

Rethinking Disability: A Primer for Educators and Education Unions

Tania Principe
December 2018



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Cover picture: John McRae/NZEI Te Riu Roa

Teacher aide Ally Kemplen works with Damien at Newton Central School in Auckland, New Zealand. Newton Central School is an urban, mainstream, public school.

About the author:

Tania Principe

Tania Principe is currently pursuing her PhD in Social Justice Education and Critical Disability Studies at OISE, University of Toronto. Her current research explores the education and regulation of neurodiverse learners in elementary school. In addition to her research, Tania is Gender at Work's Director of Operations and has over 20 years of experience working globally and locally in women's rights and gender equality. She is the fortunate mother of two school aged boys who continually challenge her thinking on education and she is a volunteer advocate for parents of children labelled with disabilities.

Education International

Education International represents organisations of teachers and other education employees across the globe. It is the world's largest federation of unions and associations, representing thirty-two million education employees in about four hundred organisations in one hundred and seventy countries and territories, across the globe. Education International unites teachers and education employees.

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List of Abbreviations

CRPD	UN Convention on the Rights of Persons with Disabilities
CSD	Canadian Survey on Disability
EFA	Education For All
EI	Education International
ESP	Education Support Personnel
ILO	International Labour Organisation
NASUWT	National Association of Schoolmasters Union of Women Teachers
NCCD	Nationally Consistent Collection of Data on Students with Disability
SDG	Sustainable Development Goals
TVET	Technical and Vocational Education and Training
UN	United Nations
UNESCO	United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organisation
UNGEI	United Nations Girls' Education Initiative
USA	United States of America
WHO	World Health Organization

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Introduction

Over the last 50 years, societal understanding of disability has changed significantly. Heavy investment in medical research has yielded a more detailed understanding of the body and the ways in which it functions. It is now possible to replace missing arms and legs with ever more realistic and functional prosthetics. It is possible to edit genes and modify lifestyles and, in some cases, to prevent disease that can result in disabilities.

At the same time, disability rights activists have been working to change the model through which we understand, appreciate and accommodate disabilities. Through the prism of international human rights, there are now legislative frameworks such as the United Nations (UN) Convention on the Rights of Persons with Disabilities (CRPD), that outline, in depth, the role governments can play in eradicating ableism¹ and enshrining the rights of persons with disabilities. Article 24 of the CRPD describes the right of persons with disabilities to be included and accommodated in public education at the primary and secondary levels.

Disability rights activists have also been successful in pushing a broad rights-based agenda that demands the right of persons with disabilities to live life with freedom and dignity. They are articulating a new way forward, not just in education, but also in healthcare, employment, and economics. Likewise, the 2030 Agenda for Sustainable Development, adopted in 2015, by the UN prioritises inclusion for persons with disabilities across 17 sustainable development goals. Goal number four, for example, sets out to “Ensure inclusive and equitable quality education and promote lifelong learning opportunities for all” (UNESCO, 2015, p.1), and specifically states the need to “Build and upgrade education facilities that are child, disability and gender sensitive and provide safe, nonviolent, inclusive and effective learning environments for all” (UNESCO, 2015, p.21). Another important global instrument that was adopted in 2013 is the Marrakesh Treaty which creates limitations and exceptions to national and international copyright laws for the benefit of the blind, visually impaired, and otherwise print-disabled. It is one of the most well-known treaties administered by the World Intellectual Property Organisation, and while 40 countries have ratified it, implementation lags behind. This is an important practical step forward for the production and use of educational materials to support inclusion.

¹ Ableism is discrimination against persons with disabilities or the privileging of able-bodiedness.



In spite of these advancements, many persons with disabilities around the world continue to face daunting obstacles and systemic prejudice. Despite Article 24 of the CRPD and its specific provisions of inclusion, more than half of the world's children and youth with disabilities never receive any formal education — girls with disabilities even less so than boys with disabilities (Rousso, 2003). In Canada, employment rates for persons with disabilities are significantly lower than for persons without disabilities (Turcotte, 2014). As noted in 2016 by the Committee on the UN CRPD, implementation of its key recommendations has been painfully slow. A comprehensive review of EU legislation to ensure full harmonisation with the Convention is still in progress (Mental Health Europe, 2016); even ten years after the ratification of the convention. Attitudinal and cultural biases, especially in the developing world, continue to hamper the right to education for girls with disabilities as resources and opportunities are directed preferentially towards male children (Rousso, 2003). This is despite the quick signing and ratification of the Convention in 2006.

While academic and rights-based discourse on disability has shifted significantly in some countries, actual implementation of inclusive education has been slower to follow this evolution. Depending on one's point of view, there has been hesitation, confusion, or reluctance to effectively design and create inclusive schools. This has left many students with disabilities on the margins of social and of economic life.

It is time to rethink disability in education.

This report posits that there is a wide range of policies and legislative frameworks to support the active involvement of persons with disabilities in all facets of education. The underlying problem, however, is the critical gap between policy and implementation. This gap is the result of multiple factors, including attitudinal and practical barriers. Firstly, norms, values, and prejudices continue to block meaningful change. Secondly, a critical lack of financial resources to support implementation, at institutional and individual levels, can prevent even the most supportive educator from implementing and advancing inclusive education practices in their classrooms and schools. These are the hidden obstacles that keep children and youth with disabilities from full participation in public education.

Bratlinger (2006) argues that education's approach to disability often mirrors societal values, or society's general attitudes towards disability. As discussed above, there have been extensive shifts in disability discourses with the growth of critical disability studies in academia, and disability rights and persons with disabilities' movements. But these new understandings have not been consistently reflected in broad societal norms, nor, by extension, have they been consistently applied in classrooms and schools.

Public schools in the United States of America (USA), Canada, and the UK, for example, are now obliged to include students with disabilities in their classrooms.

Yet, all too often teachers may lack the requisite information, skills, and/or classroom supports to teach everyone in classrooms (National Association of Schoolmasters Union of Women Teachers [NASUWT], 2018). As a result of these challenges, many children and youth with disabilities continue to be taught separately, away from their peers. Further, schools continue to confront persistent challenges with underfunding for inclusive education, including a lack of funding to implement even the most basic accessibility retrofitting such as installation of elevators and ramps for students using wheelchairs. School boards and school administrators may use the language and administrative practices of a rights-based approach to inclusive service delivery, however, classroom practice - inclusive education programmes, classroom structure, the hierarchical model of evaluation, and often the way schools are funded² - are underpinned by a medical model of disability. (See more on the medical and social models of disability in the next section).

To provide further context, this report will outline a brief history of models of disability and discuss how these models have informed a global shift in the disability rights landscape, both inside and outside of education. The intention is to define disability in the context of education, and to explore disability's relationship to the inclusive school agenda. Finally, this report will draw on the experiences of education unions globally - members of Education International (EI)³ - to outline a way forward through thoughtful and context-specific approaches to inclusive education.

In January 2018, EI carried out a survey of union members' practices, policies and understanding around disability and inclusive education. The survey asked for feedback on school and classroom accessibility, barriers to education, inclusive classroom practices, teachers' professional development and training, government and union support and policy on children and youth with disabilities in early, primary, secondary, technical and vocational education and training (TVET) and higher education. Survey findings are interwoven throughout this report.

The goal of this report is to share new thinking on disability, and to briefly touch on effective teaching approaches and practices that are creating more inclusive classrooms. The intention is not that these approaches and practices be replicated in every classroom, since teachers, schools, and school boards across the globe have different and unequal resources, and resources limit what is possible. Instead, readers are invited to view this report and its case studies as a means of opening up to the many ways in which teaching and classrooms are being restructured across diverse infrastructures, skills, and resources. In other words, it is hoped that this report will inspire readers to build more reflexive, dialogic, and place-appropriate practices and approaches for use in their own educational settings.

2 For example, in Ontario, Canada, schools are given additional funds for each child with a disability, though this funding does not need to go directly to the particular student.

3 EI is a Global Union Federation and represents organisations of teachers and other education employees. It is the world's largest global union federation with more than 400 organisations in 170 countries and territories around the world, representing 32 million teachers, educators, and education support personnel.

Shifting disability discourse

“The spirit of society is manifest in juridical and educational systems” (Touraine in Slee, 2013, p. 1).

There are several theories of social and economic care of disability that underpin current approaches to education. This next section outlines some of the key theories that are most relevant for understanding current approaches to disability within education.

The Medical Model of Disability

Until the late 20th century, disability was mainly understood as a medical phenomenon and problem affecting individuals. Therefore, persons were labelled as disabled because they were diagnosed as disabled by a medical doctor, and efforts were made to rehabilitate the medical problem to the extent deemed possible and/or reasonable. At different times, disability was considered hereditary, contagious, or pathological (NHS North West, 2011). In the 1900s, in particular, the growing disciplines of biology, psychotherapy, and psychology investigated individual physiological and psychological variabilities and medical and scientific professionals conducted experiments to try to better understand and limit disability (NHS North West, 2011). The goal for many was to limit, cure, or rehabilitate persons with disabilities.

The medical model of disability centres on impairment in the body being caused by a deviation in the body or by a disease. In this framework, disability is perceived as an individual problem, and treatment for disability is explored between professionals and the disabled person. Areheart (as cited in Shyman, 2016) outlines the medical model as follows:

The medical model of disability is centred on the dichotomous categories of “disabled” and “non-disabled” in order to frame acceptable levels of intellectual, behavioural, and social functioning, as well as determines which individuals should be required to receive “treatment” in order to ameliorate the consequences of their disability. From the medical model perspective, the locus of the disability itself lies *within* the person, leaving the need for treatment to come from an external counteractive source. It follows, then, that the focus of treatment from the medical model perspective must be on either

rehabilitating such difficulties that are *caused by* the disability or curing the individual of that disabling condition in order to attain, or approach, “normality” (p. 368).

Our understanding of disability continues to evolve through developments such as:

Increasing census and survey data at the national level. For example, in 2012, the Canadian Survey on Disability (CSD) was implemented, on type, prevalence, support, and other factors (Canadian Survey on Disability, 2012). In 2011, South Africa released its first in-depth census of persons with disabilities, including prevalence and characteristics (Statistics South Africa profile, 2014).

Explosion of scholars, think tanks, and other organisations working on disabilities, including organisations in the Global South such as the African Disability Alliance.

A global multi-lateral institutional focus, such as through the World Health Organization (WHO), and so forth. For example, in 2011, the WHO released its flagship report, World Report on Disability (WHO, 2011).

New conceptual frameworks and identification of disability, such as the WHO’s International Classification of Functioning, Disability and Health framework of disability (WHO, 2018).

New focus on persons with disabilities within regional bodies. For example, the African Union has a specialised agency reporting on disability issues and launched the African Decade of Persons with Disabilities (2000-2009).

(African Studies Centre Leiden, 2018)

Examples of the medicalisation of disability occur throughout history. For example, in the USA during the early 1920s, approximately 30 states legally sanctioned, forced, or coerced sterilisation of persons with disabilities as part of their efforts to eradicate what was seen as ‘hereditary’ disability, thereby, in their view, improving society’s gene pool. These policies led to more than 60,000 individuals being involuntarily sterilised (Carlson, Smith, & Wilker, 2012).

The Social Model of Disability

British sociologist Mike Oliver defined his ground-breaking social model of disability as a response to the individual or medical model of disability. Oliver’s (1983) framework is based on the distinction between impairment and disability. Impairment may be caused by genetics, trauma, disease or unknown causes; the term “impairment” thus offers a description of the physical body while

“disability” is described as “the disadvantage or restriction of activity caused by a contemporary social organisation which takes no or little account of people who have physical impairments and thus excludes them from participation in the mainstream of social activities” (Oliver, 1995, p. 22).

Oliver rejected the idea that disability was a medical problem or defect located within an individual's body, as is common in the medical model. Instead, he saw disability as society's response to body impairment. Disability, like gender, is a social construct. Davis (2000) articulates the distinction as follows:

Disability is not so much the lack of a sense or the presence of a physical or mental impairment as it is the reception and construction of that difference. ... An impairment is a physical fact, but a disability is a social construction. For example, lack of mobility is an impairment, but an environment without ramps turns that impairment into a disability ... a disability must be socially constructed; there must be an analysis of what it means to have or lack certain functions, appearance and so on (p. 56).

If disability is located in public and social life, remedying disability becomes a social, collective endeavour. In other words, social transformation is imperative to reduce or eliminate the negative impacts of the social construction of disability on persons with disabilities. The social model further requires the identification and transformation of contextual factors (physical, attitudinal, and institutional) that create barriers to the inclusion of persons with disabilities. This model places the responsibility on governments and society to ensure that political, legal, social, and physical environments support the full inclusion of all persons with disabilities (German Federal Ministry for Economic Cooperation and Development, 2012).

Rights-based Approach to Disability

The social model of disability shifted understandings of disability away from a charitable welfare-based and rehabilitative approach and towards a social justice, anti-oppression and human rights-based framework. Disability activists are demanding the same rights and entitlements as their non-disabled peers in all spheres of life. The paradigm shift from a medical model towards a human rights-based approach to disability focuses on persons with disabilities' equal rights to freedom, education, and independence. A human rights-based approach concerning groups and discrimination focuses on non-exclusion and empowerment of vulnerable and marginalized groups (Chrichton, Haider, Chrowns, Browne, 2015). It necessitates focusing not only on transforming legal

instruments through engagement with governments, but also takes into consideration the role of various other public and private institutions that enable or engage in discriminatory practices (Chrichton, et al., 2015).

According to the UN:

A human rights-based approach is a conceptual framework for the process of human development that is based on international human rights standards and directed to promoting and protecting human rights. It seeks to analyse inequalities ... and redress discriminatory practices and unjust distributions of power that impede development progress.

Mere charity is not enough from a human rights perspective. Under a human rights-based approach, the plans, policies, and processes of development are anchored in a system of rights and corresponding obligations established by international law ... A human rights-based approach identifies rights-holders and their entitlements and corresponding duty bearers and their obligations, and works towards strengthening the capacities of rights-holders to make their claims and of duty bearers to meet their obligations (UN HRBA Portal, n.d.)

Table 1. Towards a rights-based approach to inclusive education

RETHINKING DISABILITY <i>MOVING TOWARDS A RIGHTS-BASED APPROACH TO INCLUSIVE EDUCATION</i>		
TRADITIONAL MODEL OF DISABILITY IN EDUCATION	VS	INCLUSIVE MODEL OF DISABILITY IN EDUCATION
Disability is a problem.		Lack of infrastructure, social understanding and appropriate pedagogy is the problem.
It is too difficult for schools to accommodate students and teachers with disabilities.		School infrastructure accommodates everyone, including students and teachers with disabilities.
Disability makes learning and fully participating in education difficult for learners.		Education is organised in ways that ensure students with disabilities participate, thrive, and contribute to schools.
Students with disabilities are expected to adapt to existing structures and curriculum.		Structures and curricula are adapted to meet the specific needs of students.
Educators are not trained to teach students with disabilities.		Initial and in-service training promote inclusive training practices and pedagogy. Teachers and education support personnel work in teams to benefit from a range of teaching styles and skills.
Having students with disabilities increases teachers' workload.		Teachers and education support personnel are trained to welcome, teach and support all students. This may mean smaller class sizes, increased preparation time, etc.
Parents of students with disabilities are concerned for their children's inclusion, safety, and accommodation in classroom and school environments. Parents of non-disabled students may feel concerned that diversity in the classroom reduces the quality of education and attention given to their children.		Disability is de-stigmatised. Everyone's contribution to the classroom is valued. Safe and inclusive learning environments mirror safe and inclusive societies that benefit everyone.
Employment rates for persons with disabilities are low. Education institutions reward people with greatest achievements as demonstrated by scoring.		Society benefits when everyone reaches their full potential.

Global disability policy shifts

More recently, there has been a paradigm shift at international policy level towards a rights-based approach to disability as discussed above. In 2006, the UN CRPD became the most rapidly ratified treaty in the history of international law (UN CRPD, 2016). The CRPD was adopted in December 2006 and entered into force in March 2008. At its adoption, the convention had 82 signatories, 44 signatories to the optional protocol, and one ratification. At the time of print, there are 177 ratifications of and 161 signatories to the convention; 92 ratifications and 92 signatories to the optional protocol (UN CRPD, 2016). The CRPD was the first comprehensive human rights treaty of the 21st Century, and the first treaty to be open to signatures from regional organisations (UN CRPD, 2016).

Article 24 of the CRPD, fundamental to understanding the proper role of educational institutions and to the promotion of inclusive education, outlines inclusion and state responsibility as follows:

Section 1: States Parties shall ensure an inclusive education system at all levels.

Section 2:

- a) Persons with disabilities are not excluded from the general education system on the basis of disability, and that children and youth 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 (UN CRPD, 2016).

Recognition of rights, quick ratification, extensive buy-in at the national and international level, and multiple intersecting rights-based instruments continue to expand to support the CRPD and rights of persons with disabilities.

But this progress in rhetoric and policy, though welcome, has not translated into large-scale changes in accessibility, attitudes, or practices for persons with disabilities. Nor has it translated into wide-scale change for students in schools across the globe. In 2016, the Committee on the Rights of Persons with Disabilities suggested that disparities continue to exist because of:

- Barriers to understanding the human rights model of disability.
- Persistent discrimination.



- Lack of knowledge about inclusive and equal education, lack of outreach to parents, misplaced fears and discrimination.
- Lack of data and research for programme development.
- Lack of capacity in implementing inclusive education.
- Need for transfer of resources from segregated to inclusive environments (UN CRPD, 2016).

Fundamentally, the CRPD is a clarion call for societies across the globe to include persons with disabilities in all aspects of modern life, including education. But it bears emphasising what an enormous social change this would represent, given the continued dominance of the medical model of disability, which underlies continued exclusion and inadequate resourcing of inclusive models for education.

Table 2. Key Moments in Disability-related Global Policy Development

1966	Universal Declaration of Human Rights ensures the right to free and compulsory education for all children. UN International Covenant on Economic, Social and Cultural Rights Article 13: “Primary education shall be compulsory and free to all”.
1989	UN Convention on the Rights of the Child ensures the right of all children to receive education without discrimination on any grounds. Adopted by 196 parties.
1990	World Declaration on Education for All (the Jomtien Declaration). First agreement on target of ‘Education for All’ (EFA).
1993	UN Standard Rules on the Equalization of Opportunities for Persons with Disabilities Rule 6 affirms equal rights to education of all disabled children, youth and adults. It states that education should be provided in the “general school setting”.
1994	Salamanca Statement and Framework for Action on Special Needs Education states that “schools should accommodate all children regardless of their physical, intellectual, social, emotional, linguistic or other conditions” (para. 3).
2000	World Education Forum Framework for Action, Dakar: All children must have access to and complete free primary education by 2015. Focus on marginalised communities and girls. Reaffirms the Salamanca Framework.
2000	The Recife Declaration was adopted by the E 9 countries ⁴ at their third summit, reaffirming their commitment to reach EFA goals (UNESCO, 2000).
2001	EFA Flagship on the Right to Education for Persons with Disabilities links EFA with the Salamanca Framework for Action and the need to include disabled and other marginalised children. Working in six regions.
2006	UN CRPD promotes the right of persons with disabilities to inclusive education (Article 24).
2006	Inter-Agency Support Group for the CRPD established to promote compliance with the principles of the CRPD and increase effectiveness of the UN’s involvement in disability.
2013	The Marrakesh VIP Treaty (formally the Marrakesh Treaty to Facilitate Access to Published Works by Visually Impaired Persons and Persons with Print Disabilities) was adopted in Marrakesh, Morocco. It allows for copyright exceptions to facilitate the creation of accessible versions of books and other copyrighted works for visually impaired persons.
2013	High Level meeting on Disability and Development (convened by the UN General Assembly). Heads of States and Governments commit to mainstreaming disability in all development efforts.
2014	Appointment of a UN Special Rapporteur on the Rights of Disabled People, established by the Human Rights Council.
2017	UN Secretary General appoints a UN Special Envoy on Disability and Accessibility.

Note. Adapted from “Implementing Inclusive Education: A Commonwealth Guide to Implementing Article 24 of the UN Convention on the Rights of Persons with Disabilities” (second edition), by R. Rieser, 2012.

⁴ Bangladesh, Brazil, China, Egypt, India, Indonesia, Mexico, Nigeria and Pakistan make up the E 9 countries, accounting for more than 50 per cent of the world’s population (UNESCO, 2000).

Disability and Education: From Segregation to Inclusion

Free, quality, equitable, and inclusive education is a relatively new and unevenly applied concept. As understanding grows about the benefits to the whole of society from an educated, more heterogeneous populace, there has been a greater push for EFA. However, it has been a slow and uneven process to get to this point, when the global sustainable development goal on education (SDG 4) calls for “inclusive and equitable quality education and promote lifelong learning opportunities for all” (UNESCO, 2015, p.1).

Previously, in many countries, learners with disabilities (similarly to girls and other marginalised groups) were excluded from education and were largely kept at home or sent to work. Not until the 1800s, in parts of Europe, for example, were separate institutions for blind and deaf students established as the first (segregated) formalised schools for students with disabilities (NHS North West, 2013). Between 1900 and 1945, approximately half a million children had some form of physical or sensory impairment; most hailed from the working class, and diseases combined with poverty led to a high prevalence of disability (Jarrett, 2012). Very few children attended mainstream schools, and by 1921 there were more than 300 segregated institutions for children and youth with different types of disability in England (Jarrett, 2012).

The 2017 United Nations Girls' Education Initiative (UNGEI) report, “Still Left Behind: Pathways to Inclusive Education for Girls with Disabilities”, for example, chronicled the persistent ways in which girls with disabilities continue to be disproportionately excluded from school in many countries all over the world.

Legislative policy frameworks such as the 1994 Salamanca Agreement and the 2000 Education for All Dakar Framework, along with the SDGs adopted in 2015, advocate for a shift away from a segregated special education model and towards fully inclusive education models. The grouping of children and youth with disabilities in segregated or self-contained classrooms and/or schools has the effect of isolating children from their non-disabled peers and community. Research demonstrates that when students attend neighbourhood schools they become and feel part of a community (Konza, 2008). The problem with implementation continues to be the challenge of changing entrenched attitudinal, spatial, and teaching practice norms, many of which are rooted in a medical model of disability that views disability as an individual issue with limited or no accessibility and equity considerations, modifications, and accommodations.

Newer approaches to inclusive education are attempting to integrate disability paradigm shifts, moving away from the medical model of disability to the social model, and thus from segregation of students with disabilities to integration, with the goal of full inclusion. Many of the policy-level shifts, however, have not translated into transformation in buildings, supports, and/or practices at regional or local school levels. At best, therefore, school-level change is broadly inconsistent and contingent on geography, effective leadership, school board-mandated student and classroom supports, and educator attitudes.

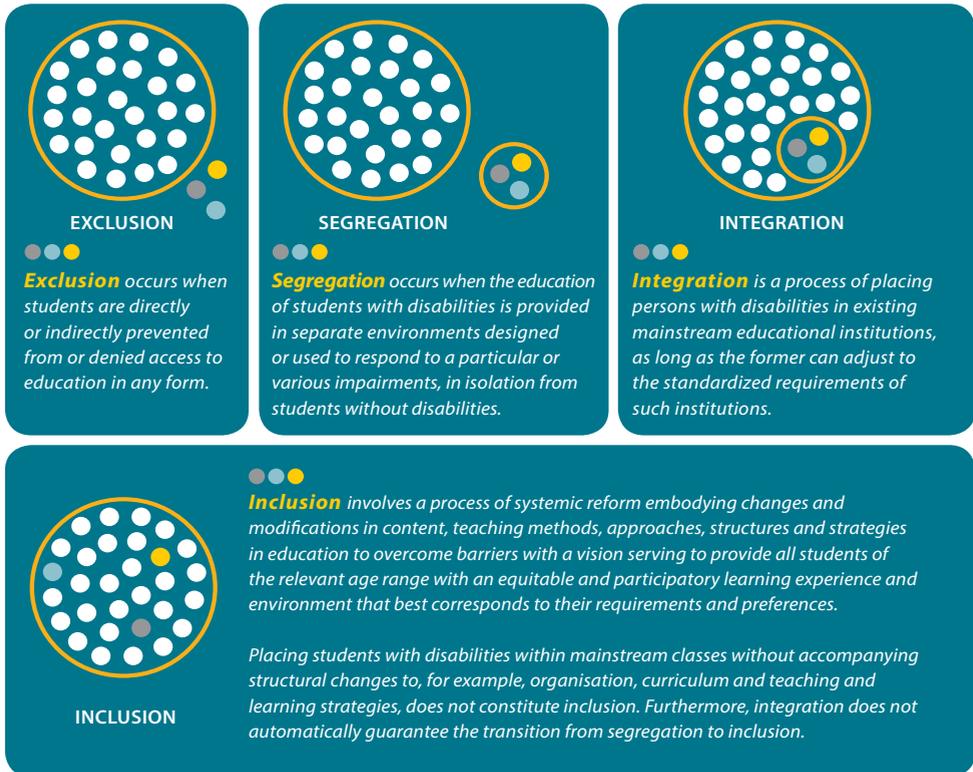
Inclusive Education

Inclusive education is the concept that all students and learners are able to grow and learn together in one space, irrespective of (dis)ability, race, class, gender, sexuality, caste, or any other social or economic marker of difference.

Inclusion, a concept underpinned by the social model of disability, does not ask students to change to succeed or to participate in the classroom. Rather, inclusion requires that education infrastructure, classroom architectures, and approaches to instruction evolve to meet students' unique needs. The goal of inclusion-advancing policies is to create spaces where difference, in its various intersecting dimensions, is not only expected but also that institutions and policies anticipate and accommodate difference. Inclusive education is, therefore, student-centred learning that asks schools and teachers and other educators, where indicated and appropriate, to modify pedagogy to accommodate and instruct all students. To realize these important objectives of inclusive education, policies and infrastructures must support access to professional learning, training, classroom supports, individual student supports, materials, and so forth.

Inclusion versus Segregation and Integration

Inclusion is different from integration. If inclusion involves accommodation of all learning styles and needs in one classroom, integration is the mainstreaming of students with disabilities into age-appropriate classrooms and community schools without the necessary shifts in pedagogy or architecture that would result in full inclusion. In integrated classrooms, therefore, students with disabilities are placed in a general classroom without accompanying changes to classroom structures, practices, or pedagogical approach. For example, a learner with autism spectrum disorder might be placed in a classroom without any changes to the sensory experience of the classroom (noise, colour, smell etc.). In an inclusive classroom, however, accommodations might include noise-cancelling headsets, scent-free classrooms, reduced visual stimuli on the walls, and specialised furniture or spatial arrangements to allow for small group or individual work. For children with visual impairments, for example, an integrated school environment may not be equipped with braille signage or modified learning materials. In an inclusive school setting, the school, at a minimum, would have braille signage on toilets, water fountains, and outside of classrooms and braille or large print materials readily available to students.



Source: United Nations Committee on the Rights of Persons with Disabilities General Comment No. 4 (<http://www.ohchr.org/Documents/HRBodies/CRPD/GC/RighttoEducation/CRPD-C-GC-4.doc>)

Figure 1. What is inclusion?

Adapted from "A Summary of the Evidence on Inclusive Education" by T. Hehir, 2016, p.3.

Segregation or self-contained classrooms or schools is still a common approach to disability in education, particularly for impairments that are deemed severe. These educational institutions may have expert specialised instruction to meet the needs of impaired students. Schools for visually- and hearing-impaired students are two such examples. Special education programmes that pull students from the classroom for a certain span of time also fall under the rubric of segregation.

According to Crawford (2005):

The special education model has grown from roots in the medical/psychological approach to disability. It is based on the belief that academic and social differences between students with and without disabilities are of such significance that separate educational provisions are required for many individuals. Students are clustered according to type and degree of disability (e.g. developmental delay, learning disabilities, giftedness, etc.) and are often set apart from other students through special settings, special teachers, special pedagogical approaches and formal identification and categorisation (i.e. 'labelling') (p. 131).

Special education models that segregate or integrate students based on perceived needs and deficits remain commonplace globally. Where students with disabilities attend school, many are placed in segregated classrooms or are taught segregated lessons within mainstream schools. The World Policy Analysis Center (2014), reviewed country and regional policies in place at end-2014 for the availability of inclusive education in public schools across the globe and across income. Under the heading “Is inclusive education available for children and youth with disabilities?”, their website portrays that the rate of a high degree of integration (meaning that children and youth with disabilities are taught within the same schools as non-students with disabilities but not necessarily in the same classroom) was 45 percent in the Americas, 50 percent in East Asia and the Pacific, 60 percent in Europe and Central Asia, 23 percent in Sub-Saharan Africa, and zero percent in South Asia. Powell (2016) notes that, across all 50 states in the USA, rates of inclusion, where inclusion means students spend 80 percent of their day in the general classroom, average at 50 percent. Vermont has the highest rates of inclusion at 81 percent while Delaware has the lowest at 26 percent (p. 142-143).

Rieser (2012) makes the links between different models of disability and their relationship to resulting forms of education in Table 2. He associates the particular model of disability with the characteristics of disability in education and the related form of education:

Table 3. Models of Disability as They Relate to Forms of Education

Thinking/ Model	Characteristics	Form of Education
Traditional	Disabled person brings shame on family. There is guilt and ignorance. They are seen as of no value.	Excluded from education altogether
Medical Model 1	Focus is on what the disabled person cannot do. Attempt to normalise, or if they cannot fit in, to keep them separate.	Segregation. Institutions/hospitals. Special schools (with ‘expert’ special educators)
Medical Model 2	Person can be supported by minor adjustment and support to function normally and minimise their impairment. Continuum of provision-based severity and type of impairment.	Integration in mainstream: a) At same location - in separate class/units. b) Socially in some activities, e.g. meals, assemblies of art c) In the class with support, but teaching and learning remain the same What a child cannot do determines which form of education they receive.
Social Model	Barriers identified - solutions found to minimise them. Barriers of attitude, environment, and organisation are seen as what disables and are removed to maximise potential of all. Persons with disabilities welcomed. Relations are intentionally built. Persons with disabilities achieve their potential. Person-centred approach.	Inclusive education- schools where all are welcomed and staff, parents, and pupils value diversity and support is provided so all can be successful academically and socially. The requires reorganising teaching, learning and assessment. Peer support is encouraged. Focus on what the child can do.

Note. Table 2 is a representation of typical associations. It is neither a linear nor a historical trajectory. Adapted from “Implementing Inclusive Education: A Commonwealth Guide to Implementing Article 24 of the UN Convention on the Rights of Persons with Disabilities” (second edition), by R. Rieser, 2012.

Barriers to Inclusion

Barriers to inclusion are multiple and layered. Disability exists across class, gender, sexuality, indigeneity and other differences. Barriers may be more pronounced due to the multiple ways that a person's identity or social position intersect. This is important because understanding disability as intersectional also deepens understanding of how best to implement schooling changes meant to reduce the barriers to education in particular. For example, the potential barriers to education for a young girl with a disability born to upper-class parents in Sub-Saharan Africa will be significantly different to the barriers faced by a working-class young woman of colour in North America. Class matters because transport to and from school can be costly and difficult to access for students who live in rural areas, as well as for students in urban areas, depending on their particular mobility impairment.

The UNGEI's 2017 report, "Still Left Behind" outlines the particular challenges girls with disabilities face in accessing education. While it notes a glaring paucity of research, data, or studies to draw upon, the report effectively outlines more nuanced, context-specific challenges facing girls across the globe. For example, the report notes that sexual violence often prevents girls from returning to or completing their education. This risk increases for girls with disabilities as, globally, girls with disabilities experience different types of violence at much higher rates, and at more severe and chronic levels than their non-disabled peers (UNGEI, 2017).

The next section outlines barriers to inclusion both within schools and in attending school. It draws on barriers identified by EI's recent survey, "Inclusive Education for Children and Youth with Disabilities" (Education International and Principe, 2018), as well as an extensive literature review. In January 2018, EI carried out a survey⁴ of its affiliated unions, focusing on government as well as union practices and policies on disability and inclusive quality education in their countries and jurisdictions. The survey explored union members' practices, policies, and understanding around disability. It also solicited feedback on school and classroom accessibility, barriers to education, inclusive classroom practices, educators' professional development and training, government and union support, and policies on disabled youth and children in early, primary, secondary, TVET, and higher education.

As stated above, barriers to education for students with disabilities vary from country to country, within countries from urban centres to rural areas, and further vary based on gender, class and race. Typically, these barriers fall into three major categories: challenges in getting to, into and from school, barriers to staying in school once in attendance, and government policies and supports for education.

4 Fifty (50) education unions from 43 countries in Latin America (3), Africa (11), Asia-Pacific (12), Europe (20), and North America and the Caribbean (4) participated in the survey. This represents about 13 percent of total EI membership. Of the 50 respondents, 34 completed the survey in its entirety, and 16 partially completed it. Respondents represented early childhood education (78 percent), primary education (90 percent) and secondary education (78 percent) or a combination of these sectors. TVET (58 percent) and higher education (40 percent) were less represented.

Access: Getting to, into, and from school

Transport and distance

Where safe, accessible transport is not mandated by the school boards or school districts, transport to and from school can pose a barrier for impaired and non-impaired children alike (Genova, 2015). EI member organisations noted that transport to and from school was mandated and always available in only 17 percent of countries (EI, 2018). Insufficient, unsafe transport can be an even greater threat to children's safety depending on their gender, class, ethnicity, race and type of disability. Girls and students from minority communities are at greatest risk of being violated along school routes that are sometimes long and lonely (UNGEI, 2017). In rural areas where schools may be a great distance from the home, risk increases further. Travel to and from school in the dark hours of the early morning is not uncommon and increases incidents of violence. Affordable modes of transport, like bicycles and passenger motorcycles, carry their own risks. Private accessible vehicle rentals come at great cost. Safe, accessible transport is less available or more expensive for children with mobility impairments, those who require wheelchairs, and for children with vision and hearing impairments. Simply put, the lack of necessary transport effectively bars many children and youth with disabilities from attending school (Genova, 2015; Limaye, 2016).

Accessibility

Physical and architectural obstacles represent a significant barrier to schooling and inclusive education (Bualar, 2017; Bennett et al., 2018). In Genova's research (2015) with students with disabilities in Spain, Lithuania, and Greece, students noted physical barriers as the greatest challenge for inclusion in mainstream schools.

In Bualar's 2017 study with students with visual impairments in higher education in Thailand, students noted that campus walkways, access to classrooms, and inadequately signed classroom relocations created barriers to their lecture attendance. In the EI survey (2018), 49 percent of respondents noted that school facilities were inadequate and inaccessible. Data for school accessibility was not consistently available across grade levels or within countries. Where data was available, less than one-third of elementary schools were consistently barrier-free. Approximately fourteen percent of sidewalks were maintained and accessible in all levels of education. Accessibility of schools varied from country to country, and from site to site within countries. In Malawi, for example, the Ministry of Education has yet to provide the necessary support to ensure students can access schools. Conversely, in South Korea, newer schools and

roads are physically accessible and maintained, though older infrastructure remains inaccessible. In the EI survey (2018), a respondent from Scotland noted:

Education authorities have a duty to develop and maintain accessibility strategies for schools. Accessibility strategies are required to consider improvements, over time, to school information, curriculum and physical access⁵. Some buildings remain inaccessible due to the cost of upgrading them, but the majority of public buildings are accessible. Sidewalks (pavements) are well maintained in the main, but can often be cluttered with street furniture, signage, bins etc. which can hamper accessibility (EI, 2018).

Even in countries where legal instruments mandate accessibility, “answers to these questions will vary from site to site and the needs of the learners in those sites” (EI, 2018)

Attitude

As noted in a publication that presented findings from a survey of parents of students with intellectual disabilities in Ontario, Canada, “If Inclusion Means Everyone Why Not Me?”, discrimination remains one of the most significant barriers to education for children and youth with disabilities (Bennett et al., 2018). Genova’s research (2015) in Greece, Spain and Lithuania supports this finding. Attitudes in the home, within government, amongst educators, in the community, and at higher institutional levels are often discriminatory against children and youth with disabilities and result in lowered rates of attendance and completion (Sokal & Katz, 2015). Girls, racialised, indigenous, transgender, and refugee children are doubly discriminated against based on their gender, race, sexual preference, and citizenship status (UNGEI, 2017). According to EI’s survey (2018), 19% of 47 respondents answered that children and youth are kept at home specifically because of their gender. Further, eight out of ten unions stated that girls are kept at home more often than boys. Students with neurodiverse⁶ impairments were also more likely to be kept home, particularly those with autism spectrum disorder, followed by student with physical impairments. In North America, growing research illustrates the different diagnoses given to students of colour compared to their Caucasian, North European-origin counterparts. Historically, there has been an over-representation of learners of colour, particularly black students, in segregated special education programmes in the USA. “Fifteen percent of black students in the U.S. are identified as disabled, while only 13 percent of white students are. Some worry

5 For more information visit: <http://www.gov.scot/Publications/2014/10/8011>

6 Neurodiversity refers to neurological diversity - neurological differences of the human brain, such as Dyspraxia, Dyslexia, Attention Deficit Hyperactivity Disorder, Dyscalculia, Autistic Spectrum, Tourette Syndrome - and to the idea that this is a natural, valuable form of diversity. The adjective “neurodiverse” is used the same way one would use a phrase like “ethnically diverse” (Autistic Self Advocacy Network, n.d.).

that misplacing students of colour in special education segregates them and lowers expectations for their success” (Barnum, 2017). More recently, studies suggest there has been an under-identification of appropriate learning disabilities among black students. At different times, these students tend to either be under-diagnosed or over-diagnosed with more severe, behavioural disabilities. (Gold & Richards, 2012; Barnum, 2017; Camera, 2017).

In some contexts, impairment is still considered shameful, and children with impairments are kept in the home under the care of parents or guardians, or in segregated, specialised institutions. Caregivers may have apprehensions or concerns regarding their child’s education potential or fail to understand how their child can be taught in a community school (Limaye, 2016). In cases where families have multiple children and limited resources, it is often the more ‘promising’ child who attends school, often the case for girls with disabilities (Rousso, 2003). School supplies, uniforms, and transport can be costly, and the loss of needed labour in the home further exacerbates the attitude that impaired children may not be worth the investment of resources needed to ensure they obtain an education. The notion that girls with disabilities should either remain unmarried and at home, or married and cared for by their spouse, decreases the perceived need for formal schooling (UNGEI, 2017). Moreover, education does not necessarily generate employability for youth with disabilities in the same way that education is seen as an investment in potential employability for non-disabled youth.

Attitudes and social norms also have an important role in how policies and resources are allocated to education. In contexts where resources are limited, preference may be given to resourcing schools for non-disabled learners, particularly where girls with disabilities are concerned (Rousso, 2003). For example, renovating schools to make buildings and play areas barrier-free can be an expensive undertaking. Where schools struggle for resources to provide basic education, the notion of also addressing physical inaccessibility and renovations to accommodate mobile impairments may be deemed unrealistic, or viewed as a longer-term objective as opposed to an immediate need.

Attitudes also influence expectations placed on learners. Low expectations of students with impairments are common amongst educators and community members, and are then reflected in poorer student success. These low expectations reflect general social attitudes (Shifrer, 2013; Trainor, 2017; Damianidou & Phtiaka, 2017; Bennett et al., 2018).

High Quality Experience once in School

In addition to barriers preventing students with disabilities from consistently attending neighbourhood schools, there are multiple challenges for students once in school. Challenges that exist within schools, such as bullying, inaccessible learning materials, a lack of teachers and other educators with requisite specialised

skill sets, can impact the enjoyment, learning, success, and retention of learners with disabilities. In EI's survey, respondents, particularly from African countries, highlighted "poor educational quality" as well as "costs" as major barriers to attendance (EI, 2018).

Teaching methods and training

Once students are able to access schools, some learners may find themselves excluded from classroom teaching and/or unable to fully participate in classroom exercises (Bualar, 2017; Rajovic & Jovanovic, 2013; Watson, 2009; Bennett et al., 2018). Teachers lacking requisite skill sets or classroom supports to address the unique needs of learners with disabilities, may be unwilling, reluctant, or unsure of how to modify their methods and pedagogies to accommodate different impairment-related needs (Damianidou & Phtiaka, 2017). A recent survey by the NASUWT, an EI member organisation in the United Kingdom, shows that:

Teachers try to do their best ... However, they are not always equipped with the knowledge, skills and expertise to meet the needs of learners with SEN/ALN/ASN. Increasing pressures and workloads, including those arising from other education reforms, have consequences for teacher morale, teacher wellbeing and teacher retention (NASUWT, 2018, p. 4).

Despite the rapid increase in the number of employed, generally trained teachers to meet the demand for universal primary education, teachers continue to require supports and training to be able to fully meet the needs of learners with disabilities⁷.

In many parts of the world, teachers receive no or limited training in teaching across abilities or utilizing specialised pedagogies for diverse learners. In post-secondary institutions that teach disability as a subject, teachers have noted that disability-specific modules are frequently short and not comprehensive. Rieser argues that:

Most teachers in developing countries, in particular, get no training on including children and youth with disabilities . If they do get training, it is based on a special education needs model, where the focus is on separating the child from their peers to segregated classes and schools and focussing on what they cannot do from a "medical model" (Rieser, 2015, p. 3).

In EI's (2018) survey, 72.5% of respondents noted that pre-service and in-service education and training provided to teach in inclusive settings is insufficient to meet their professional needs. Where inclusion is integrated in pre-service

⁷ According to the World Bank (2018), there were over 31,315,512 primary teachers in the world in 2016.

teacher training and continuous professional development programmes, respondents suggest that this training is “basic”, “not adequate”, “covered briefly”, or “minimal” (EI, 2018). On average, professional development and training to teach all students in an inclusive classroom is integrated into initial teacher training in early education (42% of 31 respondents), primary (37% of 30 respondents) and secondary education (30% of 27 respondents). Training to teach all students in inclusive classrooms is less evident in TVET (18.5% of 27 respondents) and higher education (12.5% of 24 respondents). 30% of 27 respondents and 37.5% of 24 respondents respectively ‘did not know’ whether classroom inclusiveness was included in teacher training and education in TVET and higher education. At the post-secondary level, there is less understanding of how teachers are trained for inclusive settings and, where data is available, the results suggest fewer teachers are trained in inclusive settings. In the early years, at primary and secondary levels, teachers’ professional development and training for teaching to diverse learners appears to be available through specialised teaching institutions, at the request of a teacher, and through private teacher professional development and training institutions.

Table 4. Topics Covered in Teacher Professional Development and Training on Inclusive Education

	Early Childhood Education	Primary	Secondary	TVET	Higher Education
Instructional Techniques and Skills Building	56% <i>(18 out of 32 respondents)</i>	66% <i>(21 out of 32 respondents)</i>	54% <i>(15 out of 28 respondents)</i>	42% <i>(10 out of 24 respondents)</i>	27% <i>(6 out of 22 respondents)</i>
Class Management Techniques and Skills Building	55% <i>(16 out of 29 respondents)</i>	60% <i>(18 out of 30 respondents)</i>	48% <i>(12 out of 25 respondents)</i>	36% <i>(8 out of 22 respondents)</i>	25% <i>(85 out of 20 respondents)</i>
Changing Attitudes Towards Children with Disabilities	47% <i>(14 out of 30 respondents)</i>	52% <i>(16 out of 31 respondents)</i>	39% <i>(11 out of 28 respondents)</i>	43.5% <i>(10 out of 23 respondents)</i>	30% <i>(6 out of 20 respondents)</i>
Training on Intersectional and/or Multiple Discrimination and its Impact on Bullying	32% <i>(9 out of 28 respondents)</i>	32% <i>(9 out of 28 respondents)</i>	29% <i>(7 out of 24 respondents)</i>	27% <i>(6 out of 22 respondents)</i>	25% <i>(5 out of 20 respondents)</i>
Training on How to Find Information and Support (e.g. Resource Booklets, Websites, Disability Organisations)	27% <i>(8 of 30 respondents)</i>	30% <i>(9 out of 30 respondents)</i>	22% <i>(6 out of 27 respondents)</i>	18% <i>(4 out of 22 respondents)</i>	25% <i>(5 out of 20 respondents)</i>

Note. Adapted from EI survey, 2018.

Often, teachers’ professional development and training in inclusion and special education comes at the teacher’s personal cost, and on his or her own time. The NASUWT noted that a small but significant number of teachers pay for their own professional development. Professional development programmes are often run on weekends and attended on teachers’ own time; furthermore, many schools do not have the funds to support teachers’ professional development (NASUWT, 2018, p. 14).

Moreover, recent research suggests that in North America, teachers' attitudes are as important as their skill levels in accommodating learners with moderate disabilities (Parekh, 2013; Daniels and Porter, 2007). It is the willingness to understand students' needs and experiment with modifying their teacher modalities that supports the move to greater inclusion. This seems even more relevant as teaching skills and understanding of teaching to mixed-ability students evolve rapidly. It is teachers' interest and willingness to practice with new teaching modalities that determines prolonged and sustained success. Reflexive practice and an anti-ableist sensibility rests on the assumption that teachers work in an environment where they are willing, encouraged, and supported to utilize multiple pedagogical techniques and to be lifelong learners themselves. Fostering this kind of environment supports educators and administrators and may help avoid many of the pitfalls and preconceived notions around accommodating difference – namely, that it is an additional burden of time, energy, and skills development imposed upon teachers in an already demanding profession with increasing requirements in terms of technology usage, parent-teacher communication, child emotional issues, and the challenges of increasingly diverse views and backgrounds among students and their parents.

Education support personnel

As pointed out in a variety of research papers, ESPs play a key role as part of the team of educators necessary to adequately support children and youth with disabilities (Bourke & Carrington, 2007; Calder & Grieve, 2004; Giangreco, 2003; Giangreco, Edelman, & Broer, 2001; Sorsby, 2004; Taconis, Van der Plas, & Van der Sanden, 2004; Westwood & Graham, 2003; Wilkins, 2002; Woods, Wyatt Smith, & Elkins 2005).

ESPs are increasingly employed to support students with disabilities in inclusive education settings. However, the availability of ESPs with specialised training to support students with disabilities remains a challenge for many education institutions globally (EI, 2018). Feedback from unions around the world suggests that ESP roles have often developed in an ad-hoc manner. In some countries, for instance, they are not recognised by governments' education sector plans and seldom given a dedicated budget line. According to participants at the world's first global ESP conference ('Making It Possible', 15-16 May, Brussels), ESP frequently do not receive adequate remuneration, nor are sufficiently supported to access professional development, training, and accreditation. As such, ESP may not feel adequately valued for their contributions to fostering inclusive learning environments.

As indicated by EI survey respondents, ESP play diverse roles in education institutions (e.g. teaching assistants, school nurses and psychologists, bursars, bus drivers) and are of particular importance in inclusive learning and teaching environments that cater to the needs of a diverse student body (EI, 2018).

However, education support personnel (ESP) with adequate training to support the needs of students with disabilities are ‘somewhat available’ in classrooms only 29 to 44 percent of the time, and ‘always available’ only 5 to 22 percent of the time, depending on the type of education support personnel, (e.g. occupational therapy, teaching assistants, psychologists, special autism support, behavioural therapists or additional teacher aides) (EI, 2018). One UK union noted that “General feedback from teachers indicates that schools are facing increasing difficulties accessing specialist support. There are often long delays before support can be accessed” (EI, 2018).

While currently little research exists on the roles and professional needs of various ESP roles in educational settings more broadly, there is an increasing body of research that focuses particularly on the role of teacher aides in inclusive education settings (Butler, in press). Research in Australia, for instance, demonstrates that teacher aides are under-supported and are often tasked with performing teaching duties that they have not previously been qualified to perform. Where ESPs were available, children and youth with disabilities – in contrast to children and youth without disabilities – received less instructions from a qualified teacher, and most instruction from an ESP who may lack requisite training, and who often has “no involvement in planning, limited supervision and unclear reporting; and no clear duty statement requirements” (Butt, 2016, p. 995). Bourke (2009) argues that in order to foster the “complex changes in culture needed for inclusive education”, the professional needs of teacher aides in inclusive settings needs to be addressed better, and voice given to teacher aides as well as critical reflection about the collaboration processes between teachers and ESP in inclusive settings. This is urgently needed to support all students in a diverse, whole school/student approach (Carrington & Robinson 2006; Bourke, 2009; Edwards & Nicoll, 2006; Forlin, 2006; Groom, 2006; Timmons, 2006).

Accessible materials

Success for many students, including students with disabilities, often requires modified learning materials that respond to learners’ diverse needs. For blind or low-vision learners, for example, accessible formats could include large print, electronic, or braille versions of documents. Alternatively, materials may be made available in what is called conversion-ready formats, such as electronic or digital formats that are easily converted into accessible formats or information written in HTML and/or Microsoft Word which can be read by a screen reader. What makes materials accessible changes depending on context. Still, it is important to anticipate accommodations and modifications to ensure accessibility and inclusion of diverse learners in inclusive classrooms.

EI union respondents noted that, at best, accessible material is only always available 24-38 percent of the time, depending on the type of measures in place to support students with disabilities’ accommodation needs. Rates increase in the “somewhat accessible” category, particularly for students with hearing, visual

and physical impairments. Availability, however, remains low for neurodiverse and students with sensory needs and/or impairments across all categories of availability (EI, 2018). Table 5 outlines accessible material availability across a few diverse categories:

Table 5. Availability of Accessible Materials in Schools Across Schools Sectors

	Accesible	Somewhat accesible	Not accesible	I don't know	Responses
Blind/Visually impaired	15	20	4	3	42
	36%	48%	9.5%	7%	
Deaf/Hearing impaired	16	18	4	4	42
	38%	43%	9.5%	9.5%	
Physical Impairment	15	17	5	5	42
	36%	40.5%	12%	12%	
Sensory (e.g. sensory processing disodered)	11	14	8	9	42
	26%	33%	19%	21%	
Neurodiverse (e.g. ADHD, autism)	10	13	11	8	42
	24%	31%	26%	19%	

Note. Adapted from: EI survey, 2018.

Part of the challenge is also the limited understanding of what types of support may be available to educators and parents. In some parts of India, for example, neither parents nor teachers are fully aware of the types of assistive aids that are available and/or their potential benefit to learning and everyday life. Moreover, assistive devices and aids may be difficult to access, particularly if there is a cost involved. Assistive devices also tend to be more accessible in urban as opposed to rural areas in India (Limaye, 2016). As technologies improve, new products and devices may provide new benefits, but their rapid evolution can be difficult to track. New technological aides for students with disabilities are constantly coming on to the market. Choosing the most appropriate device or programme for a given student can be a complex choice and often requires the assistance of a professional, such as speech language pathologist or occupational therapist to ensure correct selection and adaptation to the student's needs and profile.

Safety, bullying

Schools can be unsafe places for children and youth with disabilities when the built environment is unsafe or inaccessible, and/or when there is discrimination, violence, and/or bullying in the school environment. Fear of discrimination, bullying, and violence was identified by 51 percent of EI survey respondents as one of the key barriers for children and youth with disabilities to attending education institutions (EI, 2018). This fear of bullying is supported by minimal

research available on school bullying that investigates bullying of students with disabilities. Available data suggests that students with disabilities are more likely to be bullied than students without disabilities (Campbell, 2011; United States Department of Education, 2013). In the United States, prevalence rates of bullying experienced by students with disabilities ranged from 24.5% of students with disabilities in elementary school and 34.1% in middle school (Blake et al, 2012). In Ontario, Canada, 65 percent of parents of children and youth with disabilities say their child has experienced some form of bullying in school (Bennett et al., 2018). Students who are bullied are more likely to have lower academic achievement and aspirations, and suffer from alienation, loneliness and depression (United States Department of Education, 2013). Further, a 2017 systematic review on bullying of children with and without chronic physical illness and/or physical/sensory disabilities found that children with physical illness, disabilities, and/or sensory disabilities were likely to experience more bullying than children without physical illness, disabilities, and/or sensory disabilities. In particular, children with physical or sensory disabilities and/or physical illness were more likely to be victims of physical bullying, relational bullying (social exclusion), or verbal bullying (Pinquart, 2017). Emerging studies that are exploring the role of educational placement and/or disability status (impairment type), for example, Rose, et al. (2015) study, underscore the importance of examining implications of intersectionality in bullying experiences and contexts. The Rose, et al. (2015) study demonstrated that while students with disabilities were more likely to experience bullying overall, students with learning disabilities and autism spectrum disorder were more likely to experience bullying in inclusive school environments while students with intellectual disabilities and emotional and behavioural disorders were more likely to experience bullying in segregated environments. Accordingly, this emergent research points to broader needs to identify, protect, and proactively prevent bullying in school environments for students with disabilities, and to potentially amplify such protections for students who are at greatest risk of bullying.

In the EI survey, respondents were asked about national or regional bullying policies and practices for managing bullying (EI, 2018). Bullying policies were not in place in most countries of respondent union affiliates and, even where policies were in place, the way bullying was managed largely depended on the training and capacity of individual schools dealing with the bullying incident. Thirty-six percent of 44 respondents to this question answered that they had anti-bullying policies and programmes integrated into school programmes. Thirty-two percent of unions indicated that their countries had such policies in place sometimes, but they were never in place in 14% of cases and 18% did not know if anti-bullying programmes were in place. (EI, 2018). In-service teacher professional development and training for anti-bullying was equally varied. Even

in cases where anti-bullying measures were in place, gaps in the programming and reporting left discretion to individual schools. One survey respondent noted:

What should happen and what happens in practice differs. Also, there are issues about how much training is provided. For example, anti-bullying is likely to get very brief coverage in ITT [Initial Teacher Training]. Schools determine what training is provided to staff. Teachers and, in particular, support staff, may struggle to access training and continued professional development. Bullying would be picked up as a safeguarding issue in school inspections which means that schools will have policies and procedures in place. Most schools will also cover bullying and anti-bullying in the curriculum. However, arrangements and reporting mechanisms may differ – there is no national system for reporting and it is for individual schools to determine whether or how the issue is addressed through the curriculum (EI, 2018).

Bullying entails a show of imbalance of strength or power, and those being bullied are more likely to involve themselves in self-destructive behaviour (Brown, Birch and Kancherla, 2005). All of this burden on learners with disabilities is layered on top of the many other challenges they may face in accessing schools. Too often, bullying behaviour and/or the continued exclusion of youth with disabilities has been normalised by adults involved in the child's life. In some cases, and especially in settings where children and youth with disabilities experience discrimination, parents and teachers are more likely to understand a child's exclusion as 'something the child should get used to' or come to consider 'normal' (Contact a Family, 2010; Price, 2009). As a result of the normalisation and/or internalisation of social and institutional discrimination, parents and teachers may hesitate to take steps to put an end to the bullying, face barriers in doing so, or be confused as to the appropriate ways to confront these complex issues and steps required to address and end bullying in schools.

Systems, policies, and government

Centralised v decentralised education

Rigid, centralised school systems can present barriers to inclusive education (Murphy, 2015). Centralised school administrations typically function through high-level policies and compliance measures that ensure each school complies with centralised guidelines and systems. Though compliance and control measures establish uniformity across a country, state, or province, they may not necessarily yield quality educational environments. Senior managers who impose checks and balance measures may be removed from classroom realities

(Murphy, 2015) and centralised decision-making may not adequately reflect local particularities. That is why the Education for All (EFA) initiative emphasised the importance of more participatory and decentralised decision-making and monitoring. Yet, as discussed in EI's review of education systems at the end of the EFA era, according to teachers, decentralisation measures were largely detrimental to the provision of equitable and quality education for all:

[...] governments missed the opportunity to put in place effective plans to decentralise education: there are problems with lack of clarity on roles and responsibilities; there were insufficient efforts to build capacity at district/province and local level; financial and technical support is too little and often too late; administrators at local level are mostly political appointments and they lack the skills to put in place a more flexible education system. Moreover, few governments undertake audits or have an overview of the materials and planning needs of education systems, and as such funding is often based on guesswork (EI, 2015, p. 27).

As a result, it is important to find the balance that ensures that quality education for all is guaranteed through centralised oversight, but also that there is sufficient autonomy at other levels - especially at the classroom level - to reinforce equity, quality, and inclusion.

Standardisation

The drive towards standardising schools, standardising testing, and rigid curriculum implementation leaves little room for classroom teachers and administrators to innovate in the classroom (Biesta, 2009). Performance under this rubric is for example, not measured by how well students who struggle perform, or how effectively the class learns to work together as peers in the learning process.

Standardised testing as a measure of school success places emphasis on individual learning and individual success. Inclusion emphasises students as individual learners, but also asks individual learners to participate in co-learning and co-sharing with peers. Inclusive education moves away from individual learners being ranked and rated against each other, and instead privileges all students learning together across difference and rates of learning. A number of respondents in EI's survey raised concerns with mandatory standardised assessments are often detrimental to inclusion, as children and youth with disabilities are frequently excluded from participating in them (EI, 2018).

In EI's (2018) global survey, affiliates indicated that curricula are increasingly flexible and student-centred in public schools. However, in some private schools, for instance, in Bridge International Academies' low-fee private schools teachers

read scripted lessons from a tablet and may lack the professional autonomy to make adjustments to meet the needs of a diverse student body (Riep & Machacek, 2016).

Privatisation/commercialisation

The increasing trend and pressure to privatise and commercialise education may also threaten the movement to expand inclusive education. According to Rieser (2015):

[When] education services are viewed as a means of profit, rather than a public good, then those who are seen as difficult or different from the norm will become an inconvenient truth ... As the currency of the market becomes standardised test scores, those who achieve differently or at a different pace will be squeezed out and old models of segregation will re-assert themselves (p. 10).

The costs of attending private schools can be 15 times higher than attending public schools, making these schools inaccessible for students from lower socio-economic families (British Council, 2014). In South Africa, a recent study conducted by Human Rights Watch found that often families with children and youth with disabilities are financially disadvantaged due to school fees and other costs not covered by social protection schemes (Martinez, 2015). Yet, the infrastructure in these schools can be poor. Low-fee private schools, for instance, often lack adequate infrastructure including poor roads to schools, little plumbing and unstable supply of electricity (Taylor, 2017). With school models based on cost reduction, schools typically aim to reduce their fixed costs such as the cost of aides that support the needs of students with disabilities (Peeples, 2017).

Funding, funding, funding

Inclusion can be expensive. While inclusive education is an important philosophical concept in ensuring equal and equitable access to an education for students with disabilities, its realization and implementation requires sustained additional funding to build and deliver enhanced and modified infrastructures, materials, pre- and in-service educator training, and student supports. Renovating schools, building ramps, widening doorways, and providing safe and accessible toileting facilities are expensive projects. So too is the ongoing cost of lowering classroom teacher-pupil ratios by hiring more educators and providing ongoing teacher and ESP professional development and training.

EI survey respondents consistently highlighted budgets and funding issues (amount, allocation, and lack of funding) as barriers to creating more inclusive classrooms (EI, 2018). Some of these costs can be offset by redirecting resources from segregated schools to inclusive schools. Whatever the solution, adequate,

increased, and sustainable funding is essential to supporting and expanding inclusive educational classrooms and schools.

Issues of inadequate funding for inclusive education are typically driven by underlying funding allocation and formulae. Governmental allocations and formulae for inclusive education may fail to properly allocate funds for education support personnel, student support materials, professional learning and development training needs, and other funding needs inherent in an inclusive education model. For example, some EI survey respondents noted that schools are allocated additional funds for children or youth with disabilities on an individual basis (EI, 2018). These funds may then be transferred directly to the school where administrators use their discretion to manage funds accordingly. In some countries, individual schools manage their own budgets, and increases in disability funding may not translate into increased services and supports students with disabilities. The individuals who manage school and/or school board budgets, therefore, also need to fully understand and account for inclusive education funding needs. Respondents, in particular, noted inadequate funding support for teachers' professional development and training, access to specialists and teacher support, teaching materials, access and attendance, and infrastructure accommodations (EI, 2018). Furthermore, 7 out of 36 respondents noted that funding allocations for inclusive education have decreased despite increased demand for spending needs related to inclusive education (EI, 2018). Increased and improved funding formulae and related mechanisms are noted as solutions in various segments of the survey.

Stakeholder consultation

Teachers, ESP, education stakeholders and organisations of persons with disabilities need to be actively involved and consulted on policy development and implementation through social dialogue and other consultation processes. As our global survey has shown, education unions are too often not involved in the development of inclusive policies and practices. Funding inadequacies, antiquated government policies and practices, and stagnating progress on achieving the right to inclusive education can be reversed when persons with disabilities, as well as education stakeholders are meaningfully involved (EI & Principe, 2018). In Morocco, the national teachers' union, Syndicat national de l'enseignement-Fédération démocratique du travail (SNE-FDT), found that low vision limits school success and can have the effect of driving young people into exploitative labour (Annex A). They have since engaged in lobbying the government to provide glasses to children which has increased school attendance and student success. The SNE-FDT also advocates extensively on issues related to mobility and hearing-related challenges in schools (Annex A).

Making the Shift Towards Inclusive Education

Global and nationally based movements of persons with disabilities, activists, parents of children and youth with disabilities, scholars, and designers of international legal frameworks have evolved with a specific agenda for expanding national implementation of inclusive education. For example, in Australia, the “All Means All” initiative, and the Canadian Association for Community Living and Inclusive Education Canada, are national movements demanding expansion of inclusive education and attendant supports and funding for inclusive education and students with disabilities. These movements and initiatives draw upon extensive research affirming the benefits of the inclusive education model for both students with and without disabilities. A 2016 commissioned report by Instituto Alana (Hehir, 2016) summarizing the peer-reviewed evidence on inclusive education enumerates the evidence-based benefits of inclusive education models for students without disabilities, and in particular, significant social and emotional development and maturity effects as well as positive academic effects (Hehir, 2016). The latter finding counters some presumptions that students with disabilities may “pull down” students without disabilities in inclusive classrooms. Conversely, inclusive classrooms foster student collaboration and support. Where academic effects are pronounced are rather in a “pull-up” effect for students with disabilities in an inclusive setting; students without disabilities in inclusive settings often yield positive peer effects, including academic and social modelling and supports (Hehir, 2016).

Making the shift towards inclusion requires will, political and otherwise, as well as positive attitudinal change. It will require creating more accessible physical and environmental spaces for learners, teachers, and ESP with disabilities at all levels of education. Ultimately, it requires structural change from a competitive to a collaborative child-centred system. This means that excellence in the classroom is defined or viewed as an issue of not individual achievement, but one of collaborative, classroom, or whole-school achievement. And it will require teachers and ESP who are trained to support different learning needs in individuals in the education institution.

Walker (2013), Parekh (2013), Porter and AuCoin (2012), Porter (2015), and Rieser (2012) all note that in order to effectively move towards inclusive education, changes in attitudes and discrimination against disability must accompany the formal, legislative, and capacity development channels.

This extensive list of barriers to overcome in implementing inclusive education as discussed above may seem overwhelming. Porter (2015) suggests that shifting systems as large and institutional as school boards takes approximately three to five years. Furthermore, the process requires changes to be supported and reinforced at the macro, meso and micro levels. This means change within classrooms and schools, but also within teachers’ unions, school boards, teaching

institutions, and higher-level government policy and decision-making.

Given the many tasks at hand, the various different starting points, and the diverse contexts inhabited by many schools and school boards, the first step will be different for every teacher, school and teachers' union. What is important is that the first step is taken, and plans developed on how to get started on the road to inclusion. Education unions must begin with what is possible in their particular contexts and look to others in similar contexts for successes and strategies that have proven effective and sustainable.

Recommendations for Teachers and Education Unions

Teachers' unions are in the unique position of working with varied levels of government and ministries, as well as within their own organisations, and with teachers in the classroom. Unions are well versed in advocating for large-scale change. They are skilled human and workers' rights advocates. Moreover, unions are themselves large organisations with the potential to create substantive change within their organisations that extends to their members. As such, this report recommends three streams for future action: (a) working with government on policy and funding change, (b) developing appropriate forward-looking union policies on disability (including supporting teachers and ESP with disabilities), and (c) advocating for greater support for educators and union members.

Social Dialogue with Governments and Education Ministries

Education union members implement education policies and practices daily, and are necessarily invested in government policy development, implementation and the funding required to support such policies. It is in teachers' and ESP's interests to have supportive and effective guidelines, standards, and support for inclusive education. While policies in and of themselves may not change practice in the short term, they do set the tone, direction, and vision for education at the national level.

Social dialogue is an important mechanism for creating connections between concerned parties and advocating for supportive and fair working conditions (Ghai, 2003). A recent ILO study on disability and the role of unions argues that social dialogue is "one of the most transformative elements of work on disability [...] both inside and externally to trade unions" (Fremlin, 2017, p. 15). The Tanzanian Teachers' Union, for instance, has gone through an internal transformation by recruiting an experienced teacher with a disability to head its disability department (Annex A). This individual coordinates workshops and programmes for members with disabilities to support and educate them about their rights. The union is also in dialogue with government officials to raise awareness for the concerns of workers with disabilities and this is actively shaping inclusive policies (Annex A).

Government policy development must be accompanied by increased funding and resource allocation to support policy aims and directives. Increased funding can enable hiring and/or in-service training of teachers, hiring and/or training of ESPs and other specialists within schools. Increased funding can also allow for infrastructure renovations and modifications and increased supply of accessible learning materials. Moreover, increased funding geared towards reducing classroom sizes and increasing teacher preparation and planning time, helps support teachers to deliver quality inclusive education. Finally, prioritising funds to ensure all students have an equal opportunity to quality education indicates a shift in attitude and political will across administrations and government decision-makers. Thus, lobbying and advocating for increased, adequate, and sustainable funding and resources is paramount to advancing attitudinal and practical transformations in delivering quality inclusive education.

Union policies

School and education policies are one way of recognising the participation and importance of persons with disabilities across education. School or school board-based policies and/or governmental policies from Departments of Education that affirm students' rights to inclusive educational settings are critical to building and expanding the attitudinal, financial, and physical/structural needs of inclusive schools. Policy frameworks that explicate the rights of students and the attendant financial, structural, training, support, and other related needs to deliver quality inclusive education will help advance both the quality of inclusive education and the attitudinal underpinnings of this model.

Seventeen unions that responded to the EI survey have a policy on inclusive education for children and youth with disabilities, while the remaining 51 percent did not (EI, 2018).

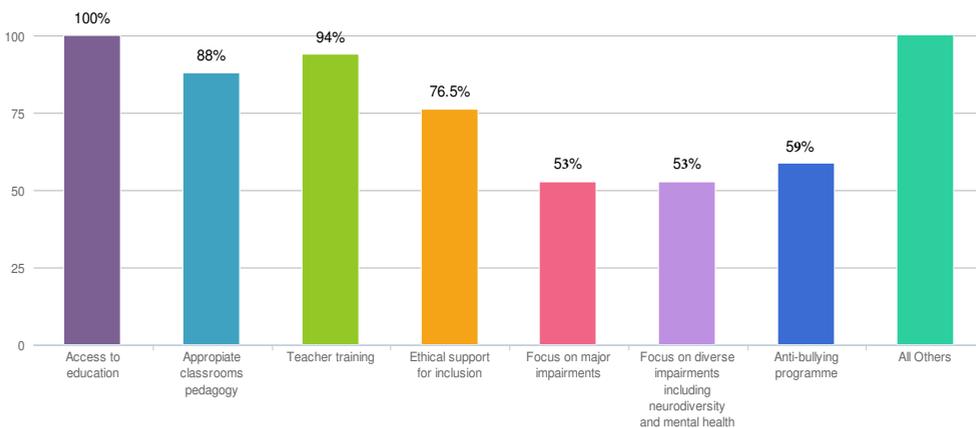


Figure 2. Areas addressed by union disability policies.

Note: Adapted from EI survey, 2018.

Where unions did not have policies, the reasons varied. Some union representatives felt their union focus was on professional matters that related to teachers and education personnel, whereas others did not have the information to respond to the question. In two cases, respondents felt that their unions' overall regulations and policies implicitly included disability (EI, 2018).

Unions with policies in place focused on access to education (100 percent), teacher professional development and training (94 percent), appropriate classroom pedagogies (88 percent), ESP (82 percent), and ethical support for inclusion (76.5 percent). Where unions had policies in place, 71 percent of the policies included a variety of identified disabilities including neurodiversities and sensory disabilities. Less than half of the union policies identified the need for a national standard or the intersection of disability with other potentially marginalised identity categories (EI, 2018).

Support teachers and ESPs with disabilities

Union policies should articulate their vision for disability, inclusion, and education externally as well as internally. Internally, this vision can include increased support for teachers and ESPs and working at all levels of education – from early childhood education to higher education. Incentives can be offered to increase opportunities and visibility for them. Teachers and ESPs with disabilities have the lived experience of disability and can act as role models, reinforcing that students with disabilities have economic and life opportunities that mirror their peers. In addition to their individual teaching skills and talents, an increase in the presence of teachers, researchers and ESPs with disabilities also dispels commonly held stereotypes among parents and community members. Teachers and ESPs with disabilities can change community perceptions about what is possible for children and youth with disabilities. In the same way that inclusive education buildings and structures must accommodate student needs, schools must also be accessible to education professionals with disabilities.

In areas of conflict, for example, unions may see an increased role for teachers and ESPs who have acquired a temporary or permanent disability at some point in their careers.

Moreover, members with disabilities can play a crucial role in designing and implementing union policies on disability and collaborate with disability organisations. For example, the Tanzania Teachers' Union recruited an experienced, teacher with a visual impairment to head its disability department, founded in 2009. This department has successfully sensitised colleagues to the needs of teachers with disabilities, and has advanced opportunities for teachers with disabilities, while it advocates for resource increases for fundamental inclusion tools such as accessible-format documents, assistive devices, and mobility aids. In Japan, the 280,000-member Nikkyoso teachers' union engaged in advocacy to move the employment rate of

persons with disabilities within the teaching profession from the current 0.9 percent to at least the 2.1 percent government-set quota for employment in the civil service.

To support teachers and ESPs with disabilities, at a minimum, unions should:

- create policies and programmes to support persons with disabilities to apply for positions in education institutions. This means encouraging and working with teaching institutions to recruit and retain disabled candidates;
- ensure adequate accommodations for teachers and ESPs with disabilities;
- update union policies or guidelines to support promotion and retention of teachers and ESPs with disabilities.

Greater support for educators

Teachers have meaningful and important impacts on school experiences for learners. Many of the recommendations for the implementation of quality inclusive education hinge upon adequate pre- and in-service training and supportive working conditions (preparation time, collaboration with specialists and related teams, smaller class sizes, health and safety planning for student behavioural needs, etc.) for teachers and ESPs. Unions and education advocates have a critical role to play in advocating and/or bargaining for these essential training and support needs and working conditions.

In a nutshell, conditions supporting teachers in inclusive teaching models include:

- smaller class sizes;
- classroom layout and setups that allow for accessible, flexible teaching;
- informed administrative support;
- informed, collaborative teaching teams and resource support;
- adequate preparation and evaluation time;
- adequate pay and incentive structure.

Support and advocacy for teacher training and professional development

Much of the research suggests that providing teachers and other educators with adequate and appropriate pre- and in-service training and/or professional development can positively transform inclusive classrooms and experiences for students with and without disabilities. Accordingly, unions should continue to advocate for expanded quality in-service training opportunities, and ongoing professional skills development for in-service and pre-service teachers. This may include impairment-specific or pedagogical skills training for both pre- and in-service teachers, as well training in inclusion and anti-ableist discrimination. There is compelling research that suggests that attitude, reflexive practice, flexible teaching practices, and openness are equally critical factors for successful inclusion in the classroom. Pre-service and in-service training opportunities that explore and address the roots of ableism and discrimination toward persons

with disabilities should be made available, if not mandatory, in pre-service teacher and education support personnel training.

Support relevant training and professional development for ESP

In inclusive learning and teaching environments, teachers often rely on the availability of appropriately trained and qualified ESP. These individuals play a central role in supporting teachers and learners. There should also be careful consideration of how ESPs can best contribute to quality, inclusive, and collaborative teaching and learning environments - ESPs should be included in consultations as their professional experiences and needs are integral to establishing and sustaining inclusive education settings.

Smaller class sizes

Teachers need smaller class sizes in order to be able to teach to every student. In a classroom of diverse learners that may benefit from diverse and multiple teaching strategies, teachers require more time with each student. Teaching to 35 diverse learners is significantly more challenging and complex than teaching to 16 diverse students. In smaller classrooms, teachers have the time to more adequately address the learning needs of different learners. Classroom materials and technologies are useful, but they cannot replace the value of a skilled teacher available to all her/his students.

Collaborative teaching teams

Teaching teams draw on the diverse skill levels and experiences of a team of teachers with different strengths, levels of training and experience. Typically, team teaching draws on the teacher resources that already exist in a school setting. What changes, when moving to a team-teaching model, is the allocation of students and time to each teacher. Collaborative teaching teams may include a teacher who was previously a special education resource teacher. S/he may support her fellow teachers in learning differentiated and specialised instruction techniques, and/or may teach using these techniques to the general classroom. Collaborative teaching teams also build the capacity of the team through mutual learning and support, and possibly lower workloads, thus allowing teachers more time to develop differentiated materials and evaluation methods⁸.

As indicated previously, to enhance inclusion we need to ensure the availability of appropriately trained education support personnel in education institutions. Therefore, successful collaboration also includes a careful consideration of how ESPs in inclusive education institutions can be integrated in collaborative teaching approaches to support equitable quality teaching and learning for all. It is essential to ensure that all children and youth learn together and are taught by a qualified teacher and supported by other personnel as the roles of teachers and ESP are complementary and interdependent (Blatchford et al., 2009).

⁸ For additional resources on Collaborative and Co-teaching, see Annex B.

Adequate evaluation and preparation time

Working with diverse learners in a collaborative team means that teachers require more time to prepare lesson plans, and review and evaluate work. Preparing materials to accommodate different learning styles (presenting smaller volumes of material for students who can better integrate learning with smaller amounts of information, preparing tests that are tailored to students' learning range and reach, or ensuring materials are available in braille, for example) requires increased preparation time. Developing student-centred, appropriate assessment tools also takes time, as tests cannot be copied from textbook guides, or copied from year to year. Differentiated assessments require the development and use of more nuanced rubrics for evaluation. Preparation time can include team preparation time, where teachers reflect on and discuss the various approaches to teaching and evaluating learners in one particular group and additional time with parents who best understand their children's needs. This has the benefit of building peer-to-peer support and supporting teacher capacity while providing differentiated learning for the students.

Adequate pay and incentive structures

As demands on teachers increase, incentive structures should mirror increased demand, salary and benefits structures. EI and national teachers' unions have a significant role to play in advocating for improved working conditions to support instructional shifts in strategies in the classroom. As teachers' skills and responsibilities increase, so too should their compensation.

Final Thoughts

Teaching in the 21st century means teaching to a student population that is more diverse, in terms of the range of abilities and genders, than any in history. Successful inclusion can be achieved through the efforts of government, teachers, ESP, and unions. Teachers and ESPs require expanded opportunities for quality professional development and training on inclusive education approaches and pedagogies. Governments must allocate adequate, equitable, and sustainable funding that fully covers the real costs of inclusive education. And unions must continue to oppose and expose government decisions to reduce or underfund inclusive education. Unions must engage as partners in solidarity with persons with disabilities and work social movements, activists, and advocates in advancing the rights of children and youth with disabilities. Rieser (2015) comprehensively summarises what is at stake in rethinking disability and education:

The reality is that persons with disabilities with all types and degrees of impairment have made a huge contribution to human development in all areas of life. How much more can be achieved for humanity if the barriers and prejudices against persons with disabilities are systematically addressed at every level - class, school, district, region, national and internationally. In the process of achieving our inclusion as persons with disabilities, the education system will be improved for all those currently underachieving or excluded (p. 3).

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Annex A

This next section draws on examples and resources to highlight effective teaching practice and building environments and supports to enable more inclusive teaching that have been sourced primarily through personal communications. Effective practices and change, however, are very context specific. As such, this is a sampling of some of the success stories and successful practices in inclusive teaching practices across the globe.

Tanzania: Supporting Teachers with Disabilities and Changing Attitudes on Disability



Increasingly, both learners with disabilities and those without study alongside each other in public schools in Tanzania.

In 2009, Tanzania embarked on a nationwide implementation strategy of inclusion and inclusive schools. The National Strategy on Inclusive Education (2009- 2017) defines inclusive education as:

... a system of education in which all children, youths and adults are enrolled, actively participate and achieve in regular schools and other educational programmes regardless of their diverse backgrounds and abilities, without discrimination, through minimisation of barriers and maximisation of resources (Tanzania Ministry of Education and Vocational Training, 2009, p. 2).

The National Strategy's goal is that "all children, youth and adults in Tanzania have equitable access to quality education in inclusive settings" (Tanzania Ministry of Education and Vocational Training, 2009, p. 21)



In 2009, the TTU hired an experienced disability activist and educator, Peter Mlimahadala, to lead the newly created Department of Teachers with Disabilities. The department established ambitious goals including, but not limited to, creating public awareness on the rights and talents of teachers with disabilities, promoting inclusive education and better preparing teachers for working with disability in classrooms, and increasing public support to retired teachers with disabilities. By 2014, the TTU had 3,228 members with disabilities.

According to Peter Mlimahadala, head of the disability department of the Tanzania Teachers' Union (TTU), "In Tanzania, learners with disabilities are side by side with their non-disabled counterparts by side with their non-disabled counterparts" (P. Mlimahadala, personal communication, January 19, 2018). Only a few private, charity based, segregated schools continue to teach to pupils with specific disabilities such as low vision or hearing impairments.

In 2015, the department planned a teacher professional development and awareness raising session to promote disability rights and create a deepened understanding of the CRPD for union members with disabilities in the southern provinces of Tanzania, Lindi, and Mtwara. Many worked in rural locations and had limited access to information on their rights as persons with disabilities and workers with disabilities. The TTU department invited local leaders and education stakeholders to participate alongside teachers.

The workshop also deeply changed local leaders' and educational decision makers' perspectives on disability and inclusion in schools and classrooms. Within one year, the Lindi and Mtwara governments had set aside budgets for inclusion and accessibility within education. Two schools undertook renovations to the lavatory facilities to create more accessible toilets, and another undertook a redesign of desks to ensure they were appropriate for all learners.

Tanzania: Implementing inclusive education.

The Tanzanian government is making some progress towards building more inclusive schools (P. Mlimahadala, personal communication, January 19, 2018), and the TTU has played an active role in this transition to inclusion. Mlimahadala identifies the following factors as motivating the success of the implementation to date:

Awareness raising

The TTU hosts disability awareness events. These events invite and work alongside relevant stakeholders such as the media, education stakeholders, and Members of Parliament. Each event broadens the scope of people with interest and experience in working with children and youth with disabilities and deepens positive understanding of disability and its potential in school and community.

Strong support from authorities on the implementation of the National Strategy on Inclusive Education 2009 – 2017

Education and other government authorities continue to work to monitor and strengthen the National strategy. As a result of some challenges with implementation, authorities have assigned staff to ensure that inclusive education is supervised and strengthened. School attendance of learners with disabilities is slowly improving. With strong support, some schools (Lugalo Secondary School in Iringa Region, Salvation Army Primary School in Dar es Salaam, Uhuru Mchanganyiko Primary School in Dar es Salaam, Mugeza Primary and Secondary School in Kagera region) have met all the necessary conditions for inclusive and accessible schooling despite often difficult circumstances.

Supporting a champion within government

The Minister for Education, Science and Technology, Honourable Joyce Ndalichako, is a champion of disability rights and inclusion in education. Her deep understanding of disability rights and her insistence on rethinking disability in education programmes implemented by the Ministry has prompted government action such as the purchase of specialised equipment such as braille machines, braille embosser, hearing aids, and so forth.

Indirect-to-direct teaching model

Finally, Tanzania is also implementing an indirect-to-direct teaching model. A growing number of teachers have pursued courses in inclusive education and are posted to schools that practice inclusive education. There remains, however, a shortage of teachers with requisite training in specialised pedagogical and related practices teaching to inclusive classrooms. Thus, to support skill growth across the profession, experienced inclusive education teachers are employed as consultants or mentors within schools and advise school administration on issues of accessibility, physical and structural barriers, and help plan and design accessible environments for learners with disabilities. They also advise administrators on purchasing of assistive devices and specialised equipment for supporting learners with disabilities within schools.

New Zealand: Online Inclusive Guide



Teacher aide Ally Kemplen works with Damien at Newton Central School in Auckland, New Zealand. Newton Central School is an urban, mainstream, public school.

In New Zealand, the government makes continued teacher learning accessible and available through its online Inclusive Education Guide for Schools.

In an effort to reduce the barriers to continuing teacher education, the New Zealand Ministry of Education developed a website, <http://inclusive.tki.org.nz/>, to provide educators with “practical strategies, suggestions and resources to support the diverse needs of all learners” (para. 1). The Inclusive Education Guide website is a comprehensive resource that covers a wide range of challenges that may present in implementing and delivering quality inclusive education. The Guide also offers strategies and insight from the perspective of learners, educators, and best practices. The 27 guides cover topics including: autism spectrum disorder and learning, Down syndrome and learning, behaviour and learning, low vision and learning, and developing an inclusive classroom. Strategies are further broken down by scope, targeting both schoolwide leadership, transitions, LGBTQI, and learning-support teams, or classroom specific strategies: assessment, removing barriers to learning, behaviour, and technologies to name a few. Guides and resources are further broken down by age range and specific to either Years 1-6 or Years 7-13.

There are also guides intended to deepen educators’ understanding of specific disabilities. Resources are presented visually, through video and audio and with extensive cross-referencing. Each web guide refers readers to other potentially relevant guides.

The website also outlines the Ministry’s expectations on classroom accessibility and provides educators with self-assessment tools.

This comprehensive website provides educators with excellent resources to support their classroom and school-wide practices. It is an instructive example of a quality resource that supports and encourages continuous skills development for teachers, and is provided at a low cost. Teachers with sufficient planning

time (to browse the resources) and leadership support (to implement changes) will find this a valuable addition to their practice and skills development. These resources may be of value to educators globally as the suggestions are not location-specific.

Morocco: Role of low vision



School children in Morocco receive prescription glasses with the support of unions SNE-FDT and AOB to help reduce dropout rates caused by low-vision.

In Morocco, the national teachers' union, the Syndicat national de l'enseignement-Fédération démocratique du travail (SNE-FDT), has made the connection between low vision and the role it plays in limiting educational achievement and increasing vulnerability of youth in moving into low-wage exploitative labour.

In 2000, 600,000 primary students dropped out of Moroccan schools, and moved into exploitative factory work with low-wage, precarious, and poor working conditions (Hamida, 2017). The SNE-FDT, in partnership with the Dutch education union, Algemene Onderwijsbond (AOB), conducted a study on the causal factors causes of school drop-outs and the relationship to child labour. The findings showed that many students with high absenteeism or dropout rates also had poor vision and few assistive devices to support their vision loss (Hamida, 2017).

A field study completed with AOB led to the development of a pilot programme in partnership with the National Education Union (SNE-FDT) in Fez (2004-2007). The goal was to reduce drop-outs in five primary schools, retain students in the pursuit of their studies, and to raise awareness among their parents about the risks of child labour. (Hamida, 2017, para. 4).

The pilot programme responded to the students' need for glasses and supported teachers to develop more inclusive practices in their classrooms to support students with low vision and related impairments. In the first year, the programme distributed over 311 pairs of glasses to grade-school students in five Fez-based schools. After four years, school drop-out rates decreased by more than 80 percent (Hamida, 2017).

This programme expanded to nine schools in Fez, Meknes, Larache, El Jadida, and Marrakech (2009-2012). Approximately 2,320 pairs of prescription glasses were distributed and again teachers were supported in creating more child-friendly classrooms. Over the course of three years, the drop-out rate went from 7,790 to 676 students. In Safi, from 2013-2015, 2,800 pairs of glasses were distributed to students in 200 schools. The result was a zero drop-out rate in the following year. Forty-five boys and girls returned to school as a result of being able to have better vision (Hamida, 2017).

Since the beginning of the project, more than 8,000 pairs of glasses have been distributed, and, importantly, alongside this distribution, the union has continued lobbying the government to divert additional attention and resources to student needs.

For union members, this project has raised awareness about what is possible. As Hamida said:

There is greater momentum, and a sense that change is possible. And in this same way, it has started to change perceptions around disability. Union members have realised that, sometimes, things are not what they appear, and not to make assumptions. (N. Hamida, personal communication, January 18, 2018).

The SNE-FDT is now lobbying the government around mobility and hearing-related challenges in school. The union is lobbying the Ministry of Education and the Women's Ministry to fund full accessibility projects by creating a model barrier-free classroom.

ANNEX B

Africa	
Organisation	Country
SYNTESPRIC: Syndicat des Travailleurs des Etablissements Scolaires Privés du Cameroun	Cameroon
FENECO-UNTC: Fédération nationale des enseignants du Congo	Democratic Republic of the Congo
KNUT: Kenya National Union of Teachers	Kenya
CETO: Comité des enseignants techniques officiels	Lebanon
PSEUM: Private Schools Employees Union of Malawi	Malawi
SNEB: Syndicat National des Enseignants de Base	Niger
SYNAFEN: Syndicat National des Agents de la Formation et de l'Education du Niger	Niger
SNEEL-CNTS: Syndicat National de l'Enseignement Élémentaire	Senegal
TTU: Tanzania Teachers' Union	Tanzania
UNATU: Uganda National Teachers Union	Uganda
ZNUT: Zambia National Union of Teachers	Zambia
Asia-Pacific	
Organisation	Country
AEU: Australian Education Union	Australia
FTU: Fiji Teachers' Union	Fiji
AIPTF: All India Primary Teachers Federation	India
JTU(NIKKYOSO): Japan Teachers' Union	Japan
KTU: Jeon Gyojo (Korean Teachers and Education Workers Union)	Korea
NZEI Te Riu Roa: New Zealand Educational Institute - Te Riu Roa	New Zealand
COT: Central Organization of Teachers	Pakistan
PNGTA: Papua New Guinea Teachers' Association	Papua New Guinea
ACT: Alliance of Concerned Teachers	Philippines
TOPPS: Teachers' Organisation of the Philippine Public Sector	Philippines
USLTS: Union of Sri Lanka Teachers Solidarity	Sri Lanka
NTA: National Teachers Association	Taiwan

Europe

Organisation	Country
CRSTESA: Branch Republican Union of Trade Union Organizations Workers of Education and Science of Armenia	Armenia
COV: Christelijk Onderwijzersverbond	Belgium
SLFP-Enseignement: Syndicat Libre de la Fonction Publique	Belgium
SEB: Syndicat des Enseignants Bulgares	Bulgaria
KTOS: Cyprus Turkish Teachers' Trade Union	Cyprus
DLF: Danish Union of Teachers	Denmark
GL: Gymnasieskolernes Laererforening	Denmark
BUPL: Danish National Federation of Early Childhood and Youth Educators	Denmark
OAJ: Opetusalan Ammattijärjestö	Finland
SNUipp-FSU: Syndicat national unitaire des instituteurs, professeurs des écoles et PEGC	France
GEW: Gewerkschaft Erziehung und Wissenschaft	Germany
OLME: Greek Federation of Secondary Education State School Teachers	Greece
PSZ-SEHUN: Hungarian National College of Teachers	Hungary
INTO: Irish National Teachers' Organisation	Ireland
FLESTU: Federation of Lithuanian Education and Science Trade Unions	Lithuania
MUT: Malta Union of Teachers	Malta
UEN: Utdanningsforbundet	Norway
STEs INTERSINDICAL: Confederación de Sindicatos de Trabajadores y Trabajadores de la Enseñanza – Intersindical	Spain
EIS: Educational Institute of Scotland	United Kingdom
NASUWT - The Teachers' Union: National Association of School Masters Union of Women Teachers	United Kingdom

North America

Organisation	Country
CSQ : Centrale des syndicats du Québec	Canada
CTF/FCE : Canadian Teachers' Federation/Fédération canadienne des enseignantes et des enseignants	Canada
SNTE: Sindicato Nacional de Trabajadores de la Educación	Mexico
NEA: National Education Association	United States of America

Latin America

Organisation	Country
FECODE: Federación Colombiana de Educadores	Colombia
ANDE: Asociación Nacional de Educadores	Costa Rica
CGTEN-ANDEN: Confederación General de Trabajadores de la Educación de Nicaragua	Nicaragua



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Rethinking Disability: A Primer for Educators and Education Unions

Tania Principe
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Education International
Internationale de l'Éducation
Internacional de la Educación
Bildungsinternationale

Head office

5 bd du Roi Albert II
1210 Brussels, Belgium
Tel +32-2 224 0611
headoffice@ei-ie.org

www.ei-ie.org
#unite4ed

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Cover picture: John McRae/NZEI Te Riu Roa. Teacher aide Ally Kemplen works with Damien at Newton Central School in Auckland, New Zealand. Newton Central School is an urban, mainstream, public school.