healthy and Protective ILFE**

Suggests ways to make your school healthy and protective for ALL children, and especially those with diverse backgrounds and abilities.

- **Specialised Booklet 1 Positive Child Discipline in the Inclusive Learning-Friendly Classroom**

The lack of skills in handling disciplinary problems leads many teachers to physically or verbally abuse their students. The booklet suggests some ideas about how head teachers, teachers and other caregivers can use positive discipline techniques to create a learning-friendly environment. It focuses on abolishing corporal punishment and presents positive discipline tools.

- **Specialised Booklet 2 Practical Tips for Teaching Larger Classes**

When teachers perceive the class as large, there is a tendency to fall back on traditional teaching by rote learning rather than child-friendly methods. This booklet demonstrates ways of teaching larger classes.

- **Specialised Booklet 3 Teaching Children with Disabilities in Inclusive Settings**

This booklet examines the main range of impairments and provides tips on what to do to overcome barriers to learning and the type of individual adjustments that work (see more detail in Section 4.5).

Throughout the six main books and the other specialized books there are some references to accommodations for children with disabilities. Booklet 3: Getting All Children In School and Learning also has a seven question rudimentary checklist for children with disabilities (on p.39).

This toolkit is particularly useful for teachers who wish to change from a teacher-centred approach to a child-centred approach.

INEE Pocket Guide to Supporting Learners with Disabilities

INEE (2010) 'INEE Pocket Guide to Supporting Learners with Disabilities'⁷⁰

This guide was written for teachers working in emergency, conflict and crisis situations, but has proven to be very popular with teachers and trainers in regular contexts because it is short and easy-to-read. It looks at key issues such as recognising children's learning needs, managing the school day, planning learning activities, etc. For each issue there is a summary of the main challenges that teachers may face; suggestions for key messages to convey to teachers during training or discussions; and suggestions for practical actions that teachers can be encouraged to discuss with each other and adapt to their own situation.

CBR Guidelines: Education Component

WHO (2010) 'CBR Guidelines: Education Component'⁷¹The goal is "People with disabilities access education and lifelong learning, leading to fulfilment of potential, a sense of dignity and self-worth, and effective participation in society" (p.3). "A school may have an accessible building and teachers who are trained to work with all types of children, but children with disabilities may still be excluded. They may be hidden in back rooms at home, the family may lack support, and they may need assistive

⁷⁰ www.eenet.org.uk/resources/docs/INEE_Supporting_Learners_with_Disabilities.pdf

⁷¹ http://whqlibdoc.who.int/publications/2010/9789241548052_education_eng.pdf

devices and medical rehabilitation. CBR can address all these issues and liaise between the education, health and social sectors and with disabled people's organizations" (p.3).

CBR has largely been associated with supporting children with disabilities into Early Years Education. Chapter 2 is full examples and ways of doing just that. The Section on primary education says "The role of CBR is to collaborate with primary education systems to create inclusive local schools, to support families and children with disabilities to access primary education in their local community, and to develop and maintain links between the home, community and schools" (p.29). The perspective is of mobilising the community and its resources from the bottom up to support the development of inclusive education for children with disabilities.

The manual makes the following important point about the need for an impairment specific strand: "Two false ideas that are frequently used to discredit inclusion are: 1) that it will only work if expensive specialist resources are available; and 2) that no additional resources are required. Both are untrue. Inclusive primary education can be cost-effective....The two important concepts in relation to resources and support are as follows. Use of local resources: most resources and support needed to help children learn are not "special". Local resources (material, financial or personnel) need to be used. Provision of access to specialist support: for some children with disabilities, specialist input may be needed to facilitate their inclusion. Specialist skills, support and/or equipment may be needed for learning Braille, or for learning to use augmentative and alternative forms of communication to speech (AAC), e.g. signboards, charts, gestures, electronic devices, pictures" (see CBR Health component: for Assistive devices⁷²) (p.33).

Supporting the conclusion of this review, the CBR component on education in primary school says: "Ongoing training in the school environment is the most effective way to train teachers, rather than sending them to training centres/colleges away from the practical situation. CBR programmes can develop and provide training and resources for:

- different impairments and their implications for learning;
- different modes, means and forms of communication;
- daily living skills, orientation and mobility skills;
- assistive devices, teaching aids and equipment;
- monitoring and evaluation of inclusive primary education with the active involvement of children" (p.38).

The guide then goes on to cover all the necessary approaches and accommodations for the primary class in a simple and direct way, illustrated by examples which would act as a very useful introduction to teachers who are beginning their journey to inclusive practice.

The **World Bank** (2006) have compiled a data base of articles and packs that enhance the development of inclusive education.⁷³

Teacher Training on Inclusive Education Database (World Bank 2006)

"This is a collection of teacher training on inclusive education. The database includes materials in different languages and it is structured by geographical regions. It is also ranked by year. We believe this database can be a useful source and information for practitioners" (p.1).

The materials are divided under 3 headings

⁷² Health Component see http://whqlibdoc.who.int/publications/2010/9789241548052_health_eng.pdf

⁷³ <http://web.worldbank.org/WBSITE/EXTERNAL/TOPICS/EXTSOCIALPROTECTION/EXTDISABILITY/0,,contentMDK:22197866~menuPK:6522289~pagePK:210058~piPK:210062~theSitePK:282699,00.html>

- SECTION I: Training Manuals, Modules, Packages, Programs, etc.
- SECTION II: Seminars, Workshops, etc.
- SECTION III: University Inclusive Education courses, programs etc.

Overall there are more than 1,000 references on this data base. Content runs up to 2006, when the Bank's priorities changed. There is a strong case for the Bank to renew its focus on inclusive education with the emphasis in equity in the run-up to reformulating the Millennium Development Goals (UN 2012)

Country-specific manuals and toolkits

The following have all been produced in specific countries, though many are relevant and have been used in multiple countries.

Sri Lanka: Mendis (2006) 'Children who have Disability in Early Childhood Care and Early Childhood teaching'⁷⁴

This is a manual focused on particular children with different impairments at a very basic level, and would be useful to use working with parents and support staff as well as teachers at early stages of their understanding. It talks about the main impairment groups and is illustrated.

Brazil: World Bank (2003) 'Inclusive education in Brazil Present Diagnosis and Challenges for the future'

This is a very useful document, the result of a three-day conference and various communities of interest engaging in facilitated discussion (nearly 300 educationalists were involved). The following sections are particularly useful:

- Public Policies (p.16)
- Assistive Technologies and Pedagogic Materials (p.33) which has many interesting ways of using information technology to enhance the learning of children with disabilities
- Curriculum Adaptation (p.40)
- Accessibility (p.56)
- Family and Community (p.71)

There are also some useful supplementary studies:

- Assistive Technologies in Brazil (p.101)
- Inclusive Education in the Regular Teaching System: The Case of Rio de Janeiro Municipality (p.121)
- National Panorama of Inclusive Education in Brazil: diagnostic study and challenges (p.133)
- Accessible School Furniture and Appropriate Technology (p.101).

All these sections which are available in Spanish, Portuguese and English. They contain a lot of useful detail, demonstrating that practitioners in day-to-day contact with inclusive classrooms have been contributors to the content.⁷⁵

Cambodia: Thomas and Vichetra (2003): 'Inclusive Education Training in Cambodia: In-service teacher training on disability and special needs', Disability Action Council Cambodia⁷⁶

- Training module 1: Defining special needs
- Training module 2: Disability awareness
- Training module 3: Education for children with special needs

⁷⁴ http://www.eenet.org.uk/resources/docs/ECCD_Disability_Manual.pdf

⁷⁵ <http://www.cnotinfor.pt/inclusiva/>

⁷⁶ <http://www.eenet.org.uk/resources/docs/cambodia.php>

- Training module 4: Responding to diversity
- Training module 5: Teaching children with special needs basic skills
- Training module 6: Advice for teaching children with disabilities
- Conclusion and review
- Ideas for warm-up activities
- Example of a baseline survey.

This resource provides some easy to use modules which could easily be adapted to other low income countries. It has a strong impairment focus.

Vietnam: Nguyet and Ha (2010) ‘How to Guide. Preparing Teachers for Inclusive Education’, Catholic Relief Services⁷⁷ Inclusive Education in Developing Countries.

- Three Essential Components for Capacity Building in Inclusive Education (Attitudinal Changes and Awareness Raising; Pre-Service Training Programs; In-Service Training Programs)
- Pre-Service Approaches: Working with Teacher Training Institutions
- In-Service Approaches: School-Based Teacher Training
- Tools for In-Service Capacity Building
- Monitoring Teachers’ Learning and Progress
- Inclusive Education as Systemic Change
- Applying Lessons Learned: Inclusive Education in Laos

A useful resource, more specific to South-East Asia, which takes a general inclusion approach.

Lesotho: Mariga, Phachaka, and McConkey (1996) ‘Preparing Teachers for Inclusive Education’ Lesotho, Ministry of Education. This resource is a film in four parts with an accompanying manual (available from EENET).⁷⁸

This was a ground-breaking resource and had a big impact when first produced in Lesotho and can be replicated. However, it would be best to make locally based videos – much easier to achieve today with the technological improvements and availability of small digital cameras.

Rwanda: Handicap International (2009) Inclusion Rwanda⁷⁹

Resources to support the development of inclusion consisting of generic reasons why disabled children in developing countries may not go to school. Six questions on inclusive education (French with English subtitles) are addressed in online video clips.

- What are the challenges faced by children with disabilities in your country?⁸⁰ (5.01 mins)
- What are the main obstacles to accessing education faced by children with disabilities in your country?⁸¹ (5.12 mins)
- What do Handicap International and its education partners do to overcome challenges for children with disabilities?⁸² (4.56 mins)
- How do you measure the impact of the education work you do with children with disabilities?⁸³ (2.50 mins)
- What does a quality education mean?⁸⁴ (2.12 mins)
- What is your vision of a quality education?⁸⁵ (2.52 mins)

⁷⁷ http://www.crsprogramquality.org/storage/pubs/education/edhowto_vietnam2.pdf

⁷⁸ <http://www.eenet.org.uk/resources/docs/video.pdf>

⁷⁹ http://www.handicap-international.org.uk/what_we_do/inclusion/inclusive_education

⁸⁰ <http://www.youtube.com/handicapintluk#p/c/0/VD1sKlDc2zA>

⁸¹ <http://www.youtube.com/handicapintluk#p/c/A85BC4CDEC24910C/1/X7h5jfBbmGA>

⁸² <http://www.youtube.com/handicapintluk#p/c/A85BC4CDEC24910C/2/W5h6GCgkipE>

⁸³ <http://www.youtube.com/handicapintluk#p/c/A85BC4CDEC24910C/3/QSb3ClafVDI>

⁸⁴ <http://www.youtube.com/handicapintluk#p/c/A85BC4CDEC24910C/4/2RiH7v3Bdpo>

A very useful resource, which addresses the issues of inclusion for children with disabilities where special schools are being used as a resource to support mainstream teachers to develop inclusive practice.

South Africa: The Directorate of Inclusive Education offers a range of useful documents on their website.⁸⁶

A set of videos is also available from South Africa: 'Towards an Education that is Inclusive', Hlanganani Video Series (2009).⁸⁷ These were made for general awareness raising of the public and were shown on public television, but they form very useful stimulus material for a seminar discussion.

- Episode 1: What is Inclusive Education?
- Episode 2: The First Step Towards Inclusion is Free – Change your Attitude
- Episode 3: The Cost of Exclusion is Higher for the Nation than the Cost of Inclusion
- Episode 4: Inclusive Schools Promote Inclusive Communities
- Episode 5: The Role of Special Schools in an Inclusive System
- Episode 6: Overcoming Language Barriers
- Episode 7: A Curriculum for All and Support for All
- Episode 8: Persons with a Disability Making their Mark
- Episode 9: The Impact of Inclusion on Communities
- Episode 10: Social Inclusion through Sport and Recreation
- Episode 11: Promoting Social Justice and Service Delivery through Inter-Departmental Collaboration
- Episode 12: Human Rights and Inclusion
- Episode 13: The Future of Inclusive Education

South Africa Rieser and Pugh (2008) 'Developing Inclusive Education in South Africa'

This is a film about developing inclusive practice in ten primary schools in Mpumalanga, Gauteng, Eastern Cape and Western Cape, made by World of Inclusion and Redweather productions for the South African Government.⁸⁸ The Film is divided into four sections:

- Introduction (3.30min)
- Creating an Inclusive Ethos (16 min)
- Inclusive Teaching (23.30min)
- Developing Inclusive Support Structures(17 min).

This last section is particularly useful for explaining and showing in practice School Based Support Groups which are a key tool for ensuring all learners' needs are met.

Zambia: EENET (2005)⁸⁹ 'Researching Our Experience: A collection of writings by teachers from Zambia' and 'Learning from Difference: An action research guide for capturing the experience of developing inclusive education'.

EENET supported action research in a group of schools in northern Zambia, as part of the schools' own work to become more inclusive. The action research grew from previous child-to-child work in their schools to twin disabled and non-disabled children as an approach for supporting participation and learning. The action research approach was used by the zonal teacher trainer to support in-service teacher education on inclusion. One result was a collection of short accounts written by teachers

⁸⁵ <http://www.youtube.com/handicapintluk#p/c/A85BC4CDEC24910C/5/hllsrHE1-8>

⁸⁶ <http://www.education.gov.za/Programmes/InclusiveEducation/tabid/436/Default.aspx>

⁸⁷ <http://www.thutong.doe.gov.za/inclusiveeducation//Policy//AdvocacyMaterials/tabid/3267/Default.aspx>

⁸⁸ View at: <http://www.redweather.co.uk/developing-inclusive-education-in-south-africa.html>

⁸⁹ <http://www.eenet.org.uk/resources/docs/Learning%20from%20Difference%20Guidelines.pdf>

about their efforts to be more inclusive (including accounts of supporting disabled learners). They subsequently used this as a reflective manual to support their own (and other teachers') on-going learning about inclusion. The lessons from the Zambia schools were captured in a guide for practitioners which has been used globally.⁹⁰

Zanzibar: McConkey, Mariga and Maalim (2007) 'Inclusion in Action: A series of video programmes describing the development of inclusive education in Zanzibar', Zanzibar Association for People with Developmental Disabilities (ZAPDD), Zanzibar Ministry of Education and Vocational Training (MoEVT).

The video programmes involved 20 schools and have three main objectives:

- To raise awareness of inclusive education in Zanzibar among schools, families and people with disabilities.
- To document the methods used in the pilot project on inclusive education and youth development.
- To produce practical tools for schools to assist with the consolidation and expansion of inclusive education in Zanzibar.⁹¹

These films are quite long and need to be used carefully, but they are an excellent resource with a good deal of accommodations for students with different impairment specific needs. A useful compliment to these films is the report of a training course for ministry personnel, NGO staff and teachers, run by Atlas Alliance in Zanzibar (Inclusion in Action, Lewis, 2007).⁹² The report brings to life many of the key concepts in the development of inclusive education and provides a number of training tools and demonstrates how these have been applied in a number of countries.

Useful tools from Europe

UK: Implementing the Disability Discrimination Act in schools and early Years – A training resource for school England. The Stationary Office on behalf DfES (2007)⁹³

A very useful set of three DVDs filmed in 41 English schools (two early years, 18 primary, 20 secondary and one special school). There is a CD in the pack to guide the viewer through the films and it contains lots of training activities.

- DVD 1 has a 24-minute introduction ('Essential Viewing'). Then it features some shorter films around particular issues that came up in the visits to the schools: meeting personal care needs; breaks, lunchtimes and school clubs; educational visits; behaviour for learning.
- DVD 2 looks at: Early Years Stage; Three Primary School Stories; Primary Teaching and Learning, and is broken into four sections

⁹⁰ http://www.eenet.org.uk/resources/docs/rsrching_experience.pdf and

<http://www.eenet.org.uk/resources/docs/Learning%20from%20Difference%20Guidelines.pdf>

⁹¹ Introduction to ZAPDD: <http://www.youtube.com/v/C-y9Do2AhtU> (2.45 mins) Feasibility study:

<http://www.youtube.com/v/l9xm2fCpEzo> (3.17 mins); Pilot project: <http://www.youtube.com/v/nmCSYXlk1M> (1.34 mins)

Working in Partnership: <http://www.youtube.com/v/61oMy-gD8gE> (2.24 mins); Parents as partners:

<http://www.youtube.com/v/SQbXrXfihCo> (2.09 mins); Support for teachers: <http://www.youtube.com/v/2fJBHnoYHJQ>

(3.30 mins) Skills training for youth: <http://www.youtube.com/v/2RcgGjhrhm4> (3.12 mins); Assisting students to learn 1:

<http://www.youtube.com/v/UFDCiyU-GAg> (2.53 mins); Assisting students to learn 2:

<http://www.youtube.com/v/YtqrJYsVY0c> (2.54 mins); Number work: <http://www.youtube.com/v/7EVib48RSmQ> (2.50

mins); Sign language: <http://www.youtube.com/v/Wbb2eK2mOC4> (2.05 mins); Visual impairment:

<http://www.youtube.com/v/grmujsLBVuo> (3.54 mins); Background:

<http://www.ii.inclusioneducativa.org/Africa.php?region=Africa> & country=Zanzibar&experience=Inclusion_In_Action#6

⁹² <http://www.eenet.org.uk/resources/docs/Inclusion%20in%20Action%20MAIN%20REPORT.pdf>

⁹³ Can be ordered from The Stationary Office customerservice@tso.co.uk Tel +44 870 600 5533

- DVD 3 looks at: Two Secondary Stories; Secondary Teaching and Learning, and is broken into four sections.

Interviews with more than 300 head teachers, teachers, parents, pupils and support staff elicited the following factors that were key for the development of the inclusion of children with disabilities:

1. Vision and values based on an inclusive ethos
2. A 'can do' attitude
3. A proactive approach to identifying barriers and finding solutions
4. Strong collaborative relationships with pupils and parents
5. A meaningful voice for pupils
6. A positive approach to challenging behavior
7. Strong leadership by senior management and governors
8. Effective staff training and development
9. The use of expertise from outside the school
10. Regular critical review and evaluation at pupil, departmental and school level
11. Building disability into resourcing arrangements
12. A sensitive approach to meeting impairment-specific needs of pupils

The availability of role models and positive images of disability. (Rieser, 2009, p.371).

While this resource was specifically developed for training teachers and other professionals in the UK, it has been warmly welcomed and translated, and shown in Russia, Africa, France, Spain and Saudi Arabia. It contains some very powerful examples of how to develop inclusion for the full range of children with differing impairments,⁹⁴ and would be an asset on any training course.

Serbia: Radivojevic, D (2009) A Guide for Advancing Inclusive Education Practice.

This is the outcome of a project run in 10 Serbian Municipalities. Fifteen educators in each municipality worked together and trained together and applied inclusive education principles to working with children with disabilities in their mainstream classes. The result is a very useful, if dense, publication that gives many examples that are easy to replicate in the Eastern European context.

Iceland, Austria, Spain, Portugal: Eggertsdottir and Marinsson (2005) Pathways to Inclusion. A Guide for Staff Development. Enhancing Teachers' Ability in Inclusion (ETAI).

This consists of materials developed in the four countries between 1998 and 2001 based on successful inclusion. Having covered an introduction to the concepts and the conclusions of the study, part three is the handbook for staff development. This has 9 sections:

- Preparation for schooling
- Curriculum and individual education plans
- Classroom practice
- Collaboration and coordination
- Pupil's social interaction
- Home-school collaboration
- Evaluation and reflection
- Support services
- Staff development.

This is a very useful resource, as the training materials are evidence-based on the research carried out. There is also a video that accompanies the pack.

⁹⁴ Personal communication from the leader of this RAP project Richard Rieser.

France, Iceland, Italy, Romania and UK (Alliance for Inclusive Education et al(2011)). Families, professionals and young disabled people participated in visiting each other's schools and deliberating, from the three points of view, on what they found out in terms of developing inclusive education. They produced three web based resources:

- **An Inclusive Education Guide for Families** – to help them seek inclusive education opportunities for the disabled child⁹⁵
- **An Advocacy and Training Toolkit** – to support advocacy and training work led by disabled people⁹⁶
- **An Inclusive Guide for Professionals** – written by education and social care professionals from France, Italy, Romania, Iceland and the UK and based on evidence and learning from each of these countries in terms of what works for the inclusion of disabled children and young people in mainstream education.⁹⁷

These are easy to read and cover all the key issues. A very useful addition to web-based training resources.

Enabling Education Network

EENET is an inclusive education information-sharing network, open to everyone. It prioritises supporting stakeholders in the South to access information and debates, and encourages critical thinking, innovation and conversations on issues of inclusion, equality and rights in education. EENET mainly exists to support stakeholders to document, publish and/or share their experiences. It only occasionally develops and publishes its own books and guides, preferring instead to support the 'repackaging' and adaptation of existing useful materials to suit different contexts. It publishes and disseminates its own annual newsletter featuring global examples of inclusive education from diverse perspectives and covering a wide variety of inclusion issues, including disability. Where possible, EENET provides printed materials for those still unable to access the internet. EENET's website contains a resources database of nearly 500 short articles, longer documents, posters, training manuals, videos and much more from around the world.⁹⁸ EENET also operates a consultancy branch to support NGOs with implementation of inclusive education, and related research and evaluations.

World of Inclusion

World of Inclusion⁹⁹ (like its predecessor Disability Equality in Education) is an organisation run by disabled people from a social model point of view. It houses many useful training resources and materials for use with student teachers and school students. 'Disability Equality in the Classroom: A Human Rights Approach' (Rieser and Mason, 1990) and 'Altogether Better' (Mason and Rieser, 1994) are still very relevant and answer many of the perennial questions raised by people who are new to inclusion. There is also a series of course books developed for training in-service teachers on the principles and practice of inclusion for children with disabilities. The 'Inclusion in Schools' course book (DEE, 2002) is still very useful in showing the difference between, medical and social model approaches, the difference between segregation, integration and inclusion and the checklist for the inclusive classroom.¹⁰⁰ The Joint Training Project between SAFOD and DEE in 2007 applied many of

⁹⁵ <http://www.allfie.org.uk/docs/Families%20Guide.pdf>

⁹⁶ <http://www.allfie.org.uk/docs/Advocacy%20&%20Training%20Toolkit.pdf>

⁹⁷ <http://www.allfie.org.uk/docs/Professionals%20Guide.pdf>

⁹⁸ <http://www.eenet.org.uk/resources/>

⁹⁹ www.worldofinclusion.com

¹⁰⁰ http://www.worldofinclusion.com/res/schinc/Inc_coursebook.doc

these ideas to a Southern African context. The PowerPoint presentation to accompany this training is also available on line (SAFOD/DEE 2007).¹⁰¹

4.4. Pedagogy

In this section we highlight documents that are useful for developing skills around pedagogy, the curriculum, and assessment in regular teachers; skills that can enhance the inclusion of children with disabilities.

Sue Stubbs (2008) 'Inclusion where there are few resources'

This gives a background and critical overview of inclusive education, and looks at key issues, concepts and strategies in relation to inclusive education that are relevant to situations where economic resources are limited. While it is not directly about pedagogy it does provide many interesting examples throughout of pedagogical changes made to accommodate learners with disabilities. It includes material that could be adapted and used to stimulate participatory learning on inclusive education topics, and has case studies from around the world.¹⁰² It is full of examples of inclusion and is clear about the impairment specific adjustment children with disabilities need and shows how these and inclusion of all can be achieved in a low income context. The main sections cover:

- Why inclusive education? Setting the scene
- Where does inclusive education come from and where is it going?
- What is inclusive education really about? Concepts and approaches
- How can we facilitate inclusive education? Putting it into practice
- Opportunities and challenges: Case studies and examples
- Learning from the South: The challenge
- Policy, resources and finance: The bones and the flesh
- Creating ownership and changing attitudes: The lifeblood
- Groups who are vulnerable to exclusion and marginalisation
- People making a difference-parents, teachers, communities, children
- Challenging contexts – Conflict situations including conflict, refugees, urban slums, poor rural areas
- Life stages, forms and locations of education early child hood, special schools and units, secondary and life-long learning

Tim Loreman (2007) The Seven Pillars of Inclusive Education Moving From "Why?" To "How?"

This article provides a very useful review and recommendations with the 'Seven Pillars of Inclusion'. Based on a review of research findings, it discusses the creation of essential conditions in schools and school jurisdictions in order to support the inclusion of the diverse range of learning preferences and needs found in today's classrooms. In order for inclusion to be successful, educators need to work towards an educational climate and set of practices which include the adoption of positive attitudes; supportive policy and leadership; school and classroom processes grounded in research-based practice; flexible curriculum and pedagogy; community involvement; meaningful reflection; and necessary training and resources.

¹⁰¹ www.worldofinclusion.com/res/internat/Southern_Africa_Workbook.doc

¹⁰² <http://www.eenet.org.uk/> Also available from: The Atlas Alliance, Schweigaardsgt 12, PO Box 9218 Gronland, 0134

Oslo,
Norway

Garren Lumpkin (2009) Nicaragua Child-Friendly and Healthy Schools (CFHS) Initiative: A Case Study

The author worked for eight years with a Child Friendly and Healthy Schools Programme in Nicaragua, and made some curriculum adjustments to ensure children with disabilities were included. The programme worked with 340 schools in poor rural areas in eight Departments. A decision was taken to “widen efforts to incorporate inclusive education elements, especially for children with disabilities; and incorporate more community-based initiatives to expand in safe spaces other learning and participatory opportunities for adolescents” (ibid. p.16) . The report details how the school-based situation analysis, training and monitoring and evaluation were carried out by the school staff. This approach is related to one of the major pedagogical shifts that originated in Colombia: Nueva Escuela Movement.

What is New School/Escuela Nueva?

“It is a pedagogical model that was designed in Colombia in the mid-seventies by Vicky Colbert, Beryl Levinger and Oscar Mogollon to offer complete primary education and to improve the quality and effectiveness of the nation's schools. Its initial focus was rural schools, especially multigrade (one or two schools where teachers serve all elementary grades simultaneously), being the most deprived and isolated the country.

Globally, New School is considered a proven social innovation with high impact that improves the quality of education. It impacts children, teachers, administrative staff, family and community through four interrelated components that integrate and operate systemically. These components are: the curriculum and classroom, community, training and monitoring and management.

Using simple and concrete tools and strategies, New School promotes active learning, participatory and collaborative, strengthening school-community relations and a flexible promotion mechanism adapted to the conditions and needs of children. Flexible promotion allows students to progress from one level to the next grade or academic units and complete self-paced learning. The focus of the model, child-centered, and community context, increased retention, reduced dropout and repetition rates and demonstrated improvements in academic achievement and behavior in forming democratic and peaceful coexistence.

In the 80's and 90's, New School had an impact on improving the quality of education. Colombia is characterized by achieving the best rural primary education in Latin America after Cuba, the only country where rural schools outperformed urban school except in megacities. This was the result of the First International Comparative Study conducted by the Laboratory (Laboratory for Assessment of the Quality of Education) of UNESCO in 1998¹⁰³. “Although the New School Model has not initiated any targeted efforts to undertake more specific strategies of inclusive education for children with disabilities, the NSM is ideal for incorporating more related actions for all excluded children, including those with a disability. The model includes almost all of the key elements for inclusive education, in addition to incorporating active and participatory training strategies (combined with clustering of schools for joint support)”.¹⁰⁴

In a good example of South-South cooperation, the Vietnamese government piloted the Escuela Nueva program in 24 primary schools in 6 provinces in 2010 and has now scaled up to all 63 provinces in Vietnam. 440,000 additional students are expected to benefit from the project which is supported by the World Bank and an \$84.6 million grant from the Global Partnership for Education¹⁰⁵.

“Columbia, Honduras, and Guatemala all have experimental Escuela Nueva Schools that operate with a clear philosophy and vision of inclusion. In *Honduras*, the *Vermont-Honduras partnership* has been collaborating around teacher training, SEN and school restructuring for Inclusive Education since

¹⁰³ <http://www.escuelanueva.org/portal/> Translated by Word

¹⁰⁴ Personal Communication with Garren Lumpkin

¹⁰⁵ <https://www.educationforallblog.org/issues/success-stories/vietnam-escuela-nueva-a-new-and-exciting-way-of-learning>

1975. Honduras is one of the few countries that report experience and success with Inclusive Education at the secondary level. Efforts in Honduras' IE schools have also included integration of multi-grade teaching, intercultural and bilingual education. A community-based education program supported by World Bank funding began in Honduras in 2001. The CBE Program's goal is to improve the quality of inter-cultural and bi-lingual education among indigenous communities. The Program includes a strong parent and school-based component, which are central activities in the Escuela Nueva IE Schools. These conditions provide an opportunity to capitalize on the strengths and philosophy, rich and extensive history of IE in Honduras to the benefit of both programs". (Peters,2003 p3)

Janet Holdsworth (1997) The Uses of 'Managed Experience' and The Limitations of Training: Lessons from the Lao Integrated Education Programme.

This paper introduces the concept of 'managed experience': "Managed experience is about taking someone through learning experiences based in real situations, but controlling the situation and tasks so that it fits the current level of learning, plus a bit. It is the natural way to teach. It is how we learn cooking from our mothers, how farming families pass on techniques to the next generation, how the apprentice learns from the skilled craftsman and how the acolyte learns from the master. As the learner gets older, more language is used and the learner is asked to reflect on result" (p.3). This discussion paper remains very relevant. It contains useful examples of how to make teacher training really practical in a relevant and effective way. References to differentiated instruction, interactive, child focused pedagogy are found throughout the literature but how this is turned into pedagogy is much rarer.

Broderick, Mehta-Pareek and Reid (2005)). Differentiating instruction for disabled students in inclusive classrooms. Theory into Practice

This document explains how differentiated instruction is essential for including children with disabilities with all types and degrees of impairment in mainstream class. They recommend planning responsive lessons that differentiate for all school students, rather than differentiating for the student with disabilities. This approach can replace the often boring one-to-one approach. The first step is to examine the current learning and teaching environment for its disabling potential. This means auditing the learning environment for barriers and finding solutions. All students should be encouraged to engage in critical thinking. They reject a hierarchical approach. In deciding the level, they urge that teachers assume the student can comprehend even though at present this is not testable, and work on ways to differentiate comprehension so this can eventually be demonstrated. They advocate for using all aspects of differentiation before modifying the curriculum.

Bunch (1999) Inclusion How To: Essential Classroom Strategies

This small book provides a very readable guide on how to include children with disabilities, explaining a number of essential classroom strategies. This covers classroom culture; getting the class to work together and respect each other; making the curriculum accessible to all; using the curriculum to develop the social learning of the class; Vygotsky and strategies to help learning, such as scaffolding, mediators and the zone of proximal development; strategies for differing ability levels, cooperation and collaboration; time; multiple intelligence and learning styles.

Davis and Florian (2004) 'Teaching Strategies and Approaches for Pupils with Special Educational Needs: A Scoping Study

This is an overview of practice in UK, prepared for the UK Government, with the help of many colleagues. This was done at a time when the UK Government was fully supporting the move to

inclusive education the document remains a very useful overview and is available online.¹⁰⁶ The publication examines four areas of impairment specific need for pupils with disabilities drawing on national and international literature:

“a) Communication and Interaction

Children with speech and language communication needs benefit from mainstream education with additional support mechanisms, especially in the early years, but also extending into secondary education. The research suggests the use of intensive interaction and/or a ‘sensory’ based approach are effective for children with communication and interaction difficulties associated with profound and multiple learning difficulties. The evidence on effective strategies for children with autistic spectrum disorder (ASD) was less conclusive and there is competing evidence and debate about effective approaches and strategies”.

“b) Cognition and Learning

The teaching of transferable thinking and learning skills is commonly emphasised in professional guidance. Effective teaching strategies may include the use of ‘procedural facilitators’ like planning sheets, writing frames, story mapping and teacher modelling of cognitive strategies, although for quality and independence in learning it is crucial to extend these technical aids with elaborated ‘higher order’ questioning and dialogue between teachers and pupils. Research evidence and professional guidance emphasises the importance of the classroom as a whole learning environment, including the distinctive new developments in ICT. There is evidence about the need for explicit, comprehensive and integrated teaching of different aspects of reading linked to spelling and writing. There is little evidence of the need for distinctive teaching approaches for children with specific learning difficulties although responding to individual differences is crucial. The key to appropriate teaching lies in careful and ongoing assessment linked with teaching”.

“c) Behavioural, Emotional and Social Development

The use of peers is a valuable resource either as part of a behaviour management programme (e.g. peer-monitoring) or peer-oriented intervention (e.g. buddy system). Approaches that encourage children to regulate their behaviour by teaching them self-monitoring, self-instruction and self-reinforcement skills are effective in producing adaptive behaviour change (i.e. increased on-task behaviour, reductions in anti-social behaviour). Approaches using positive reinforcement (where appropriate behaviour is immediately rewarded), behaviour reduction strategies (such as reprimands and redirection), and response cost (a form of punishment in which something important is taken away) appear to be effective in increasing on-task behaviour. Combinations of approaches (e.g. cognitive-behavioural *with* family therapy) are more effective in facilitating positive social, emotional and behavioural outcomes than single approaches alone. The research suggests that effectiveness is enhanced when parents are actively involved as partners in their child’s education”.

“d) Sensory and/or Physical

Strategies emphasising the importance of providing opportunity for developing skills of social interaction and access to the child’s local environment such as participatory/active learning methods, physical education as a means of bridging the therapeutic/educational divide for pupils with physical disabilities and combining emotional and social development with academic and cognitive growth were recommended as effective. The literature emphasised strategies and approaches which providing opportunities for developing the child’s independence. Systemic strategies and environmental adaptations were found to increase access to participation and learning. The use of technology was considered particularly promising.” (Davis and Florian, 2004, pp.4-6)

¹⁰⁶ <https://www.education.gov.uk/publications/standard/publicationDetail/Page1/RR516>

“The teaching approaches and strategies identified during this review were not sufficiently differentiated from those which are used to teach all children to justify a distinctive SEN pedagogy. This does not diminish the importance of special education knowledge but highlights it as an essential component of pedagogy” (ibid, p.6).

This research helped to establish that there was not a separate pedagogy for children with disabilities, but as is clear from the findings, there was a pressing need for impairment-specific accommodations and adjustments to level the playing field.

EADSNE (2007a) ‘Assessment for Learning and Pupils with Special Educational Needs’¹⁰⁷

This was an important trans-European review of assessment for children with disabilities it found that:

- “Assessment for Learning aims at improving learning; Assessment of Learning aims at ensuring accountability (of schools and teachers).
- Assessment for Learning explores the potential for learning and indicates the next step to be taken in order to promote learning and focuses upon the dynamics of teaching and learning); Assessment of Learning shows what has been already achieved, memorised and absorbed and provides a snapshot of the current situation.
- The actors involved in Assessment for Learning are able to provide insights into progress that a pupil has achieved and how the school contributed to this development; the actors involved in Assessment of Learning include professionals who are external to the school situation (e.g. inspectors) and may be required to provide a picture of a school at a particular point in time, but they may not always know the school context and life in the necessary detail to provide insights into pupil learning. The key findings of the research project were the need for feedback from pupils with disabilities to adapt planning and set goals for next stage. This should be used reflectively by learner and teacher. This approach is good for all learners. Can use one assessment system for all but need to differentiate the assessment-this will involve use of diaries, video diaries, portfolios and observation. Teachers do need guidance and training on this approach.” (EADSNE, 2007a, p.2)

Four main findings can be highlighted:

1. “The same principles of Assessment *for* Learning apply to pupils with or without SEN.
2. The only difference in Assessment *for* Learning between pupils with and without special educational needs is essentially in the type of tools and the assessment/ communication methods used by teachers.
3. The only area of concern relating to Assessment *for* Learning being applied to pupils with SEN relates to the notion of Assessment *for* Learning as a tool for pupils’ reflection on their own learning (i.e. the interaction between the pupil and teacher during the ‘feedback loop’). For pupils who use alternative forms of communication this feedback process cannot operate in the ‘traditional’ language based way. In this case, a more individualised approach, new assessment tools and a variety of means for teacher/pupil interaction need to be explored and implemented; for example close observation in structured situations which allows teachers to assess pupils’ likes/dislikes and so forth.

¹⁰⁷ Summary of key findings of the project http://www.european-agency.org/publications/flyers/assessment-materials/assessment-for-learning/assessment_for_learning_en.pdf/at_download/file

4. Many methods and tools of Assessment *for* Learning have been developed within special needs education settings and could be transferred into mainstream settings to improve educational provision for all pupils” (EADSNE, 2007a, p.6).

“The implications of this approach mean, amongst other things, avoiding the temptation to over-emphasize standardized outcomes in relation to pre-established targets of content knowledge, as this kind of information does not necessarily correlate with adult success in social, vocational, or other indicators of quality of life (Peters et al. 2005 p140). In contrast, formative assessment (assessment for learning instead of assessment of learning) has been shown to be an important tool that teachers can use to give feedback on the learners’ participation and achievement, to identify areas for development, to motivate and engage learners, and to develop their reflection skills” (Opertti and Brady, 2011, p.465).

Opertti and Brady (2011) Developing inclusive teachers from an inclusive curricular perspective

The authors suggest that there is a need to rethink the challenges of developing, supporting, and valuing inclusive teachers from a perspective of inclusive curriculum. “We refer closely to the documentation on inclusion produced around the 48th ICE by UNESCO and national government representatives to recent UNESCO statistics and reports, and to various key findings developed by experts in the field of inclusive education from different regions around the world... The 48th ICE outcomes document further refined the conceptualization of inclusive teaching by recommending training which equips teachers with the appropriate skills and materials to teach diverse student populations and meet the diverse learning needs of different categories of learners through methods such as professional development at the school level, pre-service training about inclusion, and instruction attentive to the development and strengths of the individual learner” (p.461).

“An inclusive curriculum has been defined as flexible, relevant, and adjustable to the diverse characteristics and needs of lifelong learners (UNESCO IBE 2008). An inclusive curriculum reflects the kind of inclusive societies to which we aspire, equitably distributing opportunities, and eliminating poverty and marginality. Through such curricula, increased understanding and responses to student diversity contribute to enhancing and democratizing learning opportunities. These curricula aim to combine the density and strength of key concepts (i.e. the value of diversity, the right to lifelong learning, comprehensive citizenship education) through options, flexibility, and consideration of all learners within schools and classrooms, to guarantee their individual right to education” (p.462).

The question is whether this broadened perspective is capable of both meeting the particular specific impairment based needs of children with disabilities and the broader population of the excluded, or does it just move the goal posts again?

Leonard Cheshire International (2006) EDAMAT Practical Tool for Effective Disability Mainstreaming in Policy and Practice

This was developed and led by disabled peoples’ organisations in UK, Ireland, Spain, Greece, Malta and Portugal. The European Disability Action Mainstream Assessment Tool (EDAMAT) is a set of guidelines aimed at assessing and promoting the mainstreaming of disability issues in the process of policy-making and in practice. Four principles emerged from interviews and focus group discussions that took place in the early stages of the project and relate to critical issues for persons with disabilities.

1. **ENGAGEMENT** – Inclusion of the widest possible range of representative persons with disabilities working in partnership with policymakers throughout all the stages of policy formulation and implementation.
2. **ACCESS** – Physical, information, communication and supported access for persons with disabilities to the decision-making processes and mechanisms.
3. **RESOURCING** – Adequate resourcing to make engagement and access possible.
4. **ENFORCEMENT** – Enforcement and monitoring of the removal of inequalities through the mainstreaming of disability issues, and the impact of the enforcement on the lives of persons with disabilities.

Booklet 3 may be most useful in education to check implementation of policies based upon five stages. These stages are formulated as questions as follows:

1. Has mainstreaming been achieved?
2. How do we look for evidence?
3. Who do we want to influence?
4. What lobbying tools can we use?
5. How do we know we have been successful?¹⁰⁸

The value of having DPOs involved in monitoring policy enforcement in schools could be both challenging but also enlightening to many states.

Action research and reflective practitioners

*EENET (2005) Learning from Difference: An action research guide for capturing the experience of developing inclusive education*¹⁰⁹

This is a simple yet useful resource which shows how action research can be used to support teachers and other stakeholders to identify and address inclusion issues. Action research can be a key tool within teacher training, helping teachers to turn theory into practice and learn from their own experiences. This tool helps teachers to become reflective practitioners, and supports practitioners and community members to ‘capture’ their experiences so that they can be shared with a wider audience. The activities are designed to encourage wide participation in action research across the school community.

Lewis and Kaplan (2005) Inclusive Classrooms: The use of images in active learning and action research

This work in Zambia built on previous action research and used photography, storytelling, and drawing activities to support children to express their view on their school and on inclusive education. The ideas can be used to develop participatory tools that can be used in teacher education.

The authors list (pp.34-35) some of the key lessons learned from working with children that would apply and need to be considered when working with trainee teachers too:

- Many children did not know how to work in groups and did not understand or respect team work, co-operation or negotiation.
- “Photographs (or other images) can offer a great stimulus to help children begin writing about their experiences, even when previous writing activities have not worked well.”

¹⁰⁸ <http://www.lcint.org/download.php?id=264>

¹⁰⁹ www.eenet.org.uk/resources/docs/Learning%20from%20Difference%20Guidelines.pdf

- “Any action research writing activity ...should be preceded or accompanied in some way with an image activity.”
- “Providing examples or demonstrations is essential when introducing a new concept or activity.”
- “Storytelling is not necessarily something all children are comfortable with, even in communities which have an oral culture.”
- “Using images and art in action research (or in active learning in the classroom) is about much more than assessing a finished product. The process that the participants go through can offer greater insights than the end product in some situations.”
- “Such activities need to become an integral part of the school’s practice, and a part of any action research happening within the community, to help bridge the often wide divide between what happens at school and the lives children lead at home.”

Imerovic (2006) “Changing the way we teach, Burkina Faso” Enabling Education,

This article from Burkina Faso is about supporting teachers in mainstream schools to teach hearing and deaf children together, using verbal and sign communication. Training is provided which helps teachers specifically with understanding deafness/sign issues and more generally with learning quality, active teaching methods.

4.5. Access to environment and information

This section lists key documents that look at improving environmental access for learners with disabilities at micro, mezzo and macro levels.

Canadian Human Rights Commission (2006) ‘International Best Practices in Universal Design: A Global Review’¹¹⁰

This gives a comprehensive run down on universal design around the world. It is very useful for those unfamiliar with the concept of universal design, which is a requirement of the UNCRPD.

Jones (2011) Inclusive Design of School Latrines: How much does it cost? WEDC Briefing Note 1. Water, Engineering and Development Centre (WEDC), Loughborough University.¹¹¹

Contains easy to use specifications, plans and methods for developing accessible WASH facilities at the school. Will be of particular use to school leaders and local administrators. Far too many new build schools are being built without these facilities.

Jones and Reed (2005) ‘Water and Sanitation for Disabled People and other Vulnerable Groups: designing services to improve accessibility’. WEDC, Loughborough University: UK. <http://wedc.lboro.ac.uk/wsdp>

The above comment applies also to this document which focuses on accessible wash rooms.

Sightsavers (2012) Sightsavers’ Inclusive Education Work in Bangladesh¹¹²

This includes a description of Basic Education Kit to Access School (BEKAS) developed by Sightsavers “The kits are designed to help teachers develop new education materials and make lessons more inclusive and child-centred”. The kits, being Sightsavers-sponsored, mostly focus on access for visually

¹¹⁰ http://www.chrc-ccdp.ca/pdf/bestpractices_en.pdf

¹¹¹ http://wedc.lboro.ac.uk/resources/briefnotes/BN001_School_Latrines.pdf

¹¹² http://www.eenet.org.uk/resources/docs/Sightsavers_Bangladesh_booklet.pdf pages 10-12

impaired learners, but evidence suggests the materials, and the way teachers have been trained to use them, have enabled generally better quality teaching/learning as well as facilitating access for visually impaired learners.

*Sightsavers et al(2007) Getting Disabled Children into School in Developing Countries¹¹³
What donor governments must do to achieve Universal Primary Education*

This deals with the macro-economic and planning issues to get children with disabilities included in donors' plans and so create a planned environment where the inclusion of children with disabilities can take place.

1. "Provide long-term, predictable financing to basic education through the Fast Track Initiative and ensure that macroeconomic constraints do not prevent governments from training and paying teachers sustainably.

2. Support national education plans which have strategies to overcome the exclusion of disabled children from education: withhold support for education plans which do not.

In particular:

- Recognise the vital role that teachers play in bringing disabled children into education and call for all pre- and in-service training of teachers in developing countries to concentrate on clear, accessible and participatory teaching focussed on the needs of each child.
- Request consultation with disabled people's organisations on national education plans.
- Require plans to make schools and learning materials accessible for disabled children.
- Champion education for disabled children in the Fast Track Initiative process, and work with the FTI to ensure that all plans approved for funding have an explicit focus on inclusion and disability" (p.2).

UNESCO Bangkok (2009) 'Teaching Children with Disabilities in Inclusive settings'.

This is the Specialized Booklet No.3 of the 'Embracing Diversity' toolkit. Pages 18-27 look at principles of universal design in environments.

World Bank (2003) Education for All: Building the Schools

"All new construction should be fully accessible for those with disability; retrofitting of existing buildings is of equal importance. A change in construction norms to this effect should be explicitly agreed by the donor community".¹¹⁴

World Bank (2005) Education for All: The Cost of Accessibility¹¹⁵

Research has demonstrated that the cost of accessibility is generally less than 1% of total construction costs; however, the cost of making adaptations after a building is completed is far greater. Concerns about the cost of accessibility are typically based on lack of knowledge and experience and inaccurate estimates of the actual cost of construction. The most common argument is that accessible design requires much more space to accommodate wheelchairs. In two design research studies cited in the report, Schroeder and Steinfeld (1979) redesigned nine non-accessible buildings to meet accessibility standards. No additional space was necessary in any of the buildings, just rearrangement of the existing plan. In another study, Steven Winter Associates (1993) completed a similar analysis of eight residential projects with similar results. This study was particularly noteworthy because it focused on housing where rooms are much smaller than those found in educational facilities.

¹¹³ http://www.sightsavers.org/in_depth/policy_and_research/education/13076_Getting%20disabled%20children%20into%20school.pdf

¹¹⁴ <http://siteresources.worldbank.org/DISABILITY/Resources/2806581172610312075/EFABuildingSchools.pdf>

¹¹⁵ http://www.wds.worldbank.org/external/default/WDSContentServer/WDSP/IB/2007/03/01/000310607_20070301144941/Rendered/PDF/388640EdNotes1August2005CostOfAccess12.pdf

4.6. Resource centres, itinerant teachers and advisory teachers that support quality education for children with disabilities.

Stubbs (2008) Inclusion where there are few resources

This book gives strong arguments about the difficulties of special schools and units in low income countries and why efforts must go into developing the mainstream to meet all needs.

“Special schools vary considerably in terms of quality, approach and attitudes towards inclusion. In economically poorer countries, a parallel system where special schools receive a higher percentage of resources per pupil than mainstream schools is ultimately not sustainable. In reality, many special schools in poorer countries are actually very poorly resourced once initial donor funding stops. They may perpetuate segregation without providing any additional quality of teaching or resources. Ultimately, as stated throughout this book, a wide range of learners need their learning supported at different times in their lives, and it makes much more sense for resources and expertise to be available to the whole community in a flexible manner” (Stubbs, 2008, pp.103).

“Special schools as inclusion support centres: this approach formally allocates a role to a special school within a cluster of schools. The focus is on supporting and building the capacity of mainstream schools to accommodate all learners. This approach is also ultimately limited by the overall government and school policy and strategy on inclusion. There is also a difference between a special school that acts as a resource but still operates segregated education, and an inclusion centre that does not have its own pupils, but focuses on support to the local community schools” (ibid, p.104)

“In Oriang, Kenya, a central resource centre has been established as part of an inclusive education programme, providing specialist support for five local schools and families. It has a library, training facilities, therapy area, and communications unit. Each of the five schools also has a small resource point with a mini-library, access to play materials and teaching/learning resources, including materials made by pupils and teachers. The resource centres support an approach which includes creating inclusive, accessible and child-centred learning environments and multi-sensory teaching (use of sound, touch, stimulating visual cues, etc, to help include students with sensory impairments and others). It also promotes a ‘whole language approach’ (integrating the six language skills of reading, writing, speaking, listening, observing and dramatising), and incorporates traditional African culture and child-to-child approaches into the classroom” (Stubbs, 2008, p.104, citing Ogot. 2004).

“A new small unit within a primary school in northern Zambia initially created segregation, but eventually became the catalyst for one teacher to promote inclusion. The unit had a special teacher who was trained to teach only five children – an example of an inappropriate and unsustainable Northern model being imposed on the community without consultation. Segregation increased, and the school children called the special teacher “the teacher of the fools”. However, one class teacher successfully demonstrated that he could improve the overall performance of all the pupils by including disabled children full time in his class, and ‘twinning’ the most able students with those experiencing difficulties in learning. His approach attracted attention from other teachers, and from university researchers in Zambia and internationally. As a result of his efforts, the small unit instead became a resource room and meeting space to support inclusion” (Stubbs, 2008, pp.105, citing Miles 2000).

Lynch, McCall, Douglas, McLinden, Bayo (2011) Inclusive educational practices in Uganda: evidencing practice of itinerant teachers who work with children with visual impairment in local mainstream schools,

This document summarises the report on a research project investigating the role of itinerant teachers (ITs) of children with visual impairment in Uganda. The research focused on the activities of 52 ITs who recorded their work in a journal over a period of eight weeks (a new practice which was introduced to them through a workshop). Analysis of the data collected demonstrated that ITs were not able to visit all the children on their caseload as often as they had planned at the beginning of the project. Partly this was linked to a high proportion of their work being 'community-focused' (e.g. identifying new cases and advising the wider community about the implications of visual impairment) rather than 'child-focused' (linked to their caseload). In addition, they experienced other challenges, for example time-consuming travel and obtaining permission to be released from their regular teaching commitments. Whilst ITs found record keeping difficult, they felt it was a useful administrative procedure for managing caseloads and recognised the value of using the journals beyond the project. The policy and practice implications of the research for supporting children with special educational needs based around specialist teachers are considered (p.1).

Such monitoring work is essential if we are to evaluate whether resources and training allocated to meeting particular impairment derived needs of children with disabilities are being met. Clearly in this case, despite good intention, those planning the service had not carried out an adequate situation analysis.

In an earlier work Lynch and McCall (2007) showed how itinerant teachers could support visually impaired children in their local school. NGOs in Uganda and Tanzania have supported itinerant teacher approaches, which have enabled specialized teachers in central primary schools to reach a larger pupils in satellite schools and support and train teachers.

INEE (2010) INEE Pocket Guide to Supporting Learners with Disabilities

"The guide looks first at inclusive principles that trainers and the teachers or facilitators they work with need to be aware of (Chapter 2).

The guide then looks at: how to help children and young people with disabilities get to and from school (Chapter 3); how to recognise when children and young people need more support to take part in learning (Chapter 4); and how to organise the school day and arrange a teaching and learning space so that learners with disabilities, and those who are experiencing difficulties with learning, can participate as much as possible (Chapters 5 and 6).

The guide moves on to provide advice on planning and delivering teaching and learning activities, and assessing learning (Chapters 7 and 8). Designed for emergency situations the 80 page booklet is easy to understand and crammed with ideas to put a social model approach into practice moving from barriers to solutions, most of which will benefit all learners." (INEE, 2010, p.7)¹¹⁶

*Missinzo (2009) Changing relationships between special and mainstream schools in Malawi*¹¹⁷

This article shows us there is no substitute for enthusiasm; specialist knowledge can follow.

¹¹⁶ http://www.eenet.org.uk/resources/docs/INEE_Supporting_Learners_with_Disabilities.pdf

INEE have also produced a poster that can be put up in any classroom to remind teachers of inclusive methods www.eenet.org.uk/resources/docs/Teachers_can_help_everyone_learn_poster.pdf

¹¹⁷ http://www.eenet.org.uk/resources/eenet_newsletter/news13/page14.php

“Understanding how to implement inclusive education is limited in Malawi. Teacher training colleges have no specialist lecturers and inclusive education is only now beginning to be discussed. Mainstream teachers tend to think that inclusion involves the teaching of learners with disabilities in special schools by specialist teachers – a misconception which has led to teachers in special and mainstream schools having little contact with each other. Masambanjati Zone in Southern Malawi has 14 mainstream primary schools with a total enrolment of 10,000 learners. With just 82 teachers, the teacher/learner ratio in the zone is challenging – 1:122. Inspired by their Primary Education Adviser, who is a specialist teacher of the deaf, teachers in the zone formed a committee to look into inclusive practices in schools. The committee suggested visiting a resource centre and a residential school for the deaf. They wanted to see how specialist teachers interact with deaf learners and arranged a visit to nearby Mountain View School for Deaf Children. Primary school education advisers from three zones and head teachers from neighbouring mainstream schools were also involved in the visit. Before visiting, the district education office organised deaf awareness training for 390 mainstream teachers, with support from the UK’s Voluntary Services Overseas organisation. Teachers from Mountain View School helped to facilitate the workshop. During the visit, mainstream teachers realised what was achievable within their own schools. The visit was an eye-opener for mainstream teachers, and started the process of sharing ideas and experiences between schools” (.p20)

4.7. Specific education methods for different impairment groups

This section looks at the ways in which specific special education methods have been adapted and used to support the inclusion of children with disabilities within the main impairment groups.

There is a lot of material relating to different impairment groups in the above mentioned manuals and toolkits. However, as mentioned in the narrative report, research increasingly finds that there is nothing particularly ‘special’ about special education pedagogy (Davis and Florian, see Section 4.4). It is more a matter of creative, collaborative problem solving, creating and using appropriate aids and equipment, assistive devices etc., which promote inclusion rather than segregation. There is, however, a need to provide the right impairment-specific support as a reasonable accommodation, as has been argued in Section 2.4 and 3.9.

The twin-track approach does not reinstate the categorical special needs approach but it does strongly assert that there needs to be an approach that provides the methods, equipment and aids (whether high or low tech) that enable those with particular impairments. All schools have a need for a third track to challenge disability discrimination, oppressive attitudes and harassment and ensure they do not occur.

Table 1¹¹⁸ below can help characterise this approach and show the impairment specific adjustments built upon a firm general inclusive methodology and pedagogy.

¹¹⁸ Devised by Richard Rieser, the author, to help conceptualise the twin-track approach and what is meant by it in relation to this literature review and the REAP Project.

Table 1 How the Twin Track Approach to the Inclusion of Children with Disabilities Works

Type of Impairment	Visual Imp. /Blind	Deafblind	Deaf /Hearing Imp.	Physical Imp.	Specific Learning Difficulty	Speech &Comm.	General cognitive Imp.	Mental Health	Behaviour
Track Inclusive Education General	Valuing Difference	Ditto	Ditto	Ditto	Ditto	Ditto	Ditto	Ditto	Ditto
	Differentiation	Ditto	Ditto	Ditto	Ditto	Ditto	Ditto	Ditto	Ditto
	Collaborative Learning	Ditto	Ditto	Ditto	Ditto	Ditto	Ditto	Ditto	Ditto
	Peer Support	Ditto	Ditto	Ditto	Ditto	Ditto	Ditto	Ditto	Ditto
	Flexible Curriculum and Assessment	Ditto	Ditto	Ditto	Ditto	Ditto	Ditto	Ditto	Ditto
	Anti Bias Curriculum	Ditto	Ditto	Ditto	Ditto	Ditto	Ditto	Ditto	Ditto
	Effort	Ditto	Ditto	Ditto	Ditto	Ditto	Ditto	Ditto	Ditto
	Stimulating and interesting multi-sensory learning environment	Ditto	Ditto	Ditto	Ditto	Ditto	Ditto	Ditto	Ditto
Child Centred with Reflective Teachers	Ditto	Ditto	Ditto	Ditto	Ditto	Ditto	Ditto	Ditto	
Impairment Specific Adjustments For Inclusive Education	Braille, Tactile Maps Tapes and Text to Talk Mobility Training Large Print, Magnification Orientation Auditory Environment Talking instruments	Deaf Blind Language Interpreters Tactile Environment	Sign Language Taught & Interpretation Oral/Finger spelling Hearing Aid Visual Environment	Accessible Infrastructure. Toilet Furniture Equipment Personal Assistance Diet Medication	Colour overlays & background Easy Read Tapes and Text to Talk Spell-checker Concrete objects	Facilitated Communication Augmented Communication Switching Talkers Information Grids	Pictograms Small Steps Curriculum Easy Read Scaffolding Makaton Symbols Info. Grids Concrete objects	Counselling and Personal support Differentiated Behaviour Policy Empathy Quiet space	Circle of Friends Structured environment and day Differentiated Behaviour Policy Chill out space
School has Strong Disability Equality Strand in Ethos and Curriculum-challenge disability discrimination and harassment									

Some examples from Stubbs (2008) provide very useful pointers.

Deaf children (pp.83-85)

Most deaf children do not attend school and high tech solutions such as hearing aids, cochlear implants and highly trained teachers and sign interpreters are unlikely to be available, but “deaf adults can be used in mainstream contexts to enable deaf children to access the curriculum in their local school, and to stay in their families and communities”.

Deaf blind children are often left out of mainstream and special schools as their problems are seen as too difficult “Sense International. In India, CBR approaches ensure that these children and their families receive support, that attitudes change, and that teachers get knowledge and information that, in some cases, leads to the children being included in schools, supported by trained field workers” (ibid, p.85)

Children with profound/multiple impairments

“It is often just assumed that inclusive education is not for children who have very severe physical and intellectual impairments. This assumption is usually based on a fixed idea of education and of schools. It is based in the notion that a child has to adapt to the system, not the system to the child. The inclusion of children with severe disabilities also has different implications in countries of the North and South” (ibid, p.85). In the South, inclusion for children with severe impairments is also a matter of

planning being resourceful, and having a strong belief in that child's right to education. But it is not necessarily a matter of education in schools. "There is a big difference between an included child and an excluded child, even if that child is being educated at home and not in school. A CBR programme working closely with an inclusive education initiative is often the strategy that facilitates this inclusion. (ibid, p.86).

Mental health programme for primary schools

"As with all issues of inclusion, it is important to apply a social model approach to the issue of mental health and inclusion. There is a danger of labelling a child, who is reacting healthily to an abusive or disturbing environment, as having mental health problems, and of seeing the 'child as the problem'. Children who belong to groups who are socially excluded and stigmatised in the society will naturally and healthily react against exclusion, bullying and stereotyping. The school and community as a whole need first to examine themselves and create a welcoming and inclusive environment for all. Having said this, it is also true that children and adults do experience mental health problems that affect their learning, and schools can help promote general well-being and mental health of all their members" (p.86).

"Kids Matter" is a national mental health programme designed for primary schools in Australia. They use a framework with four components:

1. A positive school community and a sense of belonging and school connectedness are considered to be very important in promoting good mental health, as is an anti-bullying policy, active celebration of cultural diversity, and protection measures to ensure safe schools.
2. Social and emotional learning for students involves five core areas of competence:
 - self awareness – developing the ability to recognise and manage emotions
 - social awareness – promoting care and concern for others
 - self management – handling challenging situations effectively
 - relationship skills – establishing positive relationships
 - responsible decision-making.
3. Parenting support and education is achieved through developing good parent teacher relationships, providing information and education to parents, and promoting the development of parent support networks.
4. Early intervention for students experiencing mental health difficulties involves recognising signs of mental health problems, combating stigma, encouraging help-seeking behaviour, knowing what teachers/schools can and can't do and where to refer students" (cited in Stubbs, 2008, p.86 Kids Matters)¹¹⁹

*UNESCO (1993) Educating Children and Young People with Disabilities: Principles and the Review of Practice*¹²⁰

The document consists of two distinct parts. Part A sets out the basic principles governing the education of children and young people with disabilities, and Part B provides a working framework for reviewing education provision.

¹¹⁹ Kids Matter: Australian Primary Schools Mental Health Initiative website. Canberra, Australian Government Department of Mental Health and Ageing. Retrieved from: www.apapdc.edu.au/kidsmatter

¹²⁰ <http://unesdoc.unesco.org/images/0009/000955/095511eo.pdf>

*UNESCO(1999) Inclusive Schools and Community Support Programmes, First Phase*¹²¹A report of the first phase of the project “Inclusive Schools and Community Support Programmes” with country reports from eleven countries, plus annexes.

*UNESCO(2002) Inclusive Schools and Community Support Programmes – Phase Two*¹²²

A report of the second phase of the project “Inclusive Schools and Community Support Programmes” with country reports from eleven countries.

The UNESCO Bangkok Embracing Diversity Toolkit Additional Booklet (2009) discussed in See also Section 4.3 above. This covers all the commonly occurring groups of impairments and provides teachers with useable advice for screening and reasonable accommodations.

Save the Children (2002) Schools For All

Page 58 onwards has many practical tips for responding to different impairment in inclusive classrooms.

Save the Children Sri Lanka (Mendis) 2006

This contains different chapters relating to different impairments.

Sign-bilingual education for Deaf children in China supported by Save the Children.

Work has focused on training Deaf teachers (previously not trained to the same levels as hearing teachers) so that they can support Deaf children’s communication development in class, and so that more Deaf teachers can work in special and mainstream schools. However, we do not know how this work carried out in special schools did transfer to mainstream schools or not. (Pinnock and Lewis, 2008, pp. 19-21).

4.8. Ideas we liked

What stand out as examples of promising practice that could be adapted and utilised in other countries or regions? These are just ideas that appeal to the author and have not been subject to academic scrutiny and rigour, as we did not have the means at our disposal to do this. Neither can their long-term impact be guaranteed. The literature review found that there are many key ingredients of teacher education for inclusion (see Section 5, Conclusions; and the key teacher competencies that would provide a good framework for a teacher education curriculum for inclusion, Section 3.7.3).

As well as these competencies, Forlin reiterates the importance of ‘head, hand and heart’ in any approach to teacher education. This relates to work by Shulman on the ‘three apprenticeships’ of head, hand and heart, meaning knowing, doing and believing. He claims that teachers need a cognitive and evidential basis, technical and practical skills, and finally the ‘apprenticeship of the heart’ refers to ethical and moral dimensions, attitudes, values and beliefs (Shulman, 2007 cited in Florian and Rouse, 2010, p191-193).

¹²¹ <http://unesdoc.unesco.org/images/0011/001176/117625eo.pdf>

¹²² <http://dit-fs1.hq.int.unesco.org/ulis/docs/0012/001252/125235eo.pdf>

In Scotland, UK, the reform of the teacher education curriculum is based on the understanding that inclusion and standards are not mutually exclusive. To support this, there are three core assumptions that form the basis of this reformed teacher education (Florian and Rouse, 2009, p.600):

- a) teachers must understand that difference is a normal aspect of human development,
- b) they must understand that they are capable of teaching all children,
- c) they must develop collaborative ways of working.

From experience in teacher education in Mexico, seven essential components for preparing teachers are listed (Hernández, 2010, pp.102-113, cited in Forlin, 2012):

1. high social and community content,
2. quality, equality and equity - translated into specific actions,
3. working collaboratively,
4. dialogue - critical discussion,
5. contextual practice - including reflecting critically on own school experience,
6. comprehensive - IE at all levels and all states of teacher education,
7. counselling and mentoring - working with experienced mentors

In relation to effective inclusive education there are again key ingredients that are well documented. See for examples, Stubbs (2008, p.52) 'Key ingredients for successful and sustainable inclusive education'. This book also has a whole section on case studies and examples focusing on themes such as ownership, policy, resources, finance, vulnerable groups, people, challenging contexts, different life stages.

The WHO (2011) CBR Guidelines, education booklet, has many case examples of success in relation to inclusion.

However, there is no perfect, outstanding teacher education for inclusion programme **that is a good example in relation to all aspects**, and even if there was, it would not be able to be transported to another culture and context, except in very general terms.

The South Africa¹²³ programme (documents referred to above) is grounded in the social model, and a focus on removing barriers to learning for all, yet has the concept of 'Full Service Inclusive Schools', meaning inclusive environments which offer full support to students with disabilities. See their webpage for a range of downloadable documents.(See footnote 57 for definition).

A key point is the need for joined-up/holistic approaches to teacher education – i.e. approaches that tackle the topic from all angles -not just in-service or pre-service training on its own, not just using resource centres/itinerant teachers, but a wide range of approaches, all complementing each other towards the same ultimate goal. One example is the Zanzibar inclusive education programme, where there is a long list of different ways in which teachers were supported to include disabled learners.¹²⁴ The basic idea of a comprehensive and long-term approach (rather than isolated, short-term NGO projects) is sound.¹²⁵

Save the Children's (Ramsden, 2008) case study on training mainstream teachers to include disabled children in Mongolia shows that they used special educators from the previous segregated system (building on their specialist expertise and finding a way to use them in, rather than exclude them from, the 'new' system). Monitoring needs to be used in a careful management programme to ensure outmoded segregative thinking does not creep into such projects.

¹²³ <http://www.education.gov.za/Programmes/InclusiveEducation/tabid/436/Default.aspx>

¹²⁴ <http://www.norad.no/en/tools-and-publications/publications/publication?key=235948> .

¹²⁵ http://www.ii.inclusioneducativa.org/Africa.php?region=Africa&country=Zanzibar&experience=Inclusion_In_Action

An example from Cambodia¹²⁶ illustrates using art/drama activities with disabled people in the community as an entry point to give trainee teachers an opportunity to gain practical skills/experience of working with disabled pupils before they are 'thrown in the deep end' of an inclusive classroom.

Remote teacher training seems cost effective. Steinweg et al (2005) present research findings showing no significant difference between traditional and online presentation of courses. Bartolo (2010) discusses the use of web-based training and suggests that e-learning, while not an easy option, can provide an alternative access strategy and focus on learner-directed learning. This view has recently been promulgated for sub-Saharan Africa, where there is a need to adopt a planning continuum that integrates the use of distance education and face-to-face delivery, and which supports teachers in the classroom by ensuring resources, capacity building and incentives are devolved to those responsible for observation, coaching and assessment (Hardmann et al, 2011 p.680). This is attractive to governments as it is cost effective, but we need to maintain the crucial involvement of DPOs and hands-on practicum with children with various impairments.

A successful alternative to distance learning is clusters of schools around resource centres, with a combination of withdrawal training for in-service staff, backed up with outreach to the classrooms. Staff need to be incentivised by pay progression and/or improved conditions. Advisory teachers working from the centre need to be of sufficient quality and reliability to visit their schools consistently. Ways of sustaining methodological changes in schools are essential. There are many examples of NGO initiated projects that last as long as the funding, only to revert to previous poor practice once the project finishes (for example, three-year inclusion projects in South Africa and Uganda, DANIDA, 2002). The more 'ownership' there is by teachers and district officials in working in partnership with parents, NGOs and DPOs, the more likely it is to be sustainable. In Vietnam, the model of 'key teachers' acting as resource persons, with particular competence and interest in inclusive education, has proved successful (Nguyet and Ha, 2010, p.18). They are usually school vice-principals or district education officers who are charged to visit their four schools in rotation for 1-2 hours a week. This is cost effective as they already have jobs, but there is a shortage of key teachers, as there is no salary incentive (although they are now paid a small allowance).

In Vietnam, Forlin and Nguyet (2010) provided training for university teacher trainers to ensure that university faculties understand inclusive education and the paradigm shift. Their thinking can lag behind (Forlin and Nguyet, 2010, p.34), but intensive training can reverse this, as in Vietnam, where 47 university teachers of teachers from six universities, three colleges and a centre participated in a five-day course. At the outset, 85% did not understand the concept of inclusive education and all but two did not believe it was effective. By the end of the course, all were much more accepting though they still wanted more information on best practices (p.39). The course was repeated after two years but then there was no NGO funding and so this crucial work ceased.¹²⁷

Monitoring and support from District Advisory Implementation teams is important in creating effective inclusive education in schools in Lao PDR (Grimes, 2009, p.95). This involved regular visits, collaborative relationships and the creation of school learning networks (clusters). Peer support is based on actively facilitating/enlisting all the members of a class so that far greater forces for social and educational inclusion become available, than if only teacher-directed methods are used. Collaborative methods of teaching have been established to raise the levels of understanding of both disabled and non-disabled peers. Given large classes and low resource levels that exist in many parts of the world, inclusion of children with disabilities is not possible without mobilising the biggest

¹²⁶ <http://www.inclusive-education-in-action.org/iea/index.php?menuid=25&reporeid=113>

¹²⁷ Personal communication with Chris Forlin. The NGO was the Catholic Relief Agency.

resource the teacher has, the pupils in the class (Thousand, Villa, Nevin, 2002). The intentional building of relationships is fundamental to inclusive education.

UNESCO Bangkok (2009a) produced a very useful checklist of teacher training for the inclusion of children with disabilities.

Checklist

“Planning for the future — ministries, national coordinating bodies and training institutions

1. Is there a plan on how many teachers need to be trained in the future to meet the demand for teachers throughout the country? Does the ministry have statistics on how many children with disabilities will be in schools in the next year? Does the ministry have a contact person in charge of keeping track of the numbers of teachers trained? Are there ways of determining the career paths of these teachers? Is funding provided on an annual basis for training? Do all teachers have the opportunity to study?

Teacher-training systems — ministries of education and other training providers

2. Do teacher-training plans include many different forms of training, including pre-service and in-service which may include peer training, practical training, periodic “check-ups”? Do teacher-training programmes have a variety of different lengths of study available to all? Are possibilities for training courses widely publicized and evenly shared?

Teacher training programmes in universities and colleges

3. Does the national teacher education plan prepare teachers for different levels of the inclusive education system? This would include:

- Regular classroom teachers capable of teaching children with a diverse range of abilities
- Support teachers with additional levels of experience and training to be placed in the regular school to assist classroom teachers
- Highly trained specialist teachers who will work in special support centres or units, assisting in assessing and placing children with disabilities, supporting regular classroom teachers, and providing in-service and on-going training to them both in the centres and in the school. They would also provide support to families.

4. Do teacher training colleges follow agreed principles in developing their courses, laid down by the coordinating body for teacher education, to ensure that training meets the needs of a school system committed to educating all children in regular schools, including those with diverse abilities?

5. Do all pre-service teacher trainees receive a training course which prepares them to teach children with a wide range of abilities in their regular classes, including the development of positive attitudes and commitment to inclusive school principles? Is there open discussion and verification of levels of understanding about inclusive education for all new trainees? Is there a strong practical training component linked to theory?

In-service programmes and recognition for current teachers

6. Is there an extensive programme of in-service training for teachers in schools where changes are taking place towards including children with disabilities? Are teachers awarded or recognized for additional training courses that they undertake?

Support Networks — teachers, schools and regional institutions

7. Are there special education centres or units established to support teachers in the school and to upgrade their skills and expertise? Are there support networks within schools between more and less experienced teachers? Are there networks between special schools and institutions and mainstream

schools? Do teachers have experts upon whom they can call with questions and to assist with problem situations? Can teachers request in-class assistance on a regular basis or periodically for assistance? "(UNESCO 2009a)

It would be useful to add a further point, based upon the thinking above:

8. Are DPOs and parents' organisations involved in sharing their experiences and challenging the disabilism that underlies the oppression that has, so far, prevented 40 years' of local pockets of promising practice from coming to scale? This remains the key issue not only for teacher education but for the basic human right of all children to education.

6. Recommendations

5.1. Key ingredients

Emerging from the literature are several key ingredients for effective teacher education for inclusion:

- 1. Concepts: In order to be able to plan and deliver effective teacher education that supports inclusion, inclusive education needs to be clearly defined and understood** (by ministries, teacher education institutions, teacher educator, etc) from a social/rights-based model. This understanding needs to take into account local indigenous culture, and embrace a twin-track approach which clearly identifies and supports teachers in responding to specific impairment needs as well as more general inclusive practice and ethos, incorporating a commitment to high standards for all. There is a need for support teachers to perceive inclusion as an asset, not as a problem to be solved.
- 2. Good inclusive schools produce quality education:** Schools where teachers are good at including children with disabilities are good schools at including all children. In such schools the quality of education will improve for children with and without disabilities.
- 3. Inclusive cultures, values, beliefs and attitudes:** Inclusion is a culture that is created by people with commitment, enthusiasm, and determination to overcome the obstacles that will continually arise. It is reflected in environments, behaviours, language and the continual challenging of oppressive values and attitudes, such as disabilism. The majority of teachers are still fearful of including children with disabilities. There is growing evidence that giving all teachers a grounding in Disability Studies helps develop a strong empathy and discursive approach.
- 4. Inclusive education needs to be a comprehensive strategy central to all teacher training** i.e. involving all stakeholders – different government sectors, all levels, teachers' unions, teacher educators in higher education, teachers, para-professionals, families, communities, policy-makers, funder, etc.
- 5. DPOs and students with disabilities:** There is little in the literature that focuses on the importance of having input and involvement from students with disabilities and DPOs in the education of teachers for inclusion. Where this happens, it positively affects attitudes, levels of commitment, relevance and appropriateness of teacher education.
- 6. Permeation/embedded model:** Inclusion needs to be integrated throughout teacher education, not as an optional topic, but as an essential dimension of education in a diverse society. In countries where there are separate special education institutes or training courses, it is difficult for mainstream teachers to know they have responsibility for all learners.
- 7. Teachers need to take responsibility for life-long professional development** which will enable them to respond to changing demands. Therefore opportunities for this need to be available to them, through career structures and salaries.
- 8. Teacher educators need educating for inclusion:** Teacher educators need to be fully conversant with the paradigm shift to a social/human rights approach, and have recent and on-going practical experience, training and support in inclusion, which is currently rarely

found. This needs to include removing barriers to learning and participation, challenging medically and psychologically based approaches which view children and students with disabilities as in deficit. It also includes challenging and reshaping defectology and special education and bringing what is useful into mainstream education via a twin-track approach.

- 9. Teacher Trainees' recruitment, incentives, assessment:** In many countries there are huge problems in these areas in general, and policies are often not aligned with inclusion. It is important to ensure that recruitment, incentives and assessment correlates with inclusion policy and practice. In many parts of the world salaries and conditions are inadequate for teachers. This hinders the development of teachers as professionals who are motivated to continually develop throughout their careers. Teachers' unions need to be fully involved in discussions around improvements in pay and conditions and the training and development of inclusion.
- 10. Twin-track approach:** Teachers need to be fully versed in the methods and pedagogy of inclusion and creating inclusive environments. Students with disabilities will not be fully included unless their particular support/access/communication/ impairment needs are catered for. This requires basic awareness of impairment-specific needs and liaison with 'key' or advisory teachers who have more in-depth knowledge and skills, other professionals and community programmes, particularly CBR – but with the lead being taken by educationalists.
- 11. Change and innovation** need to be welcomed and supported. It is to be expected that there will be resistance to inclusion in places where the traditional paradigm operates. Teachers need to be helped to learn and encouraged to become activists for inclusion. Change is optimal when there is ownership. Training needs to be based on social justice and equity, as well as quality for all.
- 12. Pre-service training must have mandatory modules on inclusion and how to meet the impairment specific needs of children with disabilities.** This works best when students are given a significant proportion of their training in practicum with a variety of educational contexts.
- 13. Teacher training needs to be practical,** based in real life situations, contextualised in the local culture and 'managed' so that teachers are not overwhelmed. It works most effectively as school-based and continuing education.
- 14. Cascade training does not seem as effective at bringing about lasting change.** Where those taking part in such training are fully committed, it can work as a transmission of new ideas and methods and can rapidly spread them, but these need to be reinforced by committed management support if training translates into practice to be transformative.
- 15. Inclusion competencies are not 'special'** – they are just good teaching competencies. There is a huge amount of research on what makes teachers and teaching high quality and effective – this is all relevant to inclusion, but all too often ignores the disability dimension.
- 16. Inclusion competences are broad based,** education of 'head, hand and heart' and a focus on educating teachers to be reflective practitioners, able to problem-solve collaboratively and do action research.

- 17. Whole-school approaches work best.** There is evidence that sustained whole staff training and professional development works best in transforming schools to be inclusive. The development of inclusion is a process of joint problem-solving. Working with teachers who have additional skills and knowledge of the methods and techniques of including children with disabilities enhances this process. These can be based at a local resource centre covering a cluster of schools or in a school and working with staff at the school and surrounding schools.
- 18. There need to be courses available for experienced teachers to develop expertise and qualifications at a Masters level on the practical aspects of including children with disabilities.** Such teachers are needed to become advisors and itinerant teachers supporting and training teachers in mainstream/regular schools in the impairment specific skills and knowledge to successfully include children with disabilities. Such expertise would include working with deaf-blind pupils, Braille and mobility training, Sign Language, augmented and facilitated communication, differentiation of materials and learning, specialist use of ICT and use of physical aids and appliances.
- 19. Teachers work collaboratively with support staff and the community:** Traditionally teachers work alone. Inclusion requires skills and willingness to seek support and collaboration inside the classroom and school – from colleagues, Teaching Assistants, support staff, community members, DPOs and families. Research demonstrates the importance of working collaboratively at all levels.
- 20. Teachers and teacher educators reflect diversity.** The most effective way to promote inclusion is for education personnel themselves to include representatives from marginalised groups at all levels. Teachers with disabilities should be encouraged by positive action and relaxing and removing ‘medical fitness to teach criteria’. Therefore teacher education needs inclusive and accessible policies, environments, materials and ethos.
- 21. Child-focused pedagogy.** “The best teacher trainers are children!” Teachers need to be trained to observe and listen to children, and welcome active participation and feedback from children. They are the biggest learning resource in any classroom. This needs to be balanced by taking account of local conditions and traditions.
- 22. Effective school leadership.** The type of leadership needed for inclusion is different from the traditional, authoritarian role – leaders need to be role models, be creative, supportive, problem solvers, able to learn from mistakes and failures, and have high expectations from everyone
- 23. Teacher educators need to model inclusion explicitly.** Research demonstrates that teacher educators need to model good inclusive practice in the way they train teachers and become student/child centred. They also need to update their knowledge and skills and be able to recognise good practice. This often has more impact than the content.
- 24. Poverty, resources and the link to disability.** Poverty does affect enrolment in teacher training and the links with disability are well documented. A push on recruiting and educating children with disabilities will make a huge difference long term in increasing the number of teachers with disabilities and to decrease levels of poverty. However, what emerges from the literature is that poverty and lack of resources are barriers that can be overcome by strong motivation,

positive attitudes and a willingness to be resourceful. Inclusion of children with disabilities is not resource dependent and there are often low tech solutions to access and learning.

25. Effective teacher training materials need to be produced and be made easily available. Such materials promoting understanding of the inclusive education of children with disabilities, illustrated by examples drawn from a similar economic and cultural situation, need to explain the main methods/pedagogy of running an inclusive classroom and how to meet the range of accommodations and supports children with different impairments require.

26. Quality education for all. Placement in school is only the beginning of a process. This can more often lead to non-completion and dropping out in the case of children with disabilities than for other marginalised groups. The quality of the education children receive needs to be improved substantially and this means implementing the above key ingredients systematically. Teachers and schools need critical friends. This can be through self-evaluation, peer evaluation and external evaluation. However this needs to be done by educationalist who can offer advice on how to improve the quality of the education offered through an inclusive pedagogy.

7. Next steps

Over 20 years of efforts towards Education for All have proved very ineffectual and disappointing for children with disabilities and their parents, the large majority of children with disabilities in low and medium income countries remain excluded from effective education, and many more drop out as the curriculum and pedagogy fail to engage them. In Europe, over one million children remain in segregated provision, making little educational progress (EASDNE, 2010) and many more in the CEE/CIS countries remain in institutions or at home (UNICEF, 2012). This represents a crisis of pedagogy that must be addressed by governments and international agencies. Teacher education must lie at the heart of a national plan to achieve social justice for children with disabilities.

The combination of a human rights approach for the education of children with disabilities and the economic and social imperative of Education For has built up a strong global pressure for inclusive education. Yet many who espouse inclusive education are not clear on the forms that education of children with disabilities can take and how to respond to the belief that any education for children with disabilities is inclusive.

“In most countries, both developed and developing, the steps towards achieving the right to education for children with disabilities have followed a common pattern, with some local variations. Progress has tended to follow the pattern of steps outlined below:

- Exclusion from school, based on negative attitudes, and a denial of rights, justified by the belief that children with disabilities cannot learn or benefit from education.
- Segregation, reflecting the emphasis on ‘difference’, combined with a charity-based approach, where separate education centres and schools were and are still provided by local, regional and international charitable NGOs, and more recently, by development-focused, NGOs.
- Integration, reflecting some degree of acceptance for some disabled children, depending on their degree of disability, allowing them to attend local regular national schools, as long as they can fit in to the school and the school does not have to make significant adjustments for them.
- Inclusion in education, acknowledging the fact that all children, including those with disabilities, have the right to education, and that all schools have the responsibility to teach

every child, and that it is the responsibility of the school to make the adjustments that may be necessary to make sure that all children can learn” (UNESCO Bangkok, 2009a, p.51)¹²⁸

The paradigm shift that lay at the heart of the international community accepting the UNCRPD – i.e. moving from perceiving disabled people as objects of charity and medical intervention, to people with human rights who are challenging years of oppressive barriers that largely excluded and denied their rights – followed more than 30 years of campaigning by DPOs, parents organisations and international NGOs.

In education, this paradigm shift requires equipping teachers with the skills, knowledge and understanding to break from an old teacher-centred pedagogy and move to new forms of pedagogy that encompass reflective practice, collaborative practice, using pupil peer support and child-to-child methods. Pedagogies and methods that have proved effective for learners with special educational needs – such as: co-operative group teaching; peer tutoring; a supportive classroom climate; social skills training; cognitive strategy instruction; self-regulated learning; memory strategies; phonological awareness and processing; behavioural approaches; functional behavioural assessment; direct instruction, review and practice; formative assessment and feedback; assistive technology; augmentative and alternative communication – have mostly been shown to be effective for all learners too (Mitchell, 2009).

The paradigm shift also means there is a need for a second track of impairment specific accommodations and support, as argued by IDA (2011) and echoed by a number of researchers and advocates reviewed in Section 2.4 and 3.9. This cannot just be subsumed into the very necessary broad brush inclusive pedagogy, but has to be an additional source of understanding of specific impairment adjustments. The current author has developed a schematic of the ingredients of this twin-track approach that must be fully introduced to teacher education, if the world is to be successful in including children with disabilities in quality education where they will meet ‘their academic and social potential’ (see Section 4.7).

Which barriers and bottlenecks are maintaining this major breach of human rights around the world?

Teacher educators

The providers of education for pre-service teachers around the world are still largely operating from a teacher-centred pedagogy and have little recent and relevant experience. They do not teach inclusive education principles. When children with disabilities are covered it is in discrete courses based upon the old deficit medical model approach. Student teachers and their educators have little practical experience in inclusive settings. Teacher educators have low status and little scrutiny of what they are doing and how effective it is. There is a reticence amongst the more progressive academics to use categorical approaches to impairment for fear of regressing into segregative medical model approaches. A growing number of teacher educators are realising their courses must include regular encounters with disabled peoples’ organisations and Disability Equality Studies (Section 3.5 and 3.6).

Teachers in schools and other education settings

Teachers are still fearful of having children with disabilities in their classes, often reflecting local traditional negative attitudes. When questioned, most think inclusion is a good idea in principle, but

¹²⁸ Acknowledgement to UNESCO,(2005 a) Guidelines for Inclusion: Ensuring Access to Education For All, Paris, UNESCO, 2005, p. 24

complain of not getting frequent and relevant training on how to include children with disabilities. Governments in the global South have largely left in-service training to NGOs, who are not able to bring such programmes to scale and often leave the work once their funding finishes (DANIDA, 2005). (See Section 3 in general.) The current method of choice for in-service training is generally cascade training, which is perceived as reaching larger numbers of teachers. But this approach has been widely criticised as inadequate for achieving sustained attitude and practice changes among teachers (see Section 3.3.3). Classrooms and their teachers are still largely isolated and depend on the quality and dedication, or lack of it, of the classroom teacher. Teachers lack regular and effective whole-school professional development on inclusive education linked to career enhancement. As such they are extremely vulnerable to failure for children who present learning needs different from the norm. Throughout the majority world, teachers lack status commensurate with their valued position, lack decent pay and career structure, and professional organisation is very rudimentary or non-existent (Section 3.13, and 3.14). There is a chronic lack of locally available specialist support, expertise and materials on impairment specific needs.

School leaders have generally had inadequate support and professional development to lead their school staff and stakeholders in the process of developing inclusive education, developing impairment specific adjustments and challenging disabilist thinking (within the community and among pupils by challenging name calling and bullying, and insisting that an understanding of disability oppression is part of the learning of all pupils). (See Section 3.12.)

Governments are still generally centrally imposing ridged curricula and assessment criteria for progression that act against the inclusion of children with disabilities. (See Section 3.11.)

Solutions?

As Section 4 amply illustrates, there are many packs, courses and materials that can challenge existing attitudes and practices and support the development of adequate inclusive education for children with disabilities around the world.

Forlin (2012d, p.177) has suggested the model of the Inclusive Wheel, with seven spokes, all of which need to moving in the same direction to break the current inertia and “maintain inclusive education as it moves forward” (ibid, .p178). Five of the spokes require training and on-going professionals development: a) leaders/advisors; b) institutions and school teacher educators; c) initial or pre-service education; d) professional learning of in-service teachers; e) peripatetic and parents, other school staff and administrators. The two further spokes are the students themselves (and the curriculum used to teach them), and the community (among whom we need to raise awareness and facilitate a broader conception of inclusion) (ibid, pp.177-178).

The current author, based on the review evidence in Section 2 and Section 3.15, would suggest an eighth spoke is necessary – the full involvement of disabled people’s organisations. Their perspectives will ensure an impairment-specific strand in all training, and challenge widely held negative attitudes towards people with disabilities.

This model, if adopted, could unify the approach of State parties and international donors to their international responsibility to implement inclusive education for children with disabilities.

We do know from the research what will work:

- i. Mandatory inclusive education training, permeating teacher education courses, including educating all trainee teachers about impairment specific accommodations;

- ii. Urgent mandatory training for all faculty and teacher educators in the concepts and methods of inclusive education;
- iii. Courses for all school leaders in inclusive education, and mentoring to support them with implementation in their schools;
- iv. On-going whole-school training on the methods and practices of inclusive education, with on-going support and collaboration from colleagues and the availability of more specialist teachers and other professionals to advise and provide equipment and materials;
- v. The development of local clusters of schools, with specialist teachers skilled in various impairment accommodations operating peripatetically and without their own class responsibilities. These can be formed from special schools where they exist, but staff need training to work in the mainstream, and children with disabilities should spend the large majority (80%+) of their time with their peers in the mainstream;
- vi. The development of banks of materials, filmed examples of promising practice, local facilitated chat rooms and on-line courses to enhance teachers professional development;
- vii. Schools celebrating their successes and sharing them with stakeholders in the community;
- viii. Support for disabled people and their organisations to provide disability equality training for school staff and the community in line with the principles of the UNCRPD, and the development of Disability Studies approaches within the training of all teachers and as part of the curriculum for all pupils;
- ix. The provision of Braille, Sign Language, Deaf Blind Language and augmented and facilitated communication tutors to work alongside teachers in the classroom;
- x. The sharing of low, medium and high tech solutions for aids, adjustments and appliances (including ICT) that enable children with disabilities to overcome barriers and engage effectively with learning and socialisation; and the necessary training for class teachers in how to use these devices;
- xi. A big effort to break down barriers to the recruitment and training of adults with disabilities to work in schools as communication tutors, support workers and teachers, to be role models and bring the disability experience into mainstream schools.

The problem is one of political will, organisation and the allocation of sufficient funding to build a self-renewing infrastructure and training system. The renegotiation of the MDGs is providing a focus for global discussion and action. It is to be hoped that some of the solutions emerging from the literature will be taken up consistently and to scale, in an effective way, so that we genuinely have education systems that hold out the promise of Education for All, regardless of impairments.

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