Inclusive Education in Uganda

Examples of best practice

Uganda Society for Disabled Children

USDC

Enable-Ed

EVALUATE . LEARN . DEVELOP

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Abbreviations

C2C	Child to Child Methodology
CBR	Community-Based Rehabilitation
CPD	Continuing Professional Development
CwD	Child/children with disability
CwoD	Child without disability
DANIDA	Danish Agency for Development
DEO	District Education Office
DSI	District Schools Inspector
ECD	Early Childhood Development
FENU	Forum for Education NGOS in Uganda
GEC	Girls Education Challenge Fund
IE	Inclusive Education
KCCA	Kampala Capital City Authority
LSA	Learning support assistant
MDG	Millennium Development Goals
MoES	Ministry of Education Sports
MSI	Multi-Sensory Impairments
NAD	Norwegian Association of the Disabled
OOSC	Out of School Children
OVC	Orphaned and Vulnerable Children
PEAS	Promoting Equality in African Schools
PLE	Primary Leaving Exam (Uganda)
PSG	Parent Support Group
PTA	Parent Teacher Association
PTC	Primary Teacher Training College

PwD	Persons with Disability
SBM	School Based Management
SMC	School Management Committee
SNE	Special Needs Education
SSA	Sub-Saharan Africa
UBOS	Ugandan Bureau of Statistics
UCE	Uganda Certificate of Education
UNEB	Uganda National Examination Board
UPE	Universal Primary Education
USE	Universal Secondary Education

Executive summary

There is a lack of research into what works in Inclusive Education (IE) in Uganda, as elsewhere in sub-Saharan Africa (SSA). Yet with children with disabilities (CwDs) constituting only 1.79% of total school enrolment, serious attention is needed to 'ensure learning opportunities for all' (SDG4). USDC and Enable-Ed were contracted to conduct a national study to identify best practice in IE, which commenced in August 2016 and was finalised in March 2017.

A mixed methods approach was utilised and the disability sector was explored regarding the policy and programming that shapes it. Both programming and funding organisations/institutions were consulted. National-level quantitative data was used to identify regions with the highest enrolment of CwDs. The team then explored practices in these locations. Fieldwork was conducted in 38 education sites, including early childhood, primary, secondary and tertiary institutions. A conceptual framework was used to focus data collection on three domains: access, engagement and quality. The principal instrument used to identify best practice was an 'IE matrix', developed by Enable-Ed in collaboration with local and national stakeholders. Other sources of data include questionnaires from over 53% of districts in Uganda and interviews with over 30 NGOs, CSOs, MoES and organisations working in IE/disability.

The research included a literature review on IE, models of inclusion and Ugandan specific research. The preliminary findings were presented to the IE community in March 2017 which was an opportunity to validate them and highlight areas for further research/discussion. The research offers important insights into aspects of pedagogy for IE, school leadership, the role of CwDs, parents and local service providers, and the need for metrics to measure broader learning outcomes, beyond the narrow academic ones which frame school effectiveness discussions.

Key messages from the research

Identification

Initial findings show that definitions of the type of disability are varied, with implications for the identification process. Comprehensive identification of CwDs is limited and hampered by a lack of definitional consistency, classification and understanding of disability types. This is compounded by a lack of understanding on the challenges faced by children with varying types of disability, leading to inappropriate responses and provision. However, when schools are trained in improved identification, there is evidence of significant impact on the number of CwDs identified.

Pedagogy

Inclusive Education clearly has the potential to significantly impact the number of CwD in schools. Not only are parents attracted and welcomed by inclusive schools but the interaction between CwoD and CwD encourages positive relationships, and the interaction of CwD with teachers encourages

changes in pedagogy which also increases access to education. CwoD can support CwDs to provide better outcomes, and all children can learn from each other.
The impact of teacher training is maximised when pedagogical changes are accompanied by efforts to engage the community through outreach.

Rather than a narrow lens just focussing on one or two types of disability, a holistic approach to inclusive teaching pedagogy is crucial to enact changes on a wider classroom level, which impacts on all children.

Good teaching and learning for CwD is beneficial for all (however, children with more severe or profound disabilities may benefit from additional support).

There is a need to further explore the relationship between good teaching and learning, increased inclusion and quality of learning outcomes.

School level

In most the schools visited a key factor to inclusion was either a qualified special needs teacher (or someone responsible for leading on inclusion) with a supportive school leadership.

Programming which includes an outreach element from either schools or professional services results in increased identification and access for CwDs.

School data indicates that where institutions have focused on inclusion, numbers have significantly increased.

Leadership at all levels is important, but particularly the head teacher of a school. There is a need for training to develop this and capitalise on the potential gains.

For staff, experiences of working with CwDs is one of the key drivers for developing inclusive education. The implication for programming is that teacher training should include experiential elements, to ensure staff feel skilled enough to teach.

Improving the quality of education for all has a profound impact on the learning of CwDs. Consequently, training should focus on improvements to general teaching and learning (with particular reference to group work, as this also improves social outcomes for CwDs).

The role of the Special Needs teacher is instrumental in the experiences of CwDs in school and their access to learning.

Children with disabilities

Almost all CwD viewed inclusive settings as best for them for a number of reasons, not least their educational attainment. In addition to this is the contribution it makes to their social development and the fact that they will go onto to work in situations where they will compete with CwoD for jobs. They also noted that inclusive friendships support them significantly to improving the quality of their learning. CwDs are the biggest advocates and drivers of change. More opportunities need to be leveraged where CwDs interact with CwoD, teachers, heads, SMCs and districts in order to drive change.

Learning outcomes

There is a narrow focus on exam results and learning outcomes that are neither suitable for some CwDs nor realistic in their aims. The lack of metrics with which to measure learning outcomes and progression for CwDs, especially those with cognitive impairments or learning difficulties, means that many children's experience of schooling is 'failure' and teachers do not have the information to plan positive learning experiences for the children in their classes.

In order to provide an evidence base for the learning outcomes of all children, including those with cognitive disabilities, efforts are needed to improve the monitoring of interventions and general provision. This applies to the government sector, NGOs and to schools, too.

Networks and relationships

Established networks and relationships between local government officials, health and education services results in more detailed identification and appropriate access to education and health (e.g. the referral system in Gulu, discussed later).

Integrating local services (a multi-agency approach to identification) is crucial for IE success.

Education providers have potentially much to learn from each other regarding making IE work. For example, Special schools have a wealth of knowledge around specific disability types and have the potential to increase inclusion in mainstream schools through collaboration.

Many smaller NGOs spend a significant proportion of their budgets on advocacy for their stakeholders and beneficiaries. Cost efficiencies can be made through increased networking and collaboration.

This research did not collect enough data from SMCs so cannot make any judgements on how the relationship with SMCs and schools can impact inclusion. However, the researchers saw examples of collaboration which led to successful teaching and learning outcomes in schools. This is an area that needs further examination and could yield gains for IE.

NGO programming

NGO programming which includes an element of C2C methodology and school/disability clubs is associated with increased engagement and a more positive ethos.

There is less reliance on NGOs for infrastructure development than was previously expected, which points to the driver of change being the relationship between schools and communities.

Parents

The active involvement of parents is crucial in reducing stigma experienced by CwD in schools and communities.

The research also challenges the notion that parents are the source of negative attitudes towards sending CwDs to school. Some parents expressed the belief that schools were unable to ensure the welfare of their children, or that the environment was not conducive for them as they would experience stigma.

Parents are the gatekeepers of change in relation to access and if included in positive ways can significantly affect numbers. Part of engaging parents is ensuring that schools have adequate child protection/safeguarding, to increase parents' confidence in their children's safety in school.

National level data

A concerning finding was that the number of CwDs accessing all phases of education (pre-primary, primary, secondary) is falling. This indicates a pressing need to focus on CwDs.

National data indicate that certain disability groups are more likely than others not to access school. Project leaders should be aware of this in order to monitor if this is the case in their projects, and the targeting of specific vulnerable groups should be considered. From the national data, these are:

- Females, particularly those with physical, multiple and learning difficulties
- Children with physical and multiple impairments
- Children in geographical areas where enrolment is lower

The transition from primary to secondary is not occurring for CwDs. There is a clear need to be addressed at the level of schools, NGOs and government. Where schools actively plan to engage students from the level above or below they can significantly increase the rate of transition for CwDs. For example, at Iganga Secondary school, the SEN Lead visited feeder primary schools to meet CwDs and their families to explain the importance of secondary school and the support they will receive at there.

Barriers

There remains a lack of knowledge about the barriers to access for CwDs. CwDs varying requirements mean that barriers to access are not universal, and these are affected by geographical location, gender, language, poverty, and other factors. Smaller NGOs, in particular, have been responsive to these needs but only occurs at a local level.

1.0 Introduction

1.1 Aims of the research

'Ensure inclusive and equitable quality education and promote lifelong learning opportunities for all.'
(Sustainable Development Goal 4)

The post-2015 discussion on education reflects the shift in thinking from the quantity of education embodied in the Millennium Development Goals, to the quality of education. Despite good progress towards achieving Universal Primary Education (UPE) since the 1990s in many countries, around 30 million children remain out of school (UNESCO 2012) and others are in school but are not learning the basics (DfID 2013). Great progress has been seen in the area of educational inputs (e.g. classrooms, textbooks and teachers) the assumption being that increases in inputs result in increases in learning. However, there is much evidence to show that these increases in inputs and enrolments have not always resulted in better learning (Gove and Wetterberg 2011).

The backdrop to the present study focuses on issues of access, engagement and quality in inclusive education (IE) and the experience of children with disabilities (CwDs) in schools. This research maps the IE environment and provision in Uganda, from ECD through to vocational education, including public and private, formal and informal provision. The key concern is the identification of best practice in IE. It responds to the initial report by Committee on the Rights of Persons with Disabilities[1] and contributes to realising SDG4.

1.2 Research questions and framework

Three research questions informed the design of the study and the data collection tools. Research question 1 was primarily explored through meetings with NGOs, CSOs, FBOs and government to map current provision in the IE sector (table2 in the stakeholder analysis). Research questions 2 and three were explored through the application and development of an 'inclusion matrix' designed to evaluate the degree of IE provision (see Section 3.3 and Annex 1). The main body of this report addresses the three research questions detailed below and presents examples of best practice throughout the text.

Table 1: Research questions

Research questions:
Question 1: Identify the key stakeholders currently addressing educational needs of disabled children from ECD through secondary level and vocational training
1. List and map the key actors in the public sector currently providing children with disabilities access to education.

[1] See http://www.ohchr.org/EN/HRBodies/CRPD/Pages/CRPDIndex.aspx accessed 12.02.17

2. List and map key actors in the private sector inclusive of schools, care facilities, faith-based organisations, churches, non-governmental organisations and DPOs currently providing children with disabilities access to education.
3. The mapping should include the disability being addressed; type of service(s) provided (specialist, segregated, integrated or inclusive), geography, the purpose of service, numbers served and rations; cost analysis, academic outcomes and measurement metrics used.

Question 2: Identify key elements and practices of inclusive education and the barriers to achieving the same

1. From the year 2000, identify successful elements and practices of inclusive education including analysis of successful pedagogies, curriculum, methods and forms of assessment.
2. For the same period, identify key challenges to the successful integration of inclusive education in the education sector including analysis of the challenges.
3. Identify how the disability sector intersects with other areas of exclusion such as gender, poverty, language, geography, etc.
4. Identify possible ways or complementary avenues to improve the delivery of inclusive education such as child protection, health, nutrition, etc.

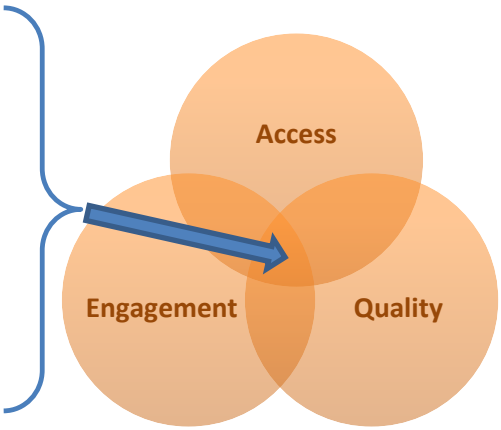
Question 3: Identify opportunities for inclusive education to be better integrated and utilised in the current education system

1. Identify current and intended funding priorities of funders to support inclusive education (inclusive of government, bilateral donors, private philanthropies and NGOs.)
2. Identify and analyse ongoing and intended reform processes in the education sector targeting disabled children.
3. Identify the most appropriate methods to integrate inclusive education into the education sector and identify best practices.
4. Identify how these methods can be used to inform national curriculum reform, the Revised Education Sector ECD Policy and Operational Standards, the updated Education Sector Strategic Plan (2016-2020) and any other policy reforms in the education sector.

In discussion with the research team, the funder decided to use the framework of access, engagement and quality to explore the three research questions and the inclusion matrix (see Annex 1) was developed to reflect this. From its inception, it went through a few iterations and was modified during initial implementation to ensure its relevance and fitness for purpose. The design of the matrix was guided by the belief that good practice in IE stems from the development of three areas:

While this is a linear process in that access is a precursor to engagement and then quality, it is also recognised that each is, to some extent, a function of the others. When educational provision manages to address all three, then we find outstanding examples of good practice.

When CwDs can access educational provision, and are engaged meaningfully in this process with quality teaching and learning then their outcomes are enhanced. These are not only academic outcomes but also ones relating socialisation, health, future economic potential and cohesive societies. When policy-makers, planners, schools and communities understand differences within the student population this helps to promote social equity and leads to more inclusive societies.



Research from a number of sources, including academic and grey literature, has noted the successes of programmes which seek to address these three levels of inclusion (e.g. Peters 2007, Grimes et al. 2015).

1.3 Background and context

Persons with disabilities (PwDs) have long struggled to be included in international programming. Not explicitly mentioned in the Millennium Development Goals (MDGs), they were not present in their accompanying targets and indicators; this rendered PwDs invisible in poverty reduction planning. In the SDGs, the shifting emphasis towards ensuring quality education for all has provoked renewed interest in marginalised and vulnerable groups that are currently excluded from educational participation. Despite the achievements of the Education For All (EFA) movement and the MDGs, CwDs remain one of the principal groups currently *excluded* from education provision around the world. Those who do attend school are more likely to be excluded within the classroom and to drop out (UNESCO 2015).

This international picture is echoed in Uganda. The 2014 UNICEF report *'Research Study on Children with Disabilities Living in Uganda'*[2] found that *'CwDs are one of the most marginalised and disadvantaged groups in society.'* According to UNICEF, approximately 9% of CwDs of school-age attend primary school, compared to a national average of 92%. Similarly, a 2005 World Bank report

[2] http://www.unicef.org/uganda/UNICEF_CwD_situational_analysis_FINAL.pdf accessed on 05.05.16

concluded *'disability is associated with long-run poverty in the sense that CwDs are less likely to acquire the human capital (education) to earn higher incomes.'* [3]
Estimates of disability have been as high as 16% of the population[4] equivalent to 5.2 million people. There are regional differences due to war, civil unrest and specific conditions (e.g. river blindness) higher incidences are found in the North and East.

Many studies point to disabled people being one of the poorest and most marginalised groups in society. The impact on socio-economic conditions is worsened when household are headed by a PwD and their education deficit impacts negatively on their children.

'*To the extent that education drives the ability to earn an income in the future, it confirms qualitatively and quantitatively that people with disabilities are more likely to pass their poverty on to their children'.*[5]

The Global Initiative on Out of School Children (2015)[6] reports that even if children with disabilities can gain access to school, they are particularly disadvantaged by non-inclusive teaching methods, inflexible curricula and examination systems. An inclusive school is one that reduces barriers for all children to access, participate and achieve in education. Many factors are involved in ensuring an inclusive, learner-friendly environment, including the relevance of the curriculum, the pace of teaching, the materials and methodology used, teaching according to learning needs, time given to absorb learning, and the method of assessment. The continuous development of teaching skills required to respond to the different needs of learners can only be seen regarding educational quality improvement for all children.

The Government of Uganda is keen to maximise growth and reduce poverty and in order to enhance inclusive growth and development, one of the strategies in the second National Development Plan which targets PwDs is geared towards the *'equalisation of opportunities, rehabilitation and inclusion of PwDs in their communities.'* The current Government strategy towards interventions of PwDs is through the Community-Based Rehabilitation (CBR) programme.[7] In their Population and Housing Census, the Ugandan Bureau of Statistics (UBOS) measure disability using the 'Washington Group' criteria.[8] For the population, aged two years and above the disability prevalence rate was 12.4% while the equivalent for five years and above was close to 14%. The disability rate among women is higher than that of men and higher among those living in rural compared to urban areas. Poverty is

[3] World Bank study 2005 cited in Education for children with disabilities - improving access and quality. A DFID practice paper accessed on 23.03.16 from https://www.gov.uk/government/publications/education-for-children-with-disabilities-improving-access-and-quality-guidance-note-a-dfid-practice-paper
[4] Uganda National Household Survey, UBOS 2009-2010
[5] Johannes Hoogeveen Measuring welfare for small but vulnerable groups, Journal of African Economies, 2005
[6] https://www.unicef.org/education/files/Global_Initiative_on_Out_of_School_Children_-_ESAR.pdf
[7] National Population and Housing Census 2014 accessed from: file:///C:/Users/EBL/Desktop/2014%20National%20Census%20Main%20Report.pdf accessed on 10.01.17
[8] http://www.washingtongroup-disability.com/washington-group-question-sets/child-disability/ accessed on 09.01.17

particularly linked to disability. The World Bank's (2016)[9] Poverty Assessment found that nearly 84% of the population live in rural areas where 4/10 face poverty, compared to 1/10 in urban areas. Regarding districts/regions, the areas most affected by poverty are two sub-regions, the North East (74%) and West Nile (43%).
Furthermore, UNICEF (2012)[10] noted that:

- 90% of CwDs do not access and/or enjoy their rights to survival, development, protection and participation.
- Only 10% of CwDs who require rehabilitative health services receive them.
- 5% of CwDs can access education within an inclusive setting in regular schools while 10% access education through special schools and annexes.

2.0 Literature review: inclusive education in sub-Saharan Africa

This literature review provides an account of inclusive education (IE) with a special focus on sub-Saharan Africa (SSA) and low-income contexts for the purpose of orienting and informing the design of the present study of IE in Uganda.

2.1 The case for inclusive education

'Worldwide consensus': Salamanca and the legal basis for IE

IE is a 'global education policy' (Verger et al. 2011) advanced by UNESCO and other hegemonic Western policy actors such as USAID, DFID and the World Bank, and ratified by national governments across SSA (Armstrong et al. 2011). The international policy context could hardly be more conducive for IE. Most countries around the world are legally obliged to provide IE as a result of the Salamanca Statement (UNESCO 1994), which tied IE to the *Education For All* agenda. The Statement enjoins governments around the world to:

> *adopt as a matter of law or policy the principle of inclusive education, enrolling all children in regular schools, unless there are compelling reasons for doing otherwise. (ix)*

The signatories of this and the subsequent UN Convention on the Rights of Persons with Disabilities (2006) are thus accountable to the UN and their citizens to implement policies for IE (Mittler in Mariga et al. 2014). These commitments not only include the right of all children to attend a regular or mainstream school but also to access a 'child-centred pedagogy capable of meeting [their] needs' (UNESCO 1994, viii). Nevertheless, despite the clear legal imperative, more than 20 years after the Salamanca Statement, in most parts of SSA IE is *legislated* rather than *planned* for. The IE policy in Uganda is still in the development stage, making IE a statement of aspiration rather than a tangible plan for action.

[9] http://pubdocs.worldbank.org/en/381951474255092375/pdf/Uganda-Poverty-Assessment-Report-2016.pdf accessed 01.02.17
[10] Taken from a UNICEF fact sheet accessed from: https://www.unicef.org/uganda/Fast_Facts_Uganda_Day_of_the_African_Child_.pdf on 28.02.17

Having established the legal basis for the global movement for IE, this section considers what is meant by IE, and why it is an approach whose time has come.

What is IE?

Definitions of IE stress the process of extending meaningful educational opportunities to all:

> *[The term] refers not only to the process of ensuring that all children and adults – regardless of their gender, age, ability ethnicity, impairment, HIV status, and so on – have access to education within their community, but that the education they receive is appropriate and enables them to participate and achieve, both within their education system and more widely. (Kaplan et al. 2007, 23)*

> *[IE] actively works to ensure that every child, irrespective of gender, language, ability, religion, nationality or other characteristics, is supported to meaningfully participate and learn alongside his/her peers, and develop to his/her full potential. (Save the Children 2016, 6)*

The stipulation that students 'learn alongside' their peers, 'within their community' alludes to the historical practice of providing segregated, 'special' education for CWDs. For much of the 20th century, there was a widespread belief in the need for 'separate kinds of education for different kinds of child' (Armstrong et al. 2011, 29). Such a view is grounded in a 'deficit' or 'medical' model of disability, which locates children's differences and disabilities as individual pathologies (Thomas and Loxley 2007, 3). For example, the 1944 Education Act in Britain identified eleven categories of 'handicap' (including 'blind', 'deaf' and 'educationally subnormal') requiring special provision, while children with Down's Syndrome were categorised as 'ineducable' (Runswick-Cole & Hodge 2009). Since the 1980s unproblematic assumptions about the categorical distinctions between different 'types' of child have been challenged. According to the 'social' model of disability

> *a person's impairment is not the cause of disability, but rather disability is the result of the way society is organised, which disadvantages and excludes people with impairments. (Armstrong et al. 2011, 30, our underlining)*

For example, a student with a visual impairment may *become* disabled if she is made to sit too far from the board; a student with a mobility impairment may *become* disabled if the design of the classroom prevents him from entering the room or reaching a desk. It is this social model of disability which underlies the global movement for IE, marking a move from an 'exclusionary to an inclusive understanding of educational difficulties' (Veck 2009).

IE is a question of rights and social integration is an educational aim in itself (Armstrong et al. 2011; Srivastava et al. 2015). The African Charter on the Rights and Welfare of the Child (of which Uganda was an early signatory) asserts the obligation of the state to:

> *ensure that the disabled child has effective access to training, preparation for employment and recreation opportunities in a manner conducive to the child achieving the fullest possible social integration, individual development and his/her cultural and moral development.' (Article 13, our underlining)*

Clearly, schooling which segregates some young people on the basis of disability is inconsistent with 'the fullest possible social integration' and unconducive to promoting broader social values of equity and respect for all. Having introduced the legal and theoretical underpinnings for IE, the remainder of this section briefly considers the pedagogical and economic arguments for IE.

The pedagogical rationale for IE

Space limitations preclude a thorough exploration of the pedagogical rationale for IE, for example, in relation to age- or subject-specific pedagogies (e.g. Ball et al. 2005). However, at the highest level of generality, there is agreement that effective teaching for CWDs is the same as effective teaching for *all* (Norwich and Lewis 2001). The core characteristics of effective teaching are encapsulated in what has been termed 'adaptive instruction', which includes:

- Teaching based on the assessed capabilities of each learner
- Regular evaluation of learners' progress
- Learners' increased responsibility for own learning
- Learners progressing at their own pace
- Provision of a range of learning activities
- Opportunities for peer support (see Norwich and Lewis 2001, 318)

There is considerable evidence to support the efficacy of instruction which incorporates these characteristics, including accounts from students from across the academic performance range (e.g. Rudduck and Flutter 2004, 77-78; Rudduck and McIntyre 2007, 59). However, this evidence base is limited to Western contexts; there is a dearth of evidence of what constitutes effective pedagogy in SSA (discussed below).

The cost-effectiveness rationale for IE: a red herring

There have been suggestions that IE 'may in practice be a useful policy option that is less resource intensive than other approaches to the provision of services for children' (Armstrong et al. 2011, 32). Claims about the cost-effectiveness of IE were made in the original Salamanca Statement (UNESCO 1994) and again more recently (UNESCO 2012). However, there is no evidence either to support or refute these assertions. In a recent large-scale systematic review of the cost-effectiveness of different approaches to increasing access to education for CWDs, Bakhshi et al. (2013) reported:

> *There were no studies that presented an analysis of the cost-effectiveness of a given intervention. Some studies referred to the cost of education to the parents or the economic burden of a given disability; however, none presented an idea of how a given intervention was more or less costly than the absence of the intervention or in comparison to another form of schooling for children with disabilities. (26)*

To conclude this section of the review, there are strong rationales for IE – legal, ethical, social and pedagogical; but there is insufficient evidence to list cost-effectiveness amongst these.

2.2 Barriers to inclusive education

As mentioned previously, IE remains at the 'pilot project' stage across much of SSA (Eleweke and Rodda 2002; Mariga et al. 2014; Srivastava et al. 2015). Of the 30 million young people who are out-of-school in SSA, it is estimated that one third are CWDs (Mariga et al. 2014). The literature indicates historical, cultural, material and other factors which pose barriers to the participation of CWDs and the realisation of IE. This section of the review focuses on these barriers which must be addressed, before turning to promising avenues for IE.

Colonial legacies: segregation and centralisation

Despite the 'froth' of constant educational reform around the world, education systems are slow to change in important regards – i.e. the relationships between teachers, students and subject matter (Elmore 2004). The colonial era continues to exercise an enduring effect on the structures of education systems in SSA, where postcolonial states have typically been less than successful in adapting systems to reflect 'changing times, circumstances and social realities' (Dei 2005, 269). In the colonial era, formal education for CwDs was provided by charitable and religious organisations, often in residential facilities located some distance from families/communities (Peresuh and Barcham 1998; Mariga et al. 2014). Students received a limited curriculum which focused on vocational skills such as basketry or woodwork rather than an academic curriculum (Peresuh and Barcham 1998). This propagated the false notion that CwDs were incapable of engaging with an academic curriculum and consequently *should* be segregated.

The British Empire also bequeathed to former colonies such as Uganda inflexible centralised bureaucratic systems based on what Hoy (2003) terms 'hindering structures': rigid rules and regulations aimed at securing compliance.

> *The hierarchy has as its primary goal controlled and disciplined compliance of teachers…[T]he role of authority, rules, procedures, and policy is to assure that potentially reluctant…teachers do what is prescribed by the administration. (ibid., 91)*

The highly centralised systems which persist in postcolonial states are characterised by a lack of teacher and school-level autonomy, which act as barriers to local, needs-based adaptation. For example, a 'one size fits all' curriculum is commonplace, often encapsulated in a single textbook per subject/grade (Anderson-Levitt and Diallo 2003; Mitchell 2017). Students' progression through the

grades is dependent on the memorisation of a stable body of state-authorised knowledge, assessed through multiple-choice questions; this is not compatible with a skills-based, contextually-adaptable programme of study for a diverse student body. Similarly, school-level authority can be severely restricted by higher tiers of the bureaucracy (Taylor 2009; Mitchell 2017). This can affect CWDs regarding rigid admission and promotion policies, for example, Rigmalia (2015) cites the example of a school which was not permitted to enrol CWDs without a special dispensation from the district education office. Higher up the bureaucracy, there is often a blurring of responsibilities regarding IE and CWDs, which can lead to ambiguity and confusion over who is responsible for provision (Srivastava et al. 2015). In many cases, central mandates shift responsibility from specialist psychological services to mainstream education departments without additional resources or capacity-building activities (Ngcobo and Muthukrishna 2008). Studies have found that NGOs can play an important role in facilitating communication between different sections of the state bureaucracy and building capacity (Srivastava et al. 2015).

Material factors: IE in conditions of resource stringency

Some researchers identify material factors as the principal obstacle to the provision of high quality, inclusive education in low-income contexts (e.g. Eleweke and Rodda 2002; Anderson and Mundy 2014). Studies indicate that many schools in SSA face serious resource constraints, including dilapidated classrooms and a shortage of desks, seats and basic teaching materials such as chalk, blackboards and textbooks (Harber and Davies, 1997; Poluha, 2004; Mehadi and Tesfaye 2010). Such infrastructural issues, and the associated large class sizes, lack of textbooks and inadequate sanitation facilities, can discourage students from remaining in school (Tassew et al. 2005).

Resource stringency disproportionately disadvantages students with visual, auditory, intellectual and mobility impairments. The onus is generally on students to adapt *themselves* around existing inadequate provision (Mariga et al. 2014). Schools are often designed without CWDs in mind, and may not be accessible or easily adaptable to meet the requirements of, for example, wheelchair users (Mitchell 2016). Similarly, there may be no attempt to meet the learning needs of students with intellectual disabilities, who may be permitted to attend lessons 'even if they do not learn anything, as a form of psychosocial therapy' (Jennings 2011, 37). It is such provision which leads some to assert that

> *the type of inclusion practised in Africa…results in isolation and frustration for learners with special needs because the necessary supports and resources for meaningful inclusion are lacking. (Eleweke and Rodda 2002, 115)*

The inadequacy of provision may discourage parents from sending CwDs to mainstream schools. In many cases, special schools funded by charities and NGOs may have larger budgets and superior facilities to government schools (Peresuh and Barcham 1998). Household poverty may also be a factor here, as some parents prefer to send CWDs to residential facilities as this 'relieves them of the burden usually associated with looking after a child with a disability' (ibid., 77).

Pedagogy: the prevalence of formalistic, teacher-centred pedagogies

As discussed, the Salamanca Statement establishes the right of all learners to access a 'child-centred pedagogy capable of meeting [their] needs' (UNESCO 1994, viii). Evidence from SSA over the past 50 years indicates the persistence of formalistic, teacher-centred pedagogies (Schweisfurth 2011). The reason for this is that pedagogy is not value-neutral, but socially and culturally situated in the beliefs, meanings and relationships which extend beyond the classroom (Guthrie 2011; Tabulawa 2013; Altinyelken 2015); long-standing beliefs about ab/normality, gender, elder-youth relationships, and education itself are in play (Omolewa 2007; Adzahlie-Mensah 2014; Mitchell 2017). Some have challenged the appropriateness of so-called child-centred pedagogies in SSA (e.g. Tabulawa 2013), but what is *not* seriously in question is the lack of uptake. In a recent study, Miyazaki (2016) wonders whether or not changing teachers' practice is a 'mission impossible'. He found that a lack of attention to the learning of individual students remains characteristic of teaching in Senegal. However, there is growing evidence of the use of group work and peer learning mechanisms in East African countries such as Kenya and Ethiopia (Hardman et al. 2009; Mitchell 2017). This offers the prospect of blending teacher- and child-centred pedagogies in a way that may be more appropriate in collectivist cultures.

Disability and stigma

Mariga et al. (2014, 13) highlight 'the stigma and shame associated with disability that still persists in many cultures, communities and countries'. In parts of SSA, CWDs are regarded as 'objects of shame' who should be kept at home, hidden from those outside the family (Hartley et al. 2005; Jennings 2011; Adeniyi and Omigbodun 2016). Zehle (2008, 239) asserts that one of the main barriers to provision for CwDs is the traditional belief that disability is 'a curse or punishment from God'.

Where CwDs are enrolled in mainstream schools, prior assumptions about their capabilities may negatively affect their experiences. For example, at a mainstream primary school in South Africa, Ngcobo and Muthukrishna (2008, 34) found that students were divided into three groups: green, orange and red, according to their perceived abilities. CwDs were automatically allocated to the red group, based on the assumption that they were the least able; students who misbehaved and were threatened with being sent to this group, as punishment.

2.3 Enabling conditions for inclusive education

This discussion of enabling conditions for IE should begin with a note that the evidence base for IE in SSA is extremely poor. The majority of studies which have been conducted relate to high-income contexts: North America, the UK and Europe (Bakhshri et al. 2013).

Moving from fragmentary to holistic reform

Broadly speaking, we can picture a continuum of institutional adjustments which enable (permit, support, promote, normalise) IE, ranging from fragmentary, piecemeal adjustments to holistic

reform. At the *fragmentary* end of the continuum are minimal changes to existing provision (e.g. admissions policies, seating arrangements) which retain essentially the same dominant one-size-fits-all model of schooling. As discussed in 2.1, this may amount to permitting CWDs to enrol in mainstream school, regardless of the quality of their experiences (Jennings 2011). A national policy context which permits CWDs to attend mainstream schools is the first step. Beyond this, we can conceive minor adaptations grounded in the medical model of disability. For example, in Zimbabwe (Peresuh and Barcham 1998, 78) students with visual and auditory impairments may be given access to a 'resource room' where they learn sign language, braille or receive hearing aids, as a supplement to mainstream provision. Such additional provision is welcome but does not affect the inclusiveness of regular classroom teaching along the lines of adaptive instruction discussed above. This fragmentary end of the spectrum includes piecemeal attempts to improve the quality of education, an approach which was criticised in a recent report on the effectiveness of foreign aid to education:

> *[IE] requires more than just the basic interventions (teaching and learning materials, etc.) and approaches that many donors have funded in developing countries to date, and requires more joined up cross-sectoral thinking. (Riddell 2012, 14)*

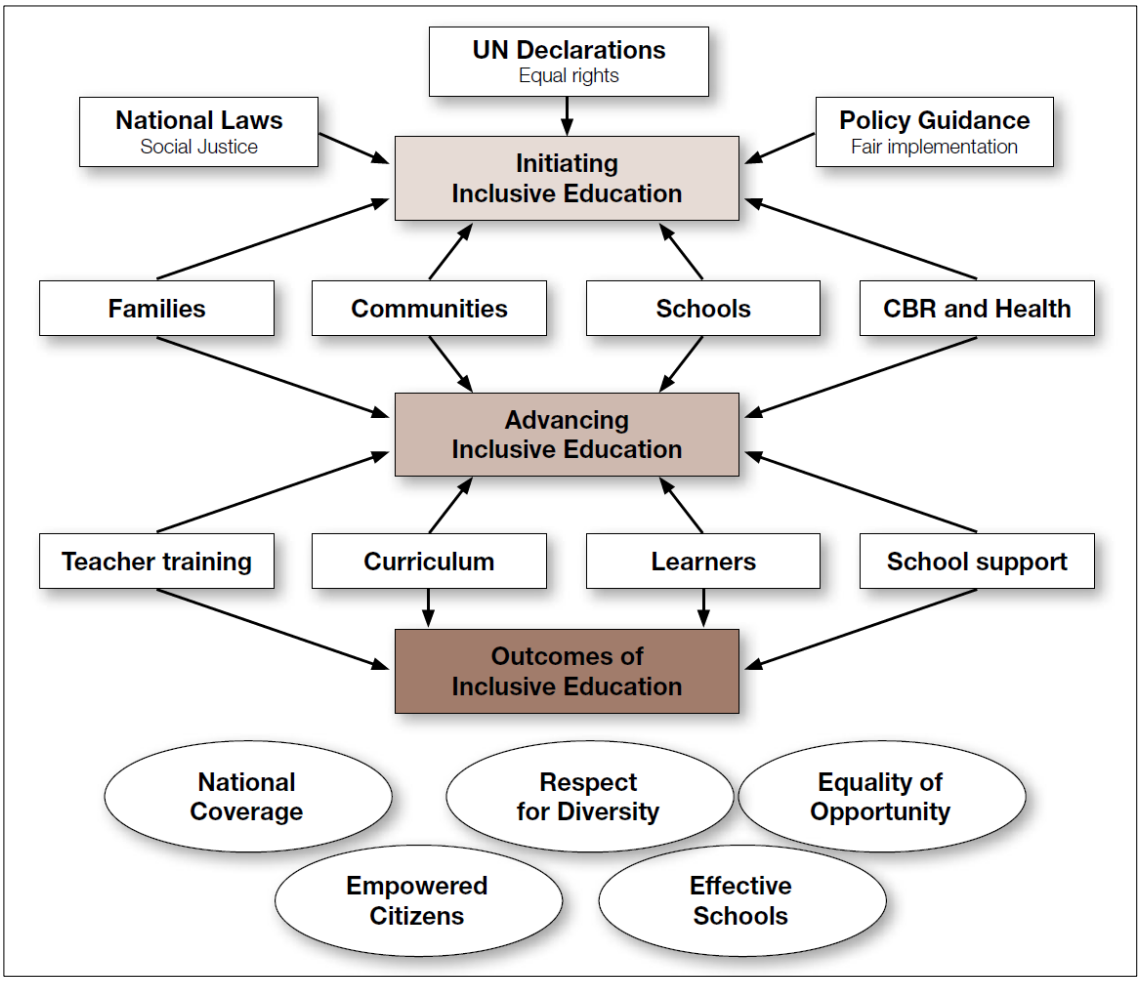
A *holistic* approach calls for an ecological systems perspective (Bronfenbrenner 1979) on the multiple domains of young people's experiences and relationships in the home, community and school; it requires addressing beliefs, behaviours, capacities and resources at these local levels, as well as policies and practices at the regional and national levels. This involves looking beyond schools and other service providers to consider supports within the family and wider community (Hartley et al. 2005). McConkey and Bradley (2010) conceive the movement towards IE as a complex, iterative, holistic process which starts with a conducive national policy context and ends with the achievement of societal goals: respect for diversity, equality of opportunity (see Figure 1). At the heart of this process are families, communities, schools and health services[11]; a holistic approach to IE incorporates each of these elements.

Advocacy: the need for positive messages about inclusion

In their landmark study of IE in SSA, Mariga et al. (2014) stress the importance of advocacy. At the local level, champions of IE are necessary to change long-standing beliefs and practices. This is supported by evidence that attitudinal change is more important than specific skills and competencies for IE. Training which boosts teachers' confidence to work with CWDs is more important than developing specific skills (Mittler 2000). Positive teacher attitudes towards IE are associated with the existence of inclusive provision (Avramidis and Norwich 2002). This highlights the importance of gathering and disseminating positive examples of IE while supporting and scaling up local advocacy efforts. Methodologically, this suggests the value of 'an approach to inquiry which resists the more typical social science preoccupation with documenting pathology and suggesting remedies' (Lawrence-Lightfoot 1997, 141); one which is motivated by a 'search for goodness', rather than pathology (ibid.).

[11] 'CBR' refers to Community-Based Rehabilitation services – for their importance in the Ugandan context, see Hartley et al. (2005).

Figure 1: Processes affecting the development, advancement and outcomes of IE



Source: McConkey and Bradley (2010)

2.4 Education in Uganda

The Government asserts that: 'Equitable access to education and social services is the right of every individual'. A number of polices seek to ensure educational provision for CwDs, including:

- Uganda National Institute of Special Education Act (1995) which instituted Special Needs Education (SNE)
- Constitution of Uganda (1995) specifically, Article 16 recognises the right of persons with disability to respect and human dignity, Article 32 outlaws discrimination on the basis of disability and Article 34 recognises the right of all children to benefit from primary education.
- The 1992 Government White Paper on Education defined basic education as the minimum package of learning which should be made available to every individual to enable him/her to live as a good and useful citizen in any society and laid the foundations for Universal Primary Education (UPE) which was launched in 1997, giving every child the right to a free primary education.

- National Council for Disability Act (2003) was established to address complaints of violations of the constitution[12]
- Disability Act 2006 and the National Policy on Disability 2006, promotes 'equal opportunities and enhanced empowerment, participation and protection of rights of persons with disabilities irrespective of gender, age and type of disability
- The Education Act (2008) compulsory primary education for all age appropriate children.

Despite a strong regulatory framework, funding remains an issue. A recent report by the Civil Society Budget Advocacy Group (CSBAG 2013)[13] highlighted that:

> *'Despite this, only 0.33% of the education sector budget was allocated to the financing to the Special Needs Education in Uganda from 2010/11 to 2012/13, and yet the Persons With Disability Act (2006) stipulates that not less than 10% of all educational expenditure should be allocated to the needs of Persons with Disability (PWDs). According to the National Development Plan (NDP), 10% of children in school have special needs, and their access to special needs is hampered by limited technical, human, financial and physical public resources. Lack of adequate funding to SNE deprives children with special needs of their right to education, and consequently increasing their susceptibility to poverty' (2013:7)*

Uganda has a high population growth rate at 3.1% compared to a world average of 1.2%.[14] It is also facing issues of refugees coming into the country and is home to one of the world's largest refugee settlements.[15] Both of these factors have implications for education provision and quality. It is estimated that around 60% of the population are below 16 years of age. The implementation of UPE has led to enormous increases in enrolment up from 2.6 million in 1995 to almost 8.3 million in 2009, but there is a decline in enrolment across the primary years.[16]

The Global Campaign for Education One Goal Report 2010 highlights key elements of the education system and ranks Uganda alongside 59 other countries using the following metrics:

Table 2: Uganda - education rankings

Metric	Rank
Population with access to UPE	29/60 (43% don't complete primary)
Political will for education	55/60
Quality of learning	22/60 (low)
Equal opportunity to education	38/60
Overall	46/60

1 – highest, 60 – lowest

[12] Reportedly it has not handled a single complaint since inception due to capacity constraints.
[13] http://drt-ug.org/wp-content/uploads/2016/11/Financing-Special-Needs-education-in-UG-2014.pdf accessed 12.11.16
[14] http://www.worldwatch.org/node/4525 accessed 15.03.17
[15] https://www.theguardian.com/global-development/2017/jan/24/uganda-sprawling-haven-for-270000-of-south-sudans-refugees accessed 28.03.17
[16] Mattingly, J. and Mwesigwa (2011) Impact assessment of inclusive education approached in Uganda DFID

A 2011 study by Mattingly and Mwesigwa identified serious issues facing inclusive education due to large class sizes (pupil teacher ratios above 50, largest being 112) impacting on rates of achievement with implications for the amount of time teachers could invest in students requiring support.

2.5 Costing inclusive education

The education sector as a whole has been allocated UGX 2,454.61bn out of the total national budget of UGX 20,336.81bn in 2016/17, which is UGX 425.55bn more than 2015/16 (MoES 2016). This increase has been attributed to changes in the donor budget, which has almost doubled. The donor budget was projected to grow by about 98% (from UGX 200.48bn to UGX 396.92bn) in 2016/17. This dependency on donor funding has implications for the direction set by policy. This research is not suggesting that this is counter-productive to raising learning outcomes, increasing access and providing quality education in Uganda. However, the focus that donors and funders have will inevitably influence priorities. This research finds (in line with others, e.g. Myers 2016) that bilateral and multilateral education donors are increasing their efforts and commitments to IE. For example, DFID introduced its first Disability Framework in 2014, and the SGDs are inclusive of people with disabilities. Not only do the Sustainable Development Goals explicitly reference people with disabilities and pledge to leave no one behind, but crucially, they will not be met unless both horizontal and vertical inequalities are addressed (BOND 2016). However, discussions with these funders in Uganda found that this increased focus did not translate into a portfolio-wide approach to IE and that disability was not mainstreamed across all funding calls. The focus on girls' education has naturally excluded boys and young men from accessing disability-focused funding although they have benefitted from general education improvement funding.

From the available research, position papers and reports it is clear that budgets for SNE have suffered from a lack of adequate funding and this lack of money has led to failures in meeting previously set targets.[17] The funding allocated to SNE has increased from UGX 3.183bn to UGX 3.58bn, however, this is seen as inadequate by the CSO sector[18] due to the challenges that need to be addressed. Moreover, this funding is below the 10% of the education sector budget as provided for in the Persons with Disability Act 2006. CSBAG have estimated that the level of SNE funding needs to rise to at least UGX 5bn to capitalise on existing efforts.[19]

Domestic funding is crucial for increasing access to schooling for CwDs, and IE more broadly. The funding deficit demonstrated above means there is increased pressure on households to contribute to financing education which many can ill-afford to do, potentially leading to choices which

[17] For example, activities such as the training of 375 teachers in 6 CPTCs, undertaking Non Formal Education (NFE) Teacher Trainers (CCTs) orientation on the utilization of curriculum and NFE face-to-face training in FY 2015/16 (CSBAG – 2017, CSBAG Position paper on the Education Ministerial Policy Statement FY 2016/17 accessed: http://csbag.org/publications/csbag-position-paper-on-the-education-ministerial-policy-statement-fy-201617/ on 12.02.17

[18] See footnote 60.

[19] See footnote 60.

reproduce discrimination against CwDs.[20] Other studies have shown that PwDs have lower educational achievements, are less likely to be employed and the majority of their households have less income. This is especially true for households that people with higher support needs due to their disability and ones which have CwDs. Results of a study in South Africa (Hanass-Hancock & Deghaye 2015) found high opportunity costs and out of pocket costs for most households with a PwD/CwD. Spending varies according to disability type, the level of support needed and their economic status. Not only do households with a PwD/CwD experience greater economic burdens associated with transport, accommodation and support but it also negatively affects economic development. The pilot study showed that where families could not meet these costs, PwDs and CwDs were marginalised from participating in community activities, for example access to education for CwDs was compromised and CwDs were disproportionally represented among OOSC. A recent report, #Costing Equity (Myers 2016) highlights some benefits of IE:

#Costing Equity (Myers 2016:10)

1. Exclusion impacts on national economic growth, generates significant costs and makes no economic sense (Morgon Banks & Pollack, 2014).

2. Children with disabilities who are not identified early, produce less favourable outcomes and cost more (National Scientific Council on the Developing Child, 2008).

3. In Burkina Faso, Cote d'Ivoire, Gambia, Lesotho, Liberia, Mali, Nigeria, Senegal and Yemen, the cost of out-of-school children (many of whom will have disabilities) was estimated to be 'greater than the value of an entire year of GDP growth' (Thomas & Burnett, 2013).

4. In Bangladesh, lack of schooling and employment for people with disabilities and their caregivers, could be losing the country US$1.2 billion of income annually, or 1.74 % of GDP (World Bank, 2008).

5. Educational exclusion leads to illiteracy, poor health, severely restricted access to labour markets, low paid employment, malnutrition, unsafe living and working conditions, and disengagement with social services and other protective mechanisms (UNICEF, 2013a; Mont, 2007). The resulting poverty, inequality and insecurity have a grave impact on society.

6. Child-friendly, inclusive education can result in better social and academic outcomes for all learners, and contribute to gender empowerment, crime reduction and controlled population growth (Holdsworth, 2002; Macarthur, 2009; Mitchell, 2010; Acedo et al., 2011; Hanushek & Wößmann, 2007).

7. Where investments are made, the financing of special or segregated education settings – traditionally the only provision for children with disabilities in many countries – continues to be seen as a more tangible and safe option, even though they cost more. In Pakistan, for instance, UNESCO found that special schools were 15 times more expensive per pupil than educating children in mainstream schools (Economist Intelligence Unit, 2014).

[20] A study in Uganda (CSBAG and DGF 2013) found that fewer girls than boys with SNE access education, 75% of households interviewed that have CwD send their children to school and 24.6%) are not in school.

8. In South Africa, the average cost of building a new special school in 2012 was $9 million, while upgrading the infrastructure of a mainstream school to accommodate children with disabilities would cost around $366,337 (Human Rights Watch, 2015).

A DFID Practice paper 'Education for children with disabilities – improving access and quality'[21] highlighted a number of social and community barriers to the education. One of these was financial barriers to education including the hidden costs of school. This has been reflected in research in Uganda, and the Ugandan MDG Report 2015 stated, *'Studies suggest that financial constraints remain the most prominent factor explaining both non-enrolment and high dropout rates. This reflects high out-of-pocket household expenses on scholastic and non-scholastic materials such stationary, meals and uniforms.'* [22]

Regarding what works in Uganda research has explored the impact of cash transfers for saving purposes. These were found to positively impact on children's academic performance. However the manner in which the cash transfers were saved made a difference. Karlan and Linden (2013) compared a savings account fully-committed to educational expenses to one in which savings are available for cash withdrawal but intended for education. They found the former had no impact and the latter increased scores on language and math by .14 SDs when combined with a parent outreach program.

There is a lack of information and research regarding costs and cost-effectiveness of interventions in IE in lower/middle-income countries although more exist in higher income countries (Bhakshi 2013). However, in line with the findings from this research – good teaching and learning for all includes many CwD and is inclusive for all – UNICEF (2012) noted that as many as 80 – 90% of CwDs could be educated in mainstream school with only additional minor support. Studies have referred to the cost of education to the parents or the economic burden of a given disability and the cost of not educating children with disabilities, however, it was difficult to find research that directly calculated how interventions compared on a cost basis or even in relation to the absence of the intervention in comparison to another form of schooling for CwD (Bhakshi 2013). Many sources of literature (Bond 2016) on value for money on disability programming note that a lack of explicit ring-fenced money in budgets for inclusion results in a lack of action and poorer provision for CwDs and this was reflected in the Ugandan situation.

However, this does not mean cost and value for money can and should be ignored, just simply approached with caution. The research would point to certain interventions to be more cost effective in particular regarding scaling up across a district or nationwide (for example the participation of parents). What makes this more challenging is that in most cases NGOs are using a multi-invention approach making it more difficult to isolate the individual contributions of particular

[21] https://www.gov.uk/government/uploads/system/uploads/attachment_data/file/67664/edu-chi-disabil-guid-note.pdf accessed 09.05.16

[22] Mbabazi et al (2014), 'Out of school children in Uganda', UNICEF, March 2014. In Ugandan MDG report file https://C:/Users/EBL/Downloads/UGANDA%20MDG_2015%20FINAL%20REPORT.PDF accessed 05.05.16.

interventions. Also, many programmes are targeting a small number of schools, which again means that it is difficult to measure the potential impact of large-scale roll out. Given this, the report would point to a potential value of 'cost effective' larger scale roll out of certain interventions[23] (with strong MEL to enable effective measurement of impact), bringing NGOs with different specialisms together in partnership.

2.6 Models of inclusive education

Inclusive education systems range from fragmentary adaptations to meet the needs of individual learners, to the provision of fully inclusive systems. IE carries implications for all groups who are marginalised in society, including street children, CwD, girls, children from ethnic/linguistic minorities, children from economically disadvantaged families, children from nomadic/refugee/displaced communities, children with HIV/AIDS and OVCs. These groups must be accommodated within IE provision.

Booth and Ainscow (2011) propose four processes involved in establishing IE provision:

1. Creating an inclusive culture
2. Developing inclusive practices
3. Ensuring an inclusive environment
4. Delivering quality, inclusive education

Relevant to this study the research identified the following:

- On a local/community level change and the research uncovered examples of disability clubs, PTAs, PSGs, community engagement and CwD/CwoD relationships that contributed to creating an inclusive culture.
- The research identifies teacher training and capacity-building initiatives which promote IE, including the involvement, training and leadership of heads and SNE teachers and the work in pre-service teacher training.
- Both NGOs and PTAs/PSGs contributed to infrastructure improvements and the development and resourcing of and inclusive curriculum, including teaching and learning resources.
- NGO programming was found to be a major contributor to monitoring and support for teachers, curriculum development, assessment and pedagogy although this was limited in its scope and geographical reach.

These components have resonance for this research since the examples of best practice are not exclusively school-level issues but include system-level mechanisms and aspects of the wider

[23] For example, projects that include pedagogical training and improvement for all teachers. Many smaller NGOs and networks noted that general improvement in the teaching and learning process resulted in more children (including those with mild to moderate disabilities) being able to access improved learning. The main report has a more detailed discussion on the type of programming these entail and the models of inclusion that they use.

environment. The examples also include aspects of social care, rehabilitation and health provision, not just educational programming.

Article 24 of the UNCRPD (2016, 4) states:

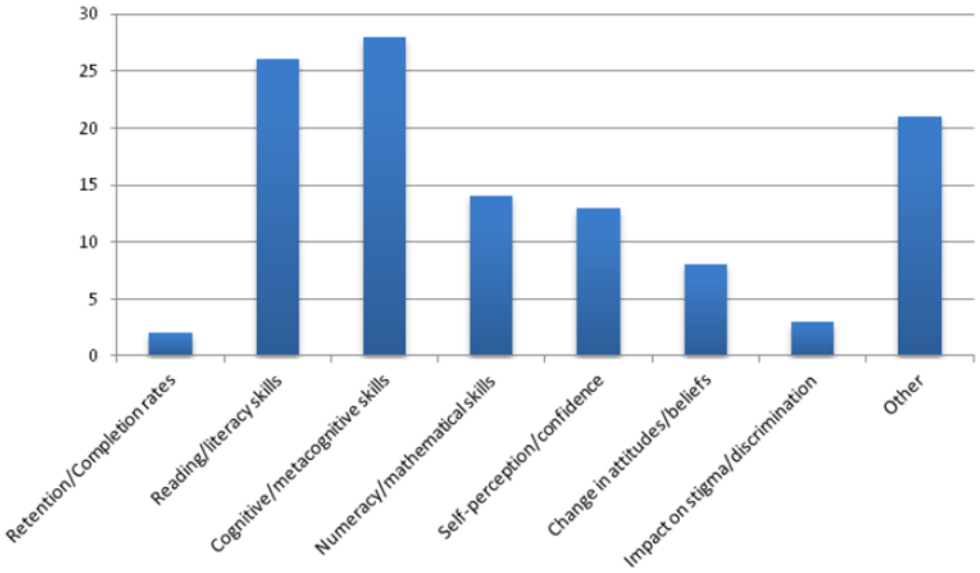
> *'Inclusion involves a process of systemic reform embodying changes and modifications in content, teaching methods, approaches, structures and strategies in education to overcome barriers with a vision serving to provide all students of the relevant age range with an equitable and participatory learning experience and environment that best corresponds to their requirements and preferences. Placing students with disabilities within mainstream classes without accompanying structural changes to, for example, organisation, curriculum and teaching and learning strategies, does not constitute inclusion. Furthermore, integration does not automatically guarantee the transition from segregation to inclusion.' (Article 24 UNCRPD 2016:4)*

This overarching frame has relevance when assessing relative merits of models of IE and their applicability to the Uganda context.

Research on models/approaches on what works in IE have been largely based in higher income countries which has implications for lower and middle-income countries regarding applicability (Bakhshi et al. 2013).[24] Of the studies reviewed in Bhakshi et al. (2013) over 70% were in mainstream/inclusive schools and the outcomes tended to focus on skills acquired through schooling.

[24] 'The majority – 77% (n=58) were based in high-income ('developed') countries: 33 in North America (mostly in the United States); 17 in continental European and 13 in the United Kingdom; seven were based in Australia and New Zealand.13 Eleven studies focused on low- and middle-income ('developing') countries, including South Africa, China and Brazil. In the remaining studies, the countries were not specified, or they were reviews with multiple countries of focus' (Bhakshi et al. 2013:24)

Figure 2: Number of studies by primary outcome



Source: Bhakshi et al. (2013:26)

It is worth noting that many NGO programmes in the IE arena have a component of stigma reduction and sensitization which is not reflected in the summary of academic studies as detailed in Bhakshi et al. systematic review.

Regarding grey literature, there are many sources available, and these are useful in understanding the models that have been employed in IE. This section details some of these that have relevance for the Ugandan context, and have largely been informed by the research study itself, the evaluation team's experience of evaluation and programming and a presentation given by Julia McGeown from Handicap International and Richard Rieser, CEO World of Inclusion.[25]

Models of Inclusive Education

1. Itinerant teachers

Ethiopia: (Exeter Ethiopia Link) A project in western Ethiopia developed the capacity of SEN teachers to support 3 to 5 schools each through training of staff in schools and the setting up of disability clubs. Government buy-in allowed for the release of 20 SEN teachers for two days a week to support neighbouring schools. The cost per school was $144 based on 75 schools and the cost per beneficiary, $9.56 based on 1132 CwDs across the 75 target schools.

Togo: (Handicap International) 12 SEN teachers were trained in a particular specialism (sign language, braille, etc.) and made weekly visits to CwDs (on average 18 per SEN teacher) in schools. They also supported teachers to develop low-cost materials, individualised education plans and how to use materials provided. The government has validated this model, and all itinerant teachers are paid by the Ministry of Primary, Secondary and Literacy (MEPSA). District-level

[25] The authors wish to express their gratitude to Julia McGeown from Handicap International for her insights on this section and Richard Rieser (http://worldofinclusion.com/dhaka-bangladesh/) 10.03.17

inspectors have been trained to monitor the itinerant teachers, and their work and Togo's Education Sector Plan (2014-2106) specifically includes Inclusive Education and this model.

2. Transitory classes

Burkina Faso: Handicap International developed a project in Burkina Faso in 2004 which provided 'transitory classes' to accommodate children with more severe hearing impairments in mainstream schools. In a context with limited special school provision, transitory classes allow the schooling of a group of children with the same type of disability in a mainstream primary school. Pupils participate in the day-to-day activities of the school and are fully or partially included in mainstream classes and activities, as appropriate.

3. Learning support model

Rwanda: (Chance for Childhood) This model was based on extensive mapping of CwDs in 3 districts in Rwanda and the subsequent identification of approximately 144 CwDs supported by 36 learning support assistants (LSAs) that operated partly in schools and partly in the community. Their dual education and social work role was a particular success of the project, and other children in the class benefitted from the additional adults in the class. A pilot is currently being run in Agago where LSAs are provided with motorbikes which they can use as a taxi service to generate income to support their school work.

4. Inclusion links

Gaza: (Handicap International) The idea is to introduce regular weekly visits between children in special schools and local mainstream schools, not just as a one-off exchange visit. The children can gradually build up to regular attendance at the mainstream school for certain lessons where they are more able to cope. Relationships with surrounding mainstream schools have been developed and children have requested to visit the special schools, too, on regular occasions, due to the success. Follow up visits have also been conducted by educational counsellors.
Children with intellectual disabilities are assessed by the Special Needs Education team, and then allocated to a certain number of days at a special school, and the rest of the time at a mainstream school, depending on their level of ability (e.g. two days in mainstream, three days in special provision).

5. Cluster and satellite schools

Ethiopia: (Handicap International) IE is one of the pillars of the education sector plans and existing structures include SNE teachers, advisory teachers, and regional officials who are involved in monitoring IE practices. IE training is included in pre-service teacher training, but it is short. Satellite schools are attached to cluster schools and share resources (e.g. libraries, workshop facilities). Satellite school teachers receive additional training on IE, and they have SNE teachers.

6. Children and Peer Learning

C2C clubs, a methodology developed to help children learn from each other and bring what they learn back to their homes and communities. Always popular with the children themselves, in C2C clubs/programming CwD and CwoD share, learn, play and voice their opinions together.
India: (Leonard Cheshire) supports the teachers to run an after school puppetry club. CwoD and CwD work together to put on puppet shows for the rest of the school and the local community. One of the main strengths of the clubs is that children learn through having fun. In clubs of six to eight members, children often create and present plays, and take part in puppet shows, singing, dancing, story-telling and art projects at weekly meetings.
Uganda: (AbleChildAfrica/USDC) used a C2C methodology to train CwoD to identify CwDs in the community and facilitate them to access schools.
UNICEF: (190 countries) Child-Friendly Schools Initiative

7. Resource Bases

Brazil: By 2011 Brazil had established 30,000 resource bases in schools to support the learning of disabled children. They had braille facilities, sign language and augmented and facilitated communication learning materials.

8. Developing Community Resource People

Bangladesh: (Plan) provide training for teachers, Heads and School Management Committees. Making the environment and learning accessible. Involving pupils in peer support and actively seeking their views has demonstrated a rapid improvement in quality education for all.

9. Reverse Inclusion

Bangladesh: (Save the Children) Accommodating CwoD the local areas alongside with CwDs. There are 12 branches all across Bangladesh. They also run a Community Based Rehabilitation Programme in surrounding areas. A school in Dhaka had 556 students, 136 of whom are part of the reverse-inclusion programme. There were 22 teachers and 36 teaching assistants. The school has a psychologist, speech and occupational therapists. Children have three pre-levels and can then join their grade class up to Grade 5, at the same levels as government schools. Parallel classes are run for those with more severe disabilities. They have developed a peer support model that seems to work very well, classes that we visited exhibited pairing of CwD and CwoD.

2.7 International data on disability

Reliable data is crucial in rendering CwD (and other marginalised groups) visible so they can be included in education in an equitable manner. The course of the research identified some issues and challenges associated with data that have relevance for the development of IE systems and planning/programming within the IE community. From the review of the literature (both academic and grey) and the data collection process itself, it became evident early on that definitions, and resulting interventions are very much a product of the Ugandan context, NGO programming, national policies and interaction with international frameworks on disability and inclusion. This has resulted in diverse definitions of disabilities and differences in the ways they are measured. For this study, the definitions employed are taken from government documents. Regarding a definition of IE, there is a fundamental a lack of cohesion in thinking around IE and what it is, should be and how it

needs to change. To explore this was not the remit of this study, however, this discussion is ongoing at a national level, and a cohesive definition and approach for IE is much needed to inform planning.

Challenges in measurement:

1. Measuring child disability is challenging in that the nature and severity of disability vary and the constraints placed upon data collection can make this process more complex.

2. Poor quality of data on child disability stems, in some cases, from stigma or insufficient investment in improving measurement.

3. Reliable data on CwDs disaggregated by sex and age estimates are rarely available due to:

- Diverse definitions (sometimes out-dated) and measures of disability are often used to gather data.
- Inadequate resources and statistical capacity may exist.
- CwDs are often hidden or have their existence denied by their families due to stigma or poor detection systems that prevent the collection of reliable data.

As a result, statistics may not be accurate, and estimates vary. It is estimated that:

- Over one billion people live with some form of disability, and between 110 and 190 million have significant difficulties in functioning.
- The estimated number of CwDs is somewhere in the range of 93-150 million.
- Roughly 5% of children aged 0–14 years (93 million) live with a 'moderate or severe' disability, and 0.7%, or 13 million children, live with severe difficulties.[26]

Why we need data:

Valid and reliable data is important for many reasons, not least to advocate for legislation, policies, funding, programming and the inclusion of disability on national and international political agendas. It also allows for the monitoring and evaluation of levels of disability and impact of programming and strategy. Inspection of this data allows for the recognition of patterns, and as this study demonstrates, may uncover interesting trends which were hidden (see Section 4.1). It also allows for comparability between districts, regions and countries as well as within cohorts (by gender, disability type, ethnicity, etc.). As noted previously, it is not always easy or possible to compare data when varying methods have been used to collect it and definitional issues affect identification. It is commonly accepted though that data routinely underestimates the number of CwDs.

[26] Taken from a presentation by Avetisyan, N. (UNICEF 2016).

Tools used to collect data:

- Ten Questions Screen (TQ) for childhood disability. This screening instrument was included as part of the Multiple Indicator Cluster Surveys (MICS). The objective was to create a low-cost and rapid method for identifying children who have congenital and developmental disabilities in populations where professional resources are extremely scarce.
- Ten Questions Screen, MICS has become the largest source of internationally comparable data on children with disabilities in developing countries. Since 2000, more than 50 MICS have collected data on this topic.
- WHO International Classification of Functioning, Disability and Health, Children and Youth version (ICF-CY) and the UN Convention on the Rights of Persons with Disabilities. The goal is to assess child functioning in light of barriers and supports to daily living and social participation and to ensure that the entire age spectrum and additional relevant domains are captured.
- UN group on Disability Statistics (called Washington Group) formed a subgroup in 2009 on child functioning and disability that is chaired by the National Statistical Office of Italy (ISTAT). The objective is the development of a short set of questions to reflect current thinking on child functioning and disability for inclusion in censuses and surveys. The new module uses the ICF-CY[27] as the conceptual framework and relies on a functional approach to measuring disability. The new Washington Group/UNICEF module covers children between 2 and 17 years of age and assesses speech and language, hearing, vision, learning (cognition and intellectual development), mobility and motor skills, emotions and behaviours. Two separate questionnaires are available: one for children aged 2 to 4 and another covering children aged 5 to 17. To better reflect the degree of disability, each area is assessed against a rating scale.

3.0 Research design

3.1 Research plan

This study was motivated by the desire to uncover examples of best practice of IE. The study design was informed by 'portraiture' approach,[28] with its focus on positive examples rather than barriers and problems. A core characteristic of this approach is a recognition that there are challenges and difficulties inherent in any context, but studying the '*strong and worthy in great detail*' allows us to work out ways in which to learn and bring these ideas to other settings and enable change.

[27] The International Classification of Functioning, Disability and Health for Children and Youth - WHO

[28] 'Portraiture seeks to blend art and science, bridging empiricism and aestheticism…One of the ways in which it is distinct from other research methodologies is in its focus on 'goodness'; documenting what is strong, resilient, and worthy in a given situation, resisting the more typical social science preoccupation with weakness and pathology.' Lawrence-Lightfoot. S (2016)

The research used a mixed methods approach to explore provision of IE through a disability lens. It was felt that using a disability lens would yield in depth case studies of best practice. CwDs are placed among some of the most vulnerable. This does not assume that disability is the only group that would benefit from IE, rather other marginalised groups such as girls and IDPs for example cross cut disability. To fully explore all marginalised and vulnerable groups that would benefit from IE would require a more extensive study. Programming organisations/institutions were consulted to map programmatic work and identify gaps in provision. Funders were also consulted to understand the landscape within which NGOs, CSOs and FBOs operate. National and district level government officials were part of the data collection and landscape mapping in order to identify areas of potential best practice but also future directions of IE in Uganda.

National-level quantitative data was used to identify regions with the highest enrolment of CwDs. The team then explored practices in these locations. Fieldwork was conducted in 38 education sites, including early childhood, primary, secondary and tertiary institutions. A conceptual framework was used to focus data collection on three domains: access, engagement and quality. The principal instrument used to identify best practice was an 'IE matrix', developed by Enable-Ed in collaboration with local and national stakeholders. Other sources of data include: questionnaires from over 53% of districts in Uganda and interviews with over 30 NGOs, CSOs, MoES and organisations working in IE/disability.

The research included a literature review on IE, models of inclusion and Ugandan specific research. The preliminary findings were presented to the IE community in March 2017 and this served to validate them and highlight areas for further research/discussion.

3.2 Stakeholder mapping and analysis

Building in stakeholder[29] mapping analysis as a means to assess change in outcomes for CwD demonstrates the relative impact these stakeholders have had on CwD. It also allowed the researchers to identify where data gaps existed. The parameters of this mapping and analysis included the following questions:

- Have all primary and secondary stakeholders been identified?
- Have all potential supporters and opponents of the research been identified?
- Have all the other stakeholders that are likely to emerge as a result of the research exercise been identified?
- Have stakeholders' interests been identified?
- Have stakeholders' interrelationships been identified?
- Have the research goals been reconciled with stakeholders' needs, interests, and priorities?

[29] The stakeholders here refer to the NGOs/FBOs/CSOs/DPOs, forums and networks in the IE environment.

The NGO/donor context

> *'With regard to international cooperation, and in line with SDG 4 and the Education 2030 Framework for Action, all bilateral and multilateral cooperation must advance inclusive and equitable quality education and promote lifelong learning opportunities for all, including support for capacity building, exchange and information sharing and best practices, research, technical and economic assistance, and facilitating access to accessible and assistive technologies. All data and spending of international assistance on education should be disaggregated by impairment. Consideration of an international coordination mechanism on inclusive education to operationalize SDG 4 and to build evidence, contribute to a better policy dialogue and monitor progress.' (UNCRPD, Article 24: Right to inclusive education:14)*

There is an extensive network of NGOs/FBOs/CSOs/forums and networks operating in IE either through the education and/or disability sector.

The NGOs/FBOs/CSOs/forums and networks consulted were identified and approached with a general questionnaire to ascertain whether they had any programming in IE. On reply, an interview was sought to clarify the type of IE provision. Initially, many NGOs were reluctant to participate and required multiple[30] contacts to gather information. Table 2 briefly outlines the organisations contacted and the nature of their programming. Where there is a gap in the table, this denotes a lack of information. This list is not exhaustive but highlights much of the current work in IE. Some NGOs in the list are not directly operating in IE but are there as their programming has had some intersection with IE. Examples and case studies of good practice from this perspective are outlined throughout the report.

[30] Not all, but at least 80% of them needed 2 or 3 attempts at contact, despite introductions by mutual contact.

Table 3: Stakeholder analysis

NGO/CSO/FBO Forum/Funder	Education programming focus	Explicit IE/CwD focus	Location	Funder
ADD International	Advocacy, policy influencing, capacity building and working directly with local disabled people's organisations (DPOs) to strengthen their organisations and promote the rights of disabled people in their communities.	N	Multi-location	
Action for youth with disabilities Uganda (AYDU)	Higher Education Advocacy and support for youth with disabilities in higher education.	Y	Multi-location	
Africa Education Trust	Distance education programmes Support teacher training and rebuild education systems, with a focus on girls' education	N		
BRAC UG	Scholarship – secondary & Play Lab/ECD To support 5,000 scholars from marginalised background, with scholarship to help them continue their education at secondary level – not explicitly CwDs A model for integrating play-based learning into the lives of young children between the ages of 3 and 5. We aim to educate and impact both children and their caregivers. Our approach to program design and development ensures that we can reach the most vulnerable children and their families. Not explicitly CwDs.	N		LEGO, Mastercard
Build Africa	EQUAL and ILEAP Working with parents, teachers and older pupils to support 26,000 young children's learning at school and at home. Teacher Training has IE/SEN component.	Y	Eastern and Western Uganda	Big Lottery Fund
Chance for Childhood	Chance for Childhood and local partner Passion for Community – pilot project on improving learning outcomes and attainment for children with SEN through individually tailored assistance, and greater parental support. Improving the learning environment and child protection support available for children with SEN, through building the capacity of teachers, and Parents and Teachers Associations.		Agago	

Caritas Kotido Diocese	Youth vocational/skills training project Inclusive in that it targets marginalised youth, for example through AIDS/HIV	N	Karamoja	EU/Dan church aid
Cheshire Services	Rights based education for CwD and youth with disabilities IE interventions, working with schools, parents, health sector and training.	Y	Multi location	DFID, EU, Leonard Cheshire Disability International
Children at Risk Action Network (CRANE)	CRANE is a network of organisations, schools and churches working with children at risk in the Greater Kampala region. The network currently works with 134 members that have 3,462 workers who together care for more than 70,480 children at risk. Part of the policy discussions in IE and IE provision. E.g. established Creative Learning Centres for OOSC to catch up.	Y	Kampala	
Concern Worldwide	Vocational training Youth directed vocational training skills – not IE specifically but work with refugees and IDPs	N	Karamoja, West Nile	
DFID	Support for education programming through GPE and GEC. Forthcoming: education-sector programme in Uganda, SESIL (Strengthening Education Systems for Improved Learning) to improve the equity and quality of measurable learning outcomes for girls and boys in Uganda.	Y	Multi-location	
ELECU	Improving basic education Education Local Expertise Centre, working with stakeholders such as parents to fully engage children in school, training of teachers in IE and full participation of students and infrastructure projects in schools.	Y	Multi-location	
Educate!	Work with the Ugandan government to include skills-based learning in secondary education by supporting the government's goal of student business creation through lower secondary education reform, promoting teacher training for skills-based education and use of Educate!'s 21st-century skills assessment tool.	N	Multi-location	Ashoka, GIF, Mastercard
Embrace Kulture	Works with and for children with intellectual disabilities Works in inclusive education with teacher training and best practice research and implementation. Works with partners, special schools, vocational training and outreach.	Y		
FENU	Forum for Education NGOs in Uganda: FENU is made up of over 100 civil society organisations and community-based organisations who undertake joint advocacy work to influence government and campaign for change,	y	Based in Kampala	

	working for the right to education for all children in Uganda. Thematic groups include access and quality which addresses issues of IE.			
FHI 360. Girls' Education Challenge	Country wide programme is targeting girl's education through partners. Specifically targeting marginalised, out-of-school girls, aged between 10 and 19, particularly those facing disability, CEFM (child early forced marriage), violence and conflict.	Y	Multi location	DFID
Finn Church Aid	FCA is organising vocational training in the refugee settlement of Rwamwanja. FCA is also building learning spaces, support refugee children with disabilities and the livelihood of people in crises.	Y	Multi location	UNICEF
Hands for Hope	Supports children through nursery, primary and secondary education as well as those with special needs, also run a holiday programme for children during the school holidays. Children with Special Needs programme includes 12 children attending our special needs class, participation of all the children at the holiday programme, health and medical support including physiotherapy, a support group for parents with disabled children	Y	Kampala	Lift UK, VMM, British Airways KLM, Brass for Africa Electric Aid, Ireland
International Institute of Rural Reconstruction	Girls Education Focus on re-enrolling girls in school through raising goats and selling them onto communities to raise funds to support their education.	N	Karamoja	Well springs Advisors
International Rescue Committee	Refugees settlements Improving the lives of women and girls and ensure that they are equal to men and boys in literacy and numeracy, social and emotional, and livelihood skills. Develop adults and youth access to quality educational resources, and develop age-appropriate literacy, numeracy, and social and emotional skills. The IRC will provide refugees with the skills and resources they need to find success in the workplace.	N	Yumbe, northern region	Pfizer
Leonard Cheshire	Accessible and sustainable livelihoods for people with disabilities in Uganda – no education programming	N	Adjumani and Moyo	
NUDIPU	NUDIPU promotes the equalisation of opportunities and active participation of PWDs in mainstream development processes. This is pursued through participation in policy planning, capacity building (with PTCs – training on IE), awareness enhancement and	Y	Multi-location	NAD, APT, Enterprise Development (UK)

	resource mobilisation. Youth programme focusses on access and vocational training for youth. Programme to promote access of CwD to IE.			DFID, Abilis Foundation, Cordaid, Disability Rights Fund
Oysters and Pearls	Integrates technology and science in schools that are inclusive of the blind. An advocate of women and girls' opportunities in education and sports as well as promoting wildlife conservation. Supports education for the visually impaired, blind and sighted students in two ways, 1) with physical tools and 2) with the knowledge and experience from our teachers and mentors.	Y	Multi-location	
PEAS	A network of 28 secondary schools in Uganda which aim to make the schools financially sustainable within two years and provide a quality education. Has had a focus on marginalised girls and has a teacher training programme which supports inclusive classroom pedagogy. Future focus will be on CwDs after a scoping exercise. Positive impact on learning outcomes reported, despite a more disadvantaged cohort/intake.	Y	Multi-location	
PLAN	Initiating awareness-raising in the community on the value of education for boys and girls, to financial support targeting the most marginalised children to meet their basic school requirements. Construct, renovate and resource primary schools.	N	Multi-location	
RedEarth Education	Run reading and school improvement programmes in over 80 primary schools. They have a focus on working with teachers and leadership to enact change in teaching and learning.	N	Masindi	Comic Relief, various foundations
RTI	Uganda SHRP (2012–2019) To improve the reading ability of more than 2 million children, the USAID-funded Uganda School Health and Reading Program (SHRP) is identifying and implementing strategies to improve reading skills of children with disabilities. To date, approximately 43,000 learners have benefited from this intervention. In January 2016, nearly 9,000 teachers and practitioners were shown how to identify and support learners with special education needs. Early grade reading 'teacher guides' focus on literacy skills of learners with special learning needs.		Multi location	UNICEF
Save the Children	Strengthening girls education and Early Childhood Care and Development and Basic Education.The programme covers basic quality education (both formal and informal), early childhood care and development (ECCD) and Education in Emergencies. Creates opportunity for deprived young children to attend quality inclusive early childhood care and development and transition successfully into basic education. The Education in Emergencies		Multi location	StC Korea

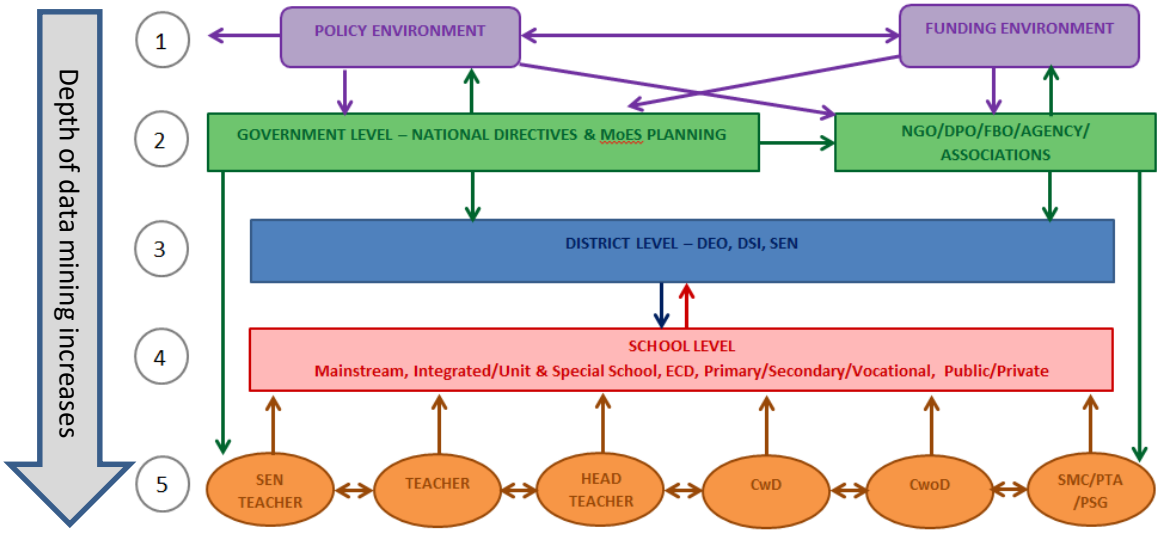
	intervention creates access to education for children affected by emergencies and living in refugee camps. Through training of teachers, community mobilisation, coaching and mentoring of teachers/instructors, research and documentation, advocacy and working in partnerships.			
Sense	Work with people with deafblindness, children with MSI faced with communication problems and families of children with deafblindness. Improved education for deafblind people through CBE strategy, vocational skills and social protection for deafblind people, early intervention for infants with sensory impairment, a screening programme for children 0-3, early intervention health services and development of appropriate learning materials for children, educators, teachers, parents and community members.	Y	Multi-location	
Sight Savers	The EU-funded "Connecting the Dots" project run by Sightsavers in Uganda was implemented in collaboration with Uganda National Association of the Blind (UNAB) and the National Union of Disabled People of Uganda (NUDIPU) and completed in August 2016.	Y	Multi location	EU
SoftPower	The programme aims to enhance and trains teachers, therapists and community members in SEN while providing a safe and well-resourced learning environment for CwD. The aim is to enable CwD to enter into an integrated mainstream education system by providing specialist care and equipment to aid their education and welfare.	Y	Jinja	
STIR EDUCATION	Work with teachers to build teacher networks. Set up ongoing, local communities of practice through which teachers tangibly improve their classroom practice and children's learning.	N	Multi-location	
UNEB	Uganda National Examinations Board – have recently changed time conditions for children that need support.	N		
UNICEF	Supporting government to develop an IE policy. Working with Kyambogo University to develop child participation in supporting other learners and develop C2C materials.	Y		
UNAPD	Currently work in 41 districts with District Associations of Persons with Physical Disability, fully registered as Community Based Organisations. Areas: Advocacy and policy, capacity building, rehabilitation and healthcare, fundraising and mobilisation, M+E and gender, youth, child development and IE.	Y	Multi-location	

USAID	Since 2007, the USAID-funded initiative known as the UNITY project has been supporting the department to implement a series of initiatives aimed at establishing, mainstreaming, and institutionalising special-needs programs throughout the Uganda education system. In 2008, with UNITY support, the curriculum was adapted to target gaps in special needs education. Printed copies were distributed to classrooms, and over 900 teachers received training.	Y	Multi-location	
USDC	IE project - improve education service provider's attitudes and practices about the education of CwDs, to increase the co-ordination of local level service provider's structures of education in Uganda and to increase CwD's enrolment and retention in school. Key activities include assisting the development of an inclusive education policy, organisation of teacher training sessions, arranging outreach and providing sponsorship or direct support for children to access to schooling. Improving completion rates for primary school learners with disabilities.	Y	Multi-location	
VSO	Evaluating and improving quality of primary education	Y	Multi-location	Irish Aid
World Vision	Addressing Barriers to Enrolment and Retention to Education in Karamoja	Y	Multi-location	Qatar Foundation, KOICA and 'World Vision Korea'.

3.3 Data collection instruments

Quantitative and qualitative data were used to determine potential sites for further study. The diagram below shows the levels at which this was collected and the sampling strategy at each level. A description of the tools can be found in Annex 3.

Figure 3: Sampling and data collection levels



1. Level 1 was primarily concerned with the literature surrounding the issues associated with IE, but this research also reviewed literature surrounding IE in Uganda, especially those that document good practice. This level of data collection was concerned with looking at the policy framework in which IE sits and how that is translated down through the levels designated below. Regarding the wider policy environment outside of Uganda, other institutions were contacted to determine international thinking on disability and education and the state of IE regarding delivery, progress towards and ideas surrounding its provision. For example, the 'I-4-A Framework', which assesses education against the principles of inclusion, availability, accessibility, acceptability, and adaptability of education, as developed by the Special Rapporteur on the Right to Education.
   Data collection tools: Literature review, review of existing materials, stakeholder consultations through Skype/email, organisations and individuals identified in both the UK and Uganda in both the policy and funding environments (some of these actors were identified through the level 2 data collection process).

2. Level 2 was a simple scoping exercise to assess the degree of data available and a mapping of actors at this level and of districts to cover. This was then qualified with qualitative data through interviews to ensure as much as possible examples of best practice on a district level were being captured. The main assumption here in the process of determining districts to visit was the number of CwDs as a percentage of total enrolment. It was felt that this

would be a good indicator of the degree of access and that there would be reasons why this was the case.
Data collections tools: At this level, there was an initial survey tool for the NGO/FBO/CSO stakeholders and one for the district level. Both seek to identify a) what provision is being made for CwD and b) what areas appear to be doing this well. This was collected through additional contact in more depth with both of these groups.
An additional element that was included here was the survey of the provision of IE/SEN training by teacher training institutes. This was collected to provide the background to assessing the IE provision in schools.

3. Level 3 was the in-depth field work to identify and explore examples of good practice from a district level.
   Data collection tools: This element was collected through semi-structured interviews with district level stakeholders either in person or via phone. It was important to not only verify numbers but also explore the barriers to inclusion and planning for inclusion at a district level.

4. Level 4 was the result of drilling down through the data of levels 2 and 3 to see what IE looks like on a school level. Although the primary motivation was to find examples of good practice, the barriers to achieving IE and the constraints that schools face in doing this were also identified. A mix of school level (pre-primary, primary, secondary and vocational) and type (public/private and informal/formal) was also considered. At this point, the main tool employed was the Inclusion Matrix (discussed below). The tools used to support the Inclusion matrix are outlined in Annex 1.

The Inclusion Matrix:

The Inclusion Matrix was developed over time and included both feedback sought by key actors in Inclusive Education in Uganda[31] and use in the field. Each theme covered in the matrix had specific tools that were used to form an opinion on the degree to which the theme had been developed in schools. For example, the learning environment assessment was a combination of lesson observations, a learning walk in the school and use of checklists to assess the degree of physical change in and out of the classroom. All the tools were piloted in Masindi during a 3-day training/piloting session and feedback built into the final tools. At this stage, there was in-depth qualitative data collection regarding the attitudes and perceptions of key stakeholders. The child attitude and perception tool was piloted to see what generated the most robust data (as this is notoriously difficult) and the tool itself was based on the well-researched connection that children's attitudes are a direct result of their experience which forms their perception. One critical element here was to include the voices of parents and their attitude towards their children's education. This was collected through a combination of FGDs and semi-structured interviews.

[31] Individuals from NGOs (ADDInternational and EmbraceKulture), independent consultants, DPO members, UNEB and Enable-Ed/USDC formed a working party to design and validate the Inclusion matrix during August/September 2016.

Level 5 generated rich data which corroborated and triangulated with level 4 and added in-depth understanding around the areas that IE programming could make the most difference to the lives of CwD and CwoD about attainment, attitude, and future potential.

3.4 Sampling strategy

When planning the sampling strategy, the following stages were considered:

Stage 1: Do we need a sample?
Questions to do with sampling have arisen out of the availability of data and the population size. As this research covered the whole of Uganda and was at many levels of the education system both formal and non-formal getting a representative sample was subject to much discussion. The methodology arose out of this discussion, and it was framed by exploring factors influencing sampling. Most qualitative research does not rely on a sample but uses purposive sampling to generate critical cases. This was supported by reputational case sampling from key actors involved in IE in Uganda. The representativeness and parameters of the sample needed to capture best practice in a variety of educational settings and areas. However, we were interested in best practice and what works, not a representation of each region. Also, we did not want to exclude the possibility of best practice occurring in settings outside the NGOs' influence, and so consulted DPOs and MoES officials to garner examples of best practice. Data will be collected from a variety of sources (District officials, NGOs, Head Teachers, Teachers, CwD and CwoD, SEN teachers, PSGs/SMCs and PTAs) to ensure that most or all of the perceptions gathered will lead to the attainment of saturation (Glaser and Strauss 1967).

Stage 2: The sampling frame: the population, its important features, and its size.
There are no specific rules when determining an appropriate sample size in qualitative research. The qualitative sample size is affected by the study's objectives and the time and other resources available (Patton, 1990); in this case, the time frame and budget were key determinants. 38 educational sites were visited and more were discussed through secondary data collection and contact with NGOs.

Stage 3: The sampling strategy:
In general, the researchers adopted a non-probability purposive sampling strategy where the emphasis was placed on finding examples of best practice, so how far they are representative of a wider population was not relevant. What is relevant is the learning discovered about best practice, so case study research will be utilised. At the top level, a mixed strategy was used to ensure maximum exposure to best practice. On the one hand, there was the data collection at the government level to enable the team to drill down to the regional/district level, and then on the other, a 'snowball sampling' method enabled the team to access districts and then schools that had examples of best practice. The individuals who identified examples of best practice included government officials from the MoES, the Inclusion Matrix working party and NGOs working in IE.

Stage 4: Access to the sample:

Regarding access to the sample, two areas were of concern: access and quality/availability of information. Our 5-level methodology required access to data and information at the government/ministry level, and the corresponding assessment of data reliability/validity was made throughout the research process. There were some difficulties in accessing this data/information, but this was overcome through repeated questioning and utilisation of key actors to facilitate access. Some issues existed in engaging the NGO/FBO/CSO programming sector, in part due to the time pressured environment in which they all operate but also due to timings. There was a smaller than anticipated response from district level officials, and the decentralised nature of the system required much chasing-up by USDC on questionnaires delivered and not returned (53% of districts fully engaged with the research). At a school level, there were no issues in gathering data, and all participated fully, although a couple were very interested to know what was going to happen as a result of this research as they felt that many people came to see their school but brought nothing with them, and nothing changed as a consequence.

Stage 5: Identify the people required in the sample

This was outlined in the above diagram that details the sampling strategy. This was also a result of the research teams' prior experience but also discussions with the steering group and IE working group that has helped and advised the research team.

Stage 6: Gaining and managing access and contact

A variety of methods were utilised to contact key stakeholder, for example, telephone calls to District level officials, meetings with Ministry level contacts and email for the NGO/DPO/FBO/Agency and Association contact. However, decisions had to be taken concerning how much chasing to obtain information was necessary and prudent. For example, there was a cut-off point with Ministry officials as the research team had time constraints and time was deemed better to be spent on other areas of the research.

Stage 7: Adjust data?

Reflexive questioning occurred throughout the research process:
Are further iterations of data collection needed?
Does the data need to be weighted?
Does the development of the Inclusion matrix include suitable criteria for assessing schools' IE provision?
The tools, Inclusion matrix and secondary data sources were questioned as much as possible to ensure that they provided the most objective, reliable data. In some cases, these were modified to reflect the context in Uganda.

Figure 4: Sites visited throughout the data collection

See annex 4 for a full list of schools/education institutions visited.

Additional considerations

Stakeholder discussions highlighted the desire for the report to be used to challenge perceptions that inclusive education resulting in quality outcomes for learners is impossible in a Ugandan context. The researcher team agreed to develop a short video resource alongside the report which evidenced good practice and the views of the stakeholders. The belief that an audiovisual medium would have a greater impact in challenging these perceptions than simply the written word was confirmed during the validation workshop in Kampala (March 2017).

Throughout the data collection process consideration has been given to the storage and sharing of data. During the higher level data collection (NGOs, districts, etc.) they were asked if they wished to share data and their preferences noted. Regarding data storage, Enable-Ed and USDC ensured that files were password protected and only shared within the team.

All interviews and FGDs were anonymised and data collectors considered whether their presence might skew/bias the data collection, for example, a man did not collect data from an all-girl group. Data collectors worked in male/female pairs where appropriate and permission to speak to children was sought from schools. Consideration was also given to extracting the information from the groups in question and the need to have different language speakers and signers. The data collection tools were specifically designed to negate many of these issues and used images and simple classification to elicit responses.

USDC has collected data from vulnerable groups for many years, and all data collectors were screened as to their ability to collect data and their suitability in working with children, vulnerable or otherwise. The UK researchers have also worked with many different groups of children and have both got current Disclosure and Barring Service (DBS) certificates.

Figure 5 shows the extent of the sites visited and the amount of educational provision assessed. For a more detailed discussion on the NGOs and funders that were contacted, please see the main report.

3.5 Limitations

There proved to be myriad ways in which NGOs, government, schools and literature identified and classified disability. This lack of consistency in the sector can be problematic and result in various definitions of disability and a range of numbers. The research team decided to use the government definition of disability under the assumption that the national data would reflect them and districts would more than likely use them. While it was not the remit of this research, there is a real need to have a discussion on this area, so there is consistency of reporting and data collection. This is important on a school level as some sites reported lower levels of CwD as a percentage of enrolment

as there were CwDs in school but were not regarded has having a disability, rather they were 'slower learners' or their disability was not recognised.

There are seven regions and 112 districts in Uganda, so the case study element of 38 schools is not conclusively representative of IE provision in Uganda; however, given the time and budget constraints the research team feels that this is a number that generated in-depth, rich data. Notable areas that did not generate many examples of good practice are:

- ECD – despite an ECD policy in Uganda there is patchy provision, and although sites were visited they did not have CwDs present, despite a recommendation that they were enrolled. One suggestion the research team has as to why there are lower levels and a lack of best practice examples is that CwD are commonly kept at home, and ECD provision is in some cases unaffordable.
- Secondary – there were fewer examples of best practice at this level due to low transition rates.
- Tertiary level – as with secondary there are fewer examples of best practice as there are fewer CwDs transitioning to this level. Also where this did occur, the educational settings were not inclusive and were established solely for vocational education for the benefit of CwDs. It was government policy to have a vocational college in all regions to serve the CwD population (e.g. Kampala vocational school for the physically handicapped).

Despite the best intentions, the NGO/FBO/CSO sector surveyed was not comprehensive as it was determined by the organisations' interest in meeting with the researchers. The ability to report on costs of interventions was compromised by the lack of willingness of organisations to disclose this information. However, what was available has been represented, any future study on this needs to define the parameters for cost calculation carefully as many programmes reported they could not separate out the individual cost per intervention as they were cross cutting. The DPO sector was also not extensively consulted which is a weakness of the research and needs to be addressed in the future.

There was a tight timeframe in which to collect field data. Schools re-opened in the first week of October 2016 with an exam period in November coupled with the long holiday in December 2016 to February 2017 made the piloting of school-based tools and completion of field visits urgent. However, all planned data collection points were realised.

Some geographical areas were not covered. These tended to be areas where there is or has been instability, a greater presence of internally displaced people (IDPs) and refugees and environmental risks, such as drought. For example, Karamoja was not part of the field visits plan as no data was returned by the district. In this case, stakeholder consultation with Save the Children generated sufficient data for a survey of provision.

4.0 Key findings

4.1 At the national level

The national policy context is, generally speaking, conducive for IE. Uganda initiated internal discussions surrounding Special Needs Education (SNE) in the 1950s[32] and has consistently been a signatory to the relevant international conventions and agreements, and the rights of disabled people are recognised. Uganda, in particular, Kampala, is home to many NGOs and their regional headquarters and there is a strong disability movement in the country with a wide range of organisations providing advocacy on disability issues and involvement in training, livelihoods, and education programmes for disabled people (which were included in the data collection for this research). Policy dialogue is active, and there are a number of relevant individuals and organisations (a large NGO presence) involved in the conceptualisation and development of an IE policy. National policy not only acts to guide strategy and implementation, but it also acts as a barometer of what is possible regarding programming.

The IE and SNE policy[33] has been five years in the making and is still not passed by the cabinet. The issue is around developing a problem statement that sets out the definitions associated with IE and what needs to be addressed. Without this, policy construction is in a vacuum and implementation will be virtually impossible. This is a constraint for those working in IE and affects programming and implementation. One issue is that there are many voices in the IE debate that are competing for their place and believe that their cause is more important. Disability is one sector[34] within these task force meetings and policy discussions, and within the disability sector itself, there are many types of disability, which are distinct and focused, requiring specialist knowledge, which results in a slightly protectionist attitude in discussions. Fundamentally, there is no widely accepted definition of IE and articulation of what this would look like in reality; this makes policy formulation challenging.

Furthermore, while it is recognised that marginalised groups are subject to different experiences and have varying barriers and opportunities, the focus on and lobbying for the interests of one group is naturally exclusive to others, which makes policy development and implementation of IE more difficult.

[32] Although it wasn't until 1980 that legislation was passed.
[33] In January 2017 this policy was merged with the informal education policy, so there is now one broad policy that covers all types of inclusion, not exclusively in relation to disability, for example people disadvantaged through gender, poverty, refugee, rurality etc.
[34] The other voices come from the MOES, academia, the educational establishment and with some health representation.

At this level, there are relatively rigid structures[35] that are slowly starting to recognise that to realise inclusive education goals there needs to be a readjustment and redesign of curriculum and assessment, for example, the introduction of extra time, signers and support to sit exams. One of the strengths and challenges of this system is its decentralised nature[36]; the districts are relatively autonomous, with control over how they spend their budgets. National level policy exists, but these matters are largely decided at the district level. This is a challenge to achieving scale and roll-out of government policy nationwide. However, individual districts showcased outstanding examples of best practice as there are strengths in each place and success is in large part due to the individuals operating at each level of this system.

Regarding enacting change, the development of teachers has long been recognised as key to improving the quality of a school system. Traditionally, in the arena of IE and SNE, teacher upskilling and development has come through NGO involvement. Currently, there is an increased focus and momentum to upskill in-service teachers through CPD and implement curriculum changes for pre-service teachers through developments in mainstreaming SNE in teacher education programmes through 56 Primary Teacher Training Colleges (PTCs). In reality, the revised curriculum for PTCs is not completed yet, and a large number of teachers are left without access to SNE training. Furthermore, the capacity to do this is constrained by the availability of professionals and places to carry out these activities. Although the decision to authorise the Department of SNE in Kyambogo University to train SNE teachers was taken in 1991, this remains the only higher education institution to train such specialist teachers.

The influence of the NGO sector has historically been strong, and one seminal point in the development of IE and SNE was the agreement signed by Uganda and the DANIDA (Danish Development Agency) in the 1990s to provide both financial and technical support for the development of IE.[37] This support occurred at every level of the system from the national government to schools and communities. During this investigation, the continual referencing of this programme by NGOs, educationalists and funders indicated that there had been a lack of movement and development of IE and SNE on a system-wide basis on the ground since the Danish programme.

[35] These structures include the UNEB, the MOES, the teacher training institutions and quality assurance. These do not necessarily work together and indeed with the CSO/NGO sector in the planning and delivery of change. There were many cases where information was shared from one organisation/body to another through the process of data collection for this report e.g. the knowledge of work going on in the PTCs to upgrade the SNE curriculum for initial teacher training.

[36] In 1997 the Government of Uganda enacted the Decentralization Act and provision of education services was assigned to the districts. A specific position for Education Officer-Special Needs was created within the various district structures whose responsibility was to coordinate assessment, provision and monitoring of Special Needs Education at local government level (including districts and sub-countries), although this position was always filled in the districts visited for the research.

[37] Between 1997-1998, DANIDA implemented a country wide Education Assessment Resource Services (EARS) project which supported training of SNE teachers, materials and the establishment of special needs units in schools and the construction of at least 9 special schools during this period (which are still in operation) . In 1999, DANIDA led on the creation of the SNE department in the MOES. Additionally by 2005, a component of SNE had been integrated as part of the training curriculum PTCs. The districts also had a vehicle to coordinate SNE activities but none of these were seen in the research data collection.

National and geo-political events, funding and grants largely dictate programming and all the NGOs (both educational or those working in the disability sector) reflect that when IE is on the agenda, they will have IE programming but not otherwise. In other words, disability is not yet fully mainstreamed. Funding tends to be short term (3-5years) and cyclical. It can also dictate the areas in which NGOs work and programme, for example, the refugee and war-torn areas are a priority and places such as Karamoja have received a disproportionate amount. This is not to detract from these areas or goals of funders but rather serve to illustrate the difficulty in consistently implementing the longer-term goals of IE.

Throughout the research data collection and interviews with NGOs, Forums and CSOs it became apparent that there is a lack of knowledge-sharing and open networking that would benefit the sector. For example, some NGOs are involved with the IE and SNE policy formation but others are not, and information about this was passed on throughout the data collection for this report. One observation made by many smaller NGOs is that there is a lack of education professionals in education programming jobs and a lack of understanding of the issues that teachers in classrooms face. Donors and funders interviewed for this research (see annex 5) demonstrated an emerging interest and focus on inclusion/disability (especially in the context of learning) but none explicitly targeted inclusion either programmatically or across the portfolio of funds.[38] USAID/RTI has shifted its thinking towards inclusion but not explicitly in the programme design phase, and NGOs also commented on the lack of available funds for inclusion and how this has negatively impacted equity.

4.1.1 What does the national level data tell us?

At a national level, the MoES publishes the Uganda Education Statistical Abstract.[39] There is a considerable time lag between the collection and publication, so at the commencement of the study, only the 2013 educational abstract was available. However, the data for 2014 and 2015 was published by November 2016. This publication presents the number of children with a disability enrolled in pre-primary, primary and secondary institutions in Uganda. It disaggregates this by gender, disability type (defining the disability types as autism, physical, visual, hearing and mentally impaired as well as children with multiple 'handicaps'), grade and also in the appendices by district. Data is based on voluntary responses to the Annual School Census form from both public and private schools in Uganda (97% of government schools were reported as responding).

The veracity and reliability of national-level data is always a consideration. When the Special Needs Department of the MoES were asked about the census, they highlighted significant limitations in particular given inconsistent definitions of disability types and therefore identification of disabled children. However, they remain the only available figures for Uganda and have been used in this research with the caveat that it is likely that they only represent a partial reflection of the actual

[38] This resonates with the international landscape in funding, 'Most large donors allocate funds to basic education programmes in developing countries (including pre-primary education) without earmarking specific amounts for disability or inclusive approaches. Norad (2016) was unusual in being able to show that 29% of its education funds were directed to inclusive education. Elsewhere, the lack of data on allocations suggests that disability and inclusive education are not yet a priority for the leadership of large donor agencies.

[39] All data used is from the 2015 Education Abstract

situation. Even as a rough portrait, the national figures offer insights into the education system's progress and suggest further avenues of inquiry. Despite misgivings about the quality of national-level data, some distinct trends emerge from it. A parametric form of time trend such as a linear trend (or group specific) encourages confidence in the data and as such tentative conclusions can be drawn from it.

One challenge to using the national data was inconsistencies in the definitions of disability used at different levels of the education system, from schools to the MoES. This was further exacerbated by the differing definitions used by the NGO/funding sector. At a MoES level, the census had significant limitations due to the above reasons and represented a partial reflection of the current situation. However, the fact that national level data illustrates trends means that the data can be used in part to expose further questioning and identify potential gaps for programming and effective expenditure.

4.1.2 Total enrolment

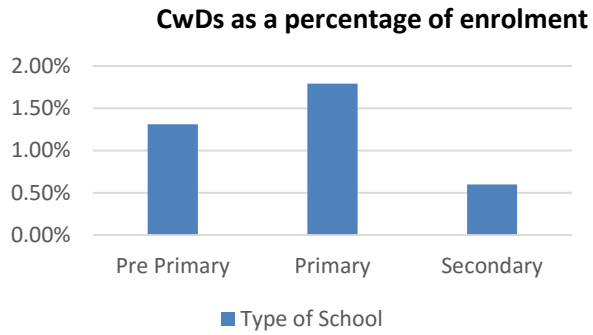
National data provides total enrolment of CwDs in pre-primary, primary and secondary. Disability is disaggregated by hearing, visual, physical, learning, autism and multiple disabilities. The national data for primary schools for 2015 showed there were 148,095 CwDs (77,952M, 70,143F) accessing primary education. What it does not identify is how many accessed special schools and how many an inclusive setting. Even without this information, certain observations can be made.

The data was collected from a total of 18,889 primary schools, 12,048 (63.8%) government owned. This would imply an average number of disabled children per school of 7.84. Again, the average figure should be treated with caution; there was considerable anecdotal evidence that disabled children were far less likely to access private schools although there is no hard data to support this. This will not affect the total figure; moreover, it would infer that the average in government schools would be higher albeit not significantly. Even if all disabled children went to a government school the average number of disabled children per primary school would be 12.29. Disabled children enrolled in primary schooling was 1.79% of total enrolment.[40] There is a lack of reliable data on disability prevalence rates, but a commonly quoted figure is 13% (UNICEF 2014).[41] Based on a prevalence rate of 13%, the logic would be that disabled children should make up 13% of total enrolment. Given the actual figure is 1.79% this would imply there are approximately 925,000 disabled children 'missing'. The term 'missing' refers both to children who are not accessing school and those who have not been identified as disabled.

For Pre-Primary Schools, there are a total of 6249 (3575M, 2674F) CwDs enrolled in school. This equates to disabled children making up 1.31% of total enrolment. At secondary, there are 7751 CwDs (3991M 3760F) which is 0.60% of total enrolment. Putting the figures together, it can be clearly seen that at primary the number of CwDs as a % of enrolment is greatest.

[40] This figure is obtained by dividing the total number of disabled children by the total school enrolment.
[41] Although a recent study quotes 16%.

Figure 5: CwDs as a percentage of overall enrolment by school level



There are various possible reasons why this could be the case.

- Due to the focus of the MDGs, NGO programmes have tended to concentrate efforts on the primary sector.
- For children in pre-primary, identification may not be as strong due to lack of skilled SEN teachers, and also there may be greater reticence for parents to send their CwDs to pre-primary due to fears of their safety. (This is developed further later in the section about parental attitudes).
- Secondary education in Uganda is free at the point of delivery, however, there are significant costs attached to attending secondary school.[42] Families of disabled children may have perceptions of it not being value for money, and crucially the quality of education the CwDs received in primary may prevent the children achieving well enough in their primary leaving exams to access secondary.

4.1.3 Disaggregation by grade

The analysis of CwDs as a % of total enrolment disaggregated by grade in primary school shows that the percentage is lowest in P1 and P7 (1.53% and 1.57% respectively).[43] Tentative reasons point towards a reluctance of parents to send their CwD to school at a young age (see section on parents). For all children in Uganda, there is a significant drop in numbers between P6 and P7, with a greater drop experienced by CwD. Head teachers reported examination results pressure encouraged schools not to promote pupils to P7 that would not pass.

[42] Uganda became the first country in sub-Saharan Africa to introduce USE in 2007. Under the secondary scheme, students who get specific grades in each of the four primary school-leaving exams study free in public schools and participating private schools. The government pays the schools an annual grant of up to UGX 141,000 ($52) per student, spread over three school terms. Parents, though, have to provide students' uniform, stationery, meals and transport.

[43] It is worth noting that children start in P1 regardless of age and progress through the school system. This results in gross enrolment rates which exceed 100%.

'…schools only encourage children to enter P7 if they are going to do well in the National Primary Leaving Exams…' Head teacher, Masindi

In Uganda, promotion is not automatic but subject to teacher discretion. However, for P1 to P4, on discussion with district education offices, the vast majority of children are promoted as it is regarded as a teacher's failure if children are not promoted.
For secondary, CwDs as a % of total enrolment did not vary significantly between grades.

Table 4: CwD as a percentage of total enrolment by grade

a) Primary

Grade	Total CwDs	Total All Children	CwDs as % of Total Enrolment
P1	28,225	1,842,006	1.53%
P2	22,273	1,277,974	1.74%
P3	24,771	1,283,194	1.93%
P4	25,798	1,272,522	2.03%
P5	20,923	1,101,698	1.90%
P6	16,899	901,939	1.87%
P7	9,206	584,984	1.57%
All	**148,095**	**8,264,317**	**1.79%**

b) Secondary

Grade	Total CwDs	Total All Children	CwDs as % of Total Enrolment
S1	2,012	326,591	0.62%
S2	1,623	299,262	0.54%
S3	1,582	279,851	0.57%
S4	1,480	242,248	0.61%
S5	562	70,317	0.80%
S6	492	65,379	0.75%
All	**7,751**	**1,283,648**	**0.60%**

1. Gender

Gender ratios (M: F):

1.34:1	for disabled males to females accessing pre-primary school
0.98:1	for all pre-primary children in Uganda
1.11:1	for disabled males to females accessing primary school
0.995:1	for all primary children in Uganda (virtual gender parity)[44]
1:06:1	for disabled males to females accessing secondary school
1.11:1	for all secondary children in Uganda

[44] It is worth noting that in the 'missing' data there are more girls than boys.

According to disability type, it becomes clear that girls with a physical disability are more disadvantaged in primary and secondary.

Table 5: Gender ratios by disability type[45]

	Gender Ratio Pre-Primary	Gender Ratio Primary	Gender Ratio Secondary
Autism	1.2	1.24	1.12
Hearing Impaired	1.27	1.03	1.13
Mentally Impaired	1.45	1.13	0.96
Multiple Disability	1.49	1.2	1.69
Physically Impaired	1.4	1.29	1.47
Visually Impaired	1.23	1.05	0.91
All CwDs	**1.33**	**1.11**	**1.06**

4.1.4 Disability type

The breakdown of CwDs accessing primary school by disability type is shown below. This is then compared with the estimated breakdown of CwDs living in Uganda by disability type (ACPF 2011:22) – the implication being that where the gap is widest, there exists a higher likelihood of a child not accessing school. This can be clearly seen to be the case for physical and multiple disabilities.

Table 4: Access by disability type

	Breakdown of CwDs accessing Primary of School by disability type	Breakdown of CwDs in Uganda by disability type	Gap between access to school and prevalence rate (Measured in % points)
Hearing Impaired	28.4%	23.1%	-5.3
Mentally Impaired	23.7%	21.9%	-1.8
Physically Impaired	17.0%	25.0%	+8.0
Visually Impaired	25.3%	23.5%	-1.8
Autism	3.2%	Not Known	
Multiple	2.4%	6.3%	+3.9

4.1.5 Geographical area

Uganda is divided into a number of geographical regions. By disaggregating enrolment (pre-primary, primary and secondary) by area, it is possible to identify areas where CwDs are more or less likely to

[45] In this section the research team has decided to use the government classification of disability type as reflected in their data.

access education which may be an indicator for future programming. Figure 7 shows CwDs in school as a % of total enrolment by region and phase of schooling (pre-primary, primary and secondary).

What can be noted is that a number of districts have high enrolment in all three school phases (Lango, Teso, West Nile, Elgon & Acholi). The research team (in particular the local partner) highlighted possible reasons for this, and it was part of the discussion with other stakeholders. The consensus of these discussions was that these are all areas that have had particularly active NGO involvement (for example Acholi, West Nile and Teso were affected by the war, so have had greater NGO programming). Another influence on these numbers is the incidence of poverty compounded by a potentially higher disability prevalence rate due to the war (though no specific data is available to confirm this).

Figure 6: CwD enrolment as a percentage of total enrolment by region

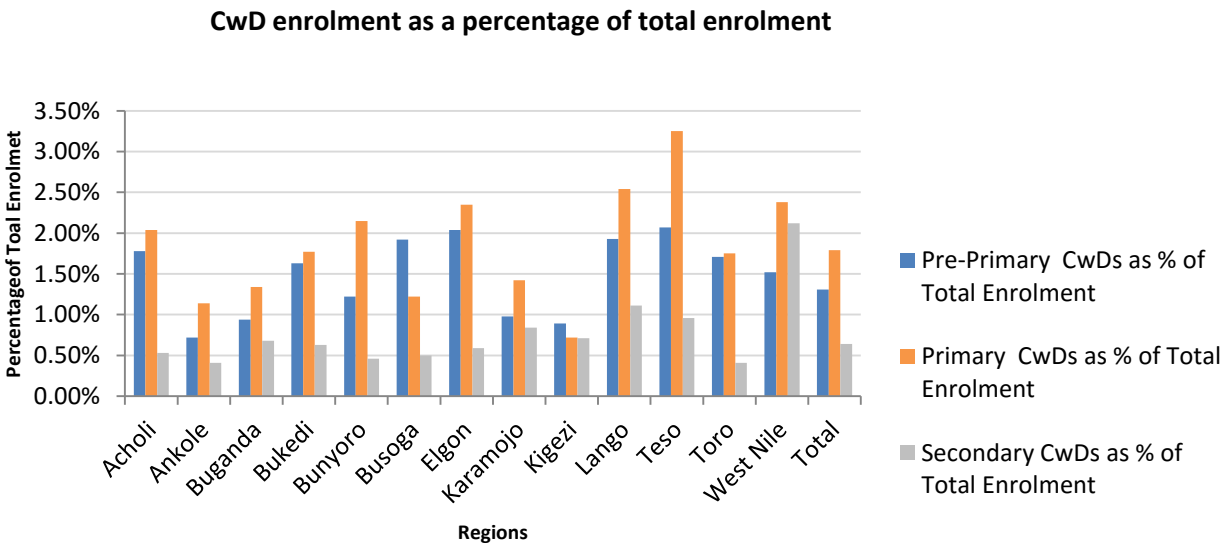


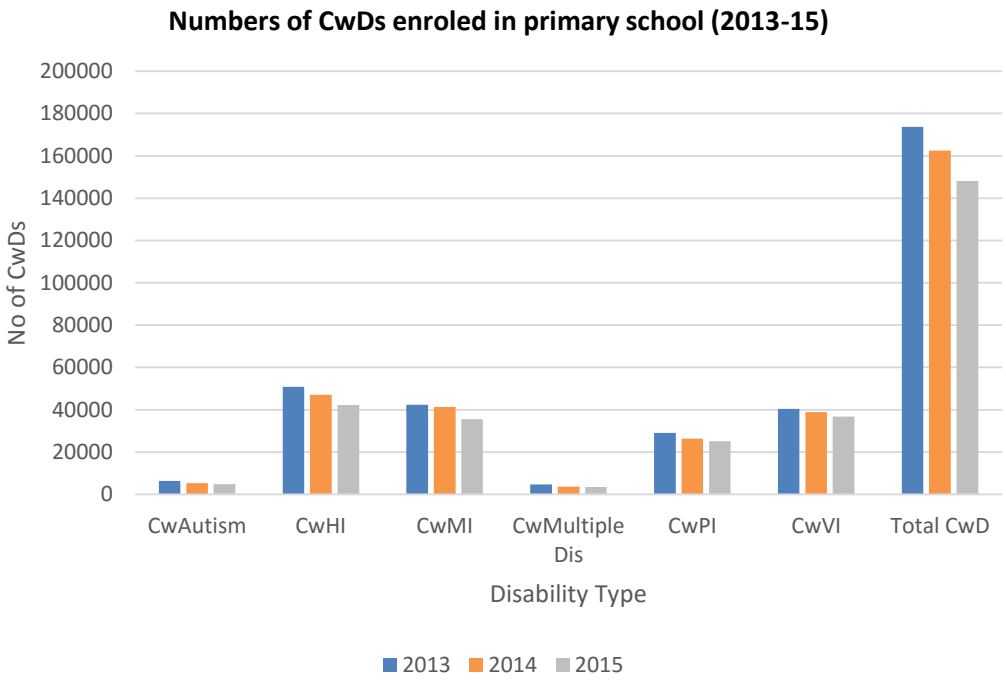
Figure 7: CwD enrolment as a percentage of total enrolment by region

	Pre-Primary			Primary			Secondary		
	Total CwDs	Total All Pupils	CwDs as % of Total Enrolment	Total CwDs	Total All Pupils	CwDs as % of Total Enrolment	Total CwDs	Total All Pupils	CwDs as % of Total Enrolment
Acholi	484	27,171	1.78%	9,288	455,915	2.04%	224	42,048	0.53%
Ankole	321	44,720	0.72%	7,494	654,635	1.14%	509	123,429	0.41%
Buganda	1,511	161,503	0.94%	23,959	1,784,495	1.34%	2,638	388,021	0.68%
Bukedi	394	24,121	1.63%	10,470	591,829	1.77%	588	93,633	0.63%
Bunyoro	486	39,740	1.22%	9,459	439,077	2.15%	286	62,218	0.46%
Busoga	516	26,815	1.92%	10,912	892,264	1.22%	832	167,690	0.50%
Elgon	325	15,953	2.04%	11,849	503,226	2.35%	595	100,642	0.59%
Karamoja	61	6,255	0.98%	1,883	132,814	1.42%	87	10,366	0.84%
Kigezi	144	16,178	0.89%	2,650	365,790	0.72%	224	31,748	0.71%
Lango	338	17,538	1.93%	14,846	585,524	2.54%	399	36,041	1.11%
Teso	381	18,436	2.07%	17,452	537,395	3.25%	573	59,993	0.96%
Toro	801	46,708	1.71%	10,141	578,887	1.75%	325	79,625	0.41%

4.1.6 Disability numbers over time

Analysis of national data highlights a number of trends that have implications for strategy development.

Figure 8: Numbers of CwDs enrolled in primary schools (2013-2015)



What is immediately apparent is that the number of children with disability accessing primary schools in Uganda is *declining* (a decrease of by 25,675 CwDs, or 14.7% over the period 2013-2015). Currently, it is unknown whether this is an issue with the inconsistent identification of CwDs accessing school or CwDs dropping out. This fall is mirrored both in pre-primary (where there is a 14.9% decrease in the number of CwDs from 2013-2015) and in secondary (where there is a 6.2% decrease in the number of CwDs from period 2013-2015).

Further insights are gained by looking at the story of children moving from grade to grade. Children who were in P1 in 2013 would be expected to be seen in P2 in 2014, and likewise, children in P1 in 2014 would be seen in P2 in 2015. This enables the calculation of the % of CwDs not enrolling into

subsequent year groups, presumably due to repetition or drop-out.[46] Tables 4 and 5 compare the enrolment and progression of CwDs against that of all children in their grade cohorts.

Table 6: Enrolment of CwDs against grade cohort (2013-2015)

2013-2014

2013 Total CwDs	2014 Total CwDs	% of **CwDs** not enrolling in subsequent year 2013-2014	% of **all children** not enrolling in subsequent year 2013-2014	% point gap between CwDs and all children 2013-2014
33,124 (P1)	25,212 (P2)	23.9%	28.4%	-4.5%
26,231 (P2)	27,184 (P3)	-3.6%	-4.2%	0.6%
29,256 (P3)	27,196 (P4)	7.0%	-3.6%	10.6%
29,399 (P4)	22,559 (P5)	23.3%	10.6%	12.7%
25,424 (P5)	17,682 (P6)	30.5%	15.4%	15.0%
19,265 (P6)	10,346 (P7)	46.3%	31.8%	14.5%
11,068 (P7)	1,953 (S1)	82.4%	39.8%	42.5%

- In 2014, there were 23.9% fewer CwDs enrolled in P2 than there had been in P1 in 2013 but this % figure is, in fact, lower than the figure for all children. The latter explains why CwDs as a % of enrolment increases in P2 in Table 4.
- In P3 in 2014, the numbers of CwDs increased when compared to P2 in 2013. This mirrored the pattern for all children (one explanation could be due to children who were in P1 subsequently dropping out and then being re-enrolled).[47]
- The % numbers of CwDs not enrolling in the following year increases significantly when looking at the transition into P5, P6 and P7 and all are significantly higher than a similar calculation for all children. Where the gap is most startling is in the transition from primary to secondary. In 2014, there were 82.4% fewer CwDs enrolled into secondary than were in P7 in 2013. The same figure for all children was 39.8%.

Table 7: Enrolment of CwDs against grade cohort (2014-2015)

2014 – 2015

2014 Total CwDs	2015 Total CwDs	% of CwDs not enrolling in subsequent year 2014-2015	% of ALL Children not enrolling in subsequent year 2014-2015	% point gap between CwDs and all children 2014-2015
32,338(P1)	22,273 (P2)	31.1%	33.9%	-2.7%
25,212 (P2)	24,771 (P3)	1.7%	4.8%	-3.1%

[46] Children in Uganda sometimes have to repeat the school year if teachers feel they are not academically ready for the following year.

[47] This can be common practice due to financial constraints and is reported to skew numbers.

27,184 (P3)	25,798 (P4)	5.1%	6.6%	-1.5%
27,196 (P4)	20,923 (P5)	23.1%	19.0%	4.1%
22,559 (P5)	16,899 (P6)	25.1%	23.5%	1.6%
17,682 (P6)	9,206 (P7)	47.9%	39.3%	8.7%
10,346 (P7)	2,012 (S1)	80.6%	47.9%	32.6%

The transition for 2014-15 showed similar patterns compared to 2013-14.

- Again, at P2 in 2015, there were significantly fewer CwDs in school than in P1 the previous year, but like 2013-14 the same figure for all children was, in fact, higher explaining why the % of CwDs in P2 increases in Table 5.
- Similarly to 2014-15, the % numbers increase significantly when looking at the transition into P5, P6 and P7 though the gap between CwDs and all children is not as great.
- However, just like 2013-14, the gap is greatest when analysing the transition from primary to secondary both regarding % number of CwDs not enrolling in the subsequent year and also % point gap between CwDs not enrolling and all children not enrolling.

Summary of key learning from national data:

1. It would appear that the number of CwDs accessing all phases of education (pre-primary, primary, secondary) is falling. Therefore there is a pressing need to focus on CwDs.
2. National data indicates that certain disability groups have a greater likelihood of *not* accessing school than other groups. Project leaders should be aware of this in order to monitor if this is the case in their projects, and the targeting of specific vulnerable groups should be considered. From the national data, these are:
    - Females, particularly those with physical, multiple and learning difficulties
    - Children with physical and multiple impairments where the estimated prevalence rate in comparison with all disabilities seems to be higher than the enrolment rate
    - Children in geographical areas where enrolment is lower
3. National data clearly shows a gap between primary and secondary and that transition is not occurring for CwDs. There is a clear need to be addressed at every level: school, government and NGOs. Where schools actively plan to engage students from the level above or below they can significantly increase the transition of CwDs. For example, at Iganga Secondary school, the SEN Lead visited feeder primary schools to meet both the CwDs and their families to explain both the importance of secondary school and the support they will receive at the school.

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4.2 Type of schooling

Traditionally the provision of SNE fell under the remit of NGOs, who were mainly church founded or had arisen through parents who needed and wanted to educate their disabled children. This provision was very much determined by the disability type and was encouraged or hindered by the attitudes and perceptions of communities and organisations concerning the group in question. Historically, CwD were not in the main included in mainstream educational provision and mainly accessing education through special schools. Later, special units were introduced within the

mainstream schools to target children with disabilities in their localities. Currently, three main types of provision exist:

1. Mainstream Schooling
2. Special Schools
3. Unit Schools

Unfortunately, no data is available to indicate the numbers of each school, which fall within types of administration, including public/private partnership initiatives (e.g. PEAS), private schooling and church-based provision. The wide, varied education models that are in operation in Uganda means that districts/regions have very different experiences of provision which are not comparable and will be subject to different influences, constraints and opportunities. One of the constraining factors in exploring this further is the lack of data regarding how many CwDs access mainstream versus special schools, or indeed any other type of schooling.

It is not simply enough to desire inclusion through making mainstream schools inclusive by themselves. There was evidence that some parents (interestingly only one student) felt favourably towards Special schools. Parents that expressed this, in the main, were parents of CwDs with more severe disabilities. Overwhelmingly, the parents and CwDs who had accessed inclusive settings talked about the desire for inclusion and the benefits that would bring them, not only educationally but regarding life skills and the future workplace. The real learning here though is not whether one form of education is 'better' than the other, but the lessons which can be learnt from all settings. One head teacher of a Special school in Kampala noted that in her school the needs were so great that the students could not be in mainstream schools in their current form. What came through during interviews with heads from Special schools was that relationship building between the different parts of the education system is crucial to achieving quality education for all in mainstream settings. The belief in inclusion is not limited to mainstream settings, as heads of special schools routinely refer students to mainstream schools where they feel students would be able to access the curriculum and benefit from a mainstream setting. However, this was in part a function of the relationship heads have built up with surrounding mainstream schools and the work they have done with them over the years to help build a bridge so students could successfully integrate and achieve within them. This also works in reverse, with mainstream schools referring complex cases to special schools.

One of the positive elements of some special schools (and to a lesser degree mainstream schools with units) is that there is a focus on income generation for the students there, a focus on what economic activity will be available to the CwDs in their care. This can be seen in a negative light, too; there is a widespread assumption that CwDs are not able to achieve academically, and therefore provisions for entering the workplace tends to focus on relatively unskilled craft/manual labour, which is not aspirational and limits CwDs in some cases.[48] Where positive, though, real opportunities

[48] This quoted by parents as the driving force in getting engaged to a high degree in their children's schooling in a mainstream setting.

are developed for CwDs that can be utilised later in life; some degree of economic independence is crucial to decreasing poverty and increasing health and social outcomes for CwDs.

Although not directly related to IE, the 'coding' that schools receive is important in obtaining funding per pupil so has an indirect impact on the money available in schools for IE development. Coding refers to the process which leads to a community or private school (in a community with very few or no government schools at all) receiving government support mostly in the form of funding and trained teachers. The estimate of schools that have applied for this and not received in the last 3 years is over 2,500, and they are generally found in more rural, economically deprived areas with implications for inclusion.[49] Over 615 sub-counties were identified from a recent school mapping exercise to have no government secondary school, 312 sub counties of which have no form of secondary school whatsoever. This is not in line with the government policy of providing education for all Ugandan children and coupled with the national annual population growth rate (3.4%) means there are increasing numbers of children without access to education.

4.3 Access

The focus on UPE has brought about significant changes for enrolments across Uganda but enrolments for CwDs have not kept pace with this growth. Throughout the process of school data collection (38 schools visited in 14 regions) and application of the matrix to find examples of best practice, it became clear that no common single factor could be identified as contributing to higher numbers of CwDs accessing schools. Rather, there are different factors for different schools as illustrated in the following discussion.

In the 25 primary schools visited, the average number of CwDs enrolled was 88 (all Uganda 7.84)[50] with a male-female ratio of 1.014:1 (all Uganda 1.11:1) which is virtual gender parity. This equated to on average CwDs being 8.42% (all Uganda 1.79%) of total enrolment. What is striking, is the clear differences in enrolment of CwDs in 'best practice' schools, compared to the national average. If the enrolment rate of 8.42% was mirrored nationally, it would mean another 547,000 children with a disability enrolled or identified in schools. Inclusive education clearly has the potential to significantly impact the numbers of CwD in schools.

The following case study examples were identified by a combination of senior leaders in some of the schools where CwDs made up 10% or more.

[49] CSBAG - CSBAG Position paper on the Education Ministerial Policy Statement FY 2016/17 accessed: http://csbag.org/publications/csbag-position-paper-on-the-education-ministerial-policy-statement-fy-201617/ on 12.03.17.

[50] The figures in brackets are the national 2015 figure.

Case Study 1 - Gulu

In the Gulu area, there was clear evidence of multi-agency work with schools working with health professionals. When children attended hospital, the health professionals were referring them to particular schools with specialisms in certain disability types (Gulu Primary for visually impaired, Laroo Primary School Unit for the Deaf for hearing impaired and Gulu Prison P7 for children with learning disabilities). Gulu Primary and Gulu Prison P7 were visited as part of the research process, and both schools highlighted the referral system had had a significant impact on enrolment. They also stated it had supported the identification and subsequent enrolment of more complex disabilities such as epilepsy. Gulu Prison P7 also reported that hospital staff made termly visits to the school to check up on the children.

Case Study 2 – Gulu Primary

(Number of CwDs: 75 CwDs, as % of enrolment: 13.7%)

The school has a reputation for supporting children with disabilities in particular visually impaired children and the deputy head highlighted that 'parents felt the school was a good and caring place to send their disabled child.' The school also had boarding facilities which enabled children with disabilities who were living outside the town, to access the school. The school works with the local health office to support identification and receive referrals.

Case Study 3 – Luwero Boys

(Number of CwDs=188 CwDs as % of Enrolment=17.03%)

The school has a reputation for supporting children with disabilities in particular children who are hearing impaired and with learning disabilities. A member of school leadership stated that 'people know we do everything we can to include children with disabilities.' (This inclusive ethos is discussed in detail later). Like Gulu, the school has boarding facilities and approximately 50% of the CwDs board. The school also highlighted that teachers carry out community outreach events to advocate for CwDs accessing the school.

Case Study 4 – Bukedea Primary

Bukedea highlighted the impact of the education office and the clear priority for and support around the enrolment of children with a disability like Luwero, the school carries out community outreach events and also follows up if CwDs drop out. They also highlighted the role of the parent support groups which the parents set up themselves and through that parents empower other parents to send their children to school.

Case Study 5 – Agwok Primary - Nebbi

The school was part of a project aiming at supporting CwD to access quality education run by the Ugandan Society for Disabled Children and the UK NGO AbleChildAfrica. School and project

leadership felt that the increase in enrolment can be primarily down to 3 significant factors in order of importance:

- *Parent Support Groups set up by the project in a school setting*
- *Community Awareness activities including teachers going out into the community to enrol CwDs*
- *Working with health professionals to improve the identification of CwDs*

The increase in enrolment was mirrored across all nine schools in the primary sector in which the project was running. In total, the project succeeded in enrolling an additional 469 CwDs which worked out an average of 52 additional CwDs per school. Across the project, the same significant factors contributing to enrolment were identified.

Case Study 6 – Kichandi Muslim

(No of CwDs = 149, CwDs as a % of Enrolment =21.1%. Increase in the number of CwDs identified in school in last year=82, 122%)

The school identified two key factors contributing to the increase in CwDs:

- *A passionate SEN teacher who went out into the community to 'seek and enrol' the children in her own time and cost*
- *Training around the identification of CwDs which supported the identification of CwDs who were already in school but not yet identified.*

The children who were identified in this school were not children with more severe disabilities. The strength of the identification training and process was to support the identification of children who for example had a partial visual impairment (they had received support from Sightsavers around this) or who were previously labelled as 'slow learners' whom the school felt there was evidence of a mild learning disability.

Case Study 7 – Kyambogo Primary School

- *No of CwDs = 86, CwDs as a % of Enrolment = 11.81*
- *Increase in the number of CwDs identified in school in last 3 years = 42 (95%)*

The school was part of a project aiming at supporting children with disability to access quality education run by Leonard Cheshire. This was a multi-intervention project and project workers/school leadership felt it difficult to identify which intervention contributed more than others. However, they stressed the following:

- *Impact of Parent Support Groups*
- *Provision of transport to get the CwDs into school*
- *Surgery and assistive devices to enable the children to get into school*
- *Follow up visits by project social workers if children dropped out*
- *The availability of transport and supporting surgery and assistive devices meant that some children with more complex disabilities could access school*

In 2015 Leonard Cheshire trained over 500 teachers in IE, supported inclusive practices in 33 PTAs and SMCs, supported 2089 girls with disabilities to access and attend schools (through school fees, uniform, feeding, materials and transport), settling over 100 homeless girls with disabilities, trained 17 KCCA[51] staff in IE, built sanitation facilities in 10 schools, provided 263 girls with rehabilitation services, sensitisation of parents, promoting IE through C2C clubs in 50 schools (38,000 students reached), economic resilience training for 39 groups of parents (814 in total), a total of 1,191 local leaders in the local council structure sensitised on disability and child protection and the facilitation of 298 teachers from 14 schools to conduct remedial lessons for 595 girls with disabilities.

At the district level, the research team surveyed 32 people responsible for special needs in their district (usually a special needs inspector). They were asked to select (from a choice of 16 interventions) and rank five interventions which they felt had the greatest impact on increasing the numbers of CwDs. The researchers assigned points (5 points for the item ranked #1, 4 for #2, etc.) to their choices to analyse what the inspectors felt was the most effective intervention. This resulted in the following in order of perceived impact:

- The existence of a SEN policy and increased enrolment as part of the school improvement plan (making school leadership more accountable for increased enrolment).
- Staff trained in IE.
- Home visits by teachers to enrol CwDs.
- Disability-awareness events in the community.
- Active Parent Support Groups for carers and parents of children with disability.
- School infrastructure changes, e.g. ramps, accessible toilets.

Each of these is discussed in more detail in the sections below with key good practice identified.

4.3.1 Identification

There is a lack of national-level guidance around the formal identification of CwD by type in any great detail that has relevance for educational provision, and that would enable schools to target inclusion effectively. In addition to this, there is only one higher education university (University of Kyambogo) that offers courses specifically related to SNE, and the head of this department has called for a formal system of identification.

Classification and identification data of CwD is crucial to understanding context, situation and in the development of effective programming. The study revealed that in some cases there is limited consensus in identifying types of disability, especially in the arena of cognitive impairments. In addition to this some NGO and agency data collected does not in all cases, report the split according

[51] Kampala Capital City Authority A education officers which included centre coordinating tutors (PTCs) , education supervisors/officers and chairperson of divisions education committees.

to disability (e.g. UNICEF data collected on vulnerable people). One NGO mentioned the challenges of programme delivery when data was not disaggregated by disability.

NGOs had also had a positive impact on identification through the upskilling of teachers to improve their identification skills. The underlying purpose was that alongside children with disability who were not enrolled into school, there exists significant numbers of children who are attending school, have an (often milder) disability but not yet identified. This includes children who are partially visually and hearing impaired and children labelled as 'slow learners' who may have a cognitive disability or development delay. The latter are exceptionally difficult to identify accurately and to the knowledge of the identification team, there is no formal identification process in Ugandan educational system.

A number of schools highlighted that they had received Snellen Eye Test Charts (generally from Sightsavers) and this had helped staff to identify children who were visually impaired. One project specifically trained teachers in improved identification skills.

Case Study 8 – RedEarth Education, Masindi

RedEarthEducation in Masindi District trained teachers in identifying children with special educational needs as part of their general school improvement programme. Data was collected from 5 schools that had attended the training and implemented it through improved identification processes resulting in increased numbers of children with disabilities identified. This was compared with five schools which had not attended the training. The following was found:

The number of disabled children identified was on average five times higher in the schools that had received the training and carried out an extensive identification programme. Although there were increases in the number of children identification across all disability, the most significant increases were with children with mild visual impairment (assessed through using eye testing charts) where numbers were 6.4 times higher and children with learning disability (9.3 times higher).

The two sets of schools were asked as to what processes they used to identify children with special educational needs. The schools who had received the training highlighted they used

- *Discussion with the children asking them to self-diagnose*
- *Observation by classroom teachers on children's behaviour (e.g. children isolating themselves)*
- *Assessments developed by RedEarth*
- *Testing (for example eye tests from kits provided)*
- *Information from parents after sensitisation activities.*

*Schools which **had not** been part of the training said they just used teacher observation (for physical impairment), medical reports and two highlighted informal assessment.*

There are issues around the identification of CwD by schools and teachers which bring into question the reliability of data. This is in part driven by the lack of knowledge and expertise teachers have to accurately identify and in part by the available classifications themselves.

Schools were assessed using the matrix as to what they have done to support the identification of CwDs. At a district and ministerial level, this was felt to be a key barrier to reliable data. On the basis of 33 responses from inspectors, 25 (76%) felt that schools could not accurately identify different disability types. Comments included:

> *'Any identification is not perfectly accurate as most teachers do not have the knowledge to accurately identify children with disability.' (SEN inspector Acia Marino)*
>
> *'Schools do not have trained and competent assessors.' (SEN inspector Omolo District)*
>
> *'It requires medical expertise which is not available at schools.' (SEN Inspector Buyende District)*

However, some schools/projects clearly *had* conducted activities to improve identification. Where schools had significantly improved identification it was due to positive working relationships having been established with health professionals and also training and resourcing to carry out identification activities themselves. NGOs have invested in teacher training programmes that target inclusion and training of health personnel to work with schools in identifying CwDs.

While it cannot be said that training teachers in SNE and identification of CwDs leads to increased enrolment, the data collected consistently shows a correlation between these two as well as the expected increase in the identification of CwDs who are in schools already but not yet identified. Digging further into this, the picture is found not to be uniform amongst disability type. Students with milder disabilities and those labelled 'slow learners' who may have a cognitive disability or developmental delay are usually particularly tricky to identify, but attempts were made to identify them after training.[52]

The research found that where integration existed between services (primarily health and education), there were outstanding examples of increased access to schooling for CwDs. In the Gulu area, there was clear evidence of multi-agency work, with schools working with health professionals. When children attended hospital, the health professionals were referring them to particular schools

[52] One example from Masindi found the number of disabled children identified was on average 5 times higher in the schools that had received the training and carried out an extensive identification programme. The most significant increase in identification were in cases of children with mild visual impairment (assessed through using eye testing charts) where numbers were 6.4 times higher, and children with learning disabilities (9.3 times higher).

with specialisms in certain disability types. The schools also stated it had supported the identification and subsequent enrolment of more complex disabilities such as epilepsy.

Case Study 9 – Gulu District

In the Gulu area, there was clear evidence of multi-agency work with schools working with health professionals. When children attended hospital, the health professionals were referring them to particular schools with specialisms in certain disability types (Gulu Primary for visually impaired, Laroo Primary School Unit for the Deaf for hearing impaired and Gulu Prison P7 for children with learning disabilities). Gulu Primary and Gulu Prison P7 were visited as part of the evaluation process, and both schools highlighted the referral system had had a significant impact on enrolment. They also stated it had supported the identification and subsequent enrolment of more complex disabilities such as epilepsy. Gulu Prison P7 also reported that hospital staff made termly visits to the school to check up on the children.

USDC/AbleChildAfrica in Nebbi and Adjumani also had medical professionals coming into school to support identification. Senior staff highlighted that that also was an incentive for parents to enrol their child in school as they wanted them seen by the medical professional. However, the project was funding this themselves (though some medical staff gave time in kind) which has an impact on sustainability and there was not the systematic referral that was taking place in Gulu. The researchers spoke to other districts to see if the practice in Gulu was common place. It was felt that it was not and could be taking place as a result of a previous project

Integration of services is undoubtedly a hallmark of success; where health services know the educational landscape of an area, there are referrals that work both ways. Health services can recommend schools which serve the needs of CwDs and communities develop greater trust in the services that an area has to offer. When schools were supported by medical professionals coming in to identify CwDs, this had an additional impact of encouraging parents to enrol CwDs. The best example of this was in Gulu, as mentioned above. Interestingly this was not a function of NGO involvement, but rather of 'joined-up' thinking between the officials in the local government offices and departments (not exclusive to education and health). NGO programming also seeks to achieve this integration. However, this is not through integrating official services and government departments but by providing direct services in all areas. For example, Leonard Cheshire has programmes that provide medical and health services as well as teacher training and engaging parents and communities. These more intensive and integrated programmes were not so common but were undoubtedly having a systemic impact regarding numbers of children identified and enrolling in school.

4.3.2 The role of parents

Many studies investigating attitudes and stigma surrounding CwD convey the view that parents and communities are inhibitors to their children attending school – that parents have a feeling of shame

attached to having a child with a disability and consequently do not send them to school. In this study an alternative perspective emerged: parents may wish CwDs to access education but fear that they may suffer from bullying from other students and staff and that schools will not be able to provide the level of care that their child needs. This feeling by the parents of the child being better off/safer at home is not reflected in much of the literature, and programming often involves sensitisation elements aimed at persuading parents to change their attitudes, rather than listening to their concerns. This research would suggest that funding might be better spent elsewhere to maximise its impact, increasing the dialogue between schools and parents and parents and communities. Also, it points to the importance of ensuring schools are supported to develop better safeguarding and child protection. In the projects visited at a school level, schools did not identify developing consistent and thorough child protection and safeguarding as a key priority of the project. There was a widespread lack of understanding on what child protection constitutes and this may in part be a reflection of national level policies. There is a National Strategy for Disadvantaged Children produced by the Ministry of Gender, but a full developed national policy on child protection does not exist. UNICEF is currently working on developing this with the Ministry of Gender, but issues exist due to its cross-sectoral emphasis.

Also, the research also flagged up disconnection between parents and district SEN inspectors. In surveys, district officials identified negative attitude of parents as a barrier to IE. In the survey of 36 district inspectors, they were asked as to identify the three greatest challenges to achieving inclusive education. Nineteen of the 34, identified negative parental attitudes as one of those most significant challenges (‘*Parents attitudes still negative; Negative attitudes of parents towards their children; CwDs are discriminated by their parents; Parental neglect’* (Various SEN inspectors). This was second only to a lack of skilled personnel.

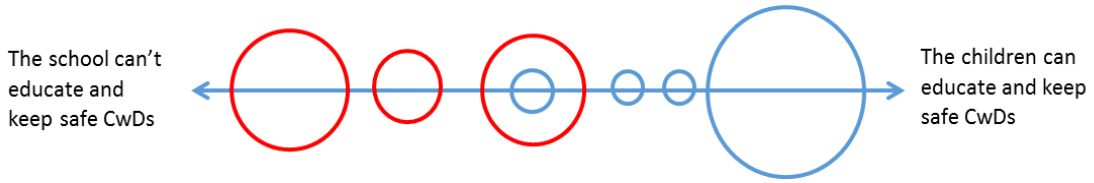
However, the views of parents suggested a different side to this. When the research team spoke to parents who were part of a Leonard Cheshire Parent Support Group and to parents who were part of two USDC formed parent support groups, the question was asked as to what had changed which empowered the parents to send their child to school. No parents referred to their negative attitudes, rather they explained:

> *‘I am confident that my child will not be discriminated against.’ (Parent A)*
>
> *‘The teachers now have the skills to look after my child.’ (Parent B)*
>
> *‘I know my child will be safe and looked after.’ (Parent C)*
>
> *‘The teachers are now welcoming.’ (Two parents: Agwok Primary School)*
>
> *‘The Teachers have been trained and are now handling CwDs in a better way.’ (Parent from Koch Primary School)*

Approximately sixty parents of children with disability in Adjumani took part in an activity where they evaluated the change that had occurred which enabled them to send their child to school. The school in question had been part of a USDC/AbleChildAfrica project working with the school to

develop inclusive education. The parents of the CwDs were asked to state their opinion on the question on if the school could provide a good and safe education for children with disabilities and how that compared with their views before the project started. The number of parents responding was 68, and the size of the circle represents the amount of response along the continuum as each parent placed their marker[53]. Red shows parents' perceptions of how they felt before the USDC project and blue how they currently felt.

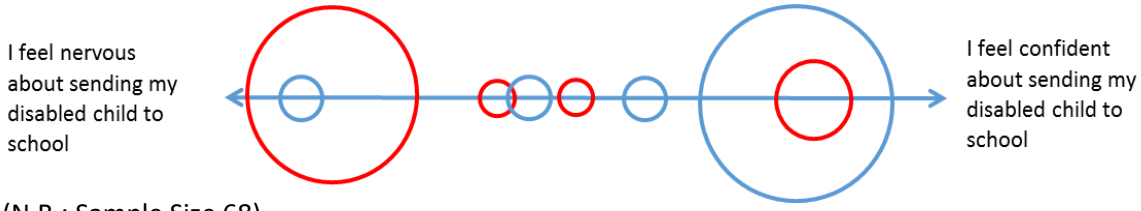
Figure 9: Parent perceptions of CwDs' safety



(N.B.: Sample Size 68)

Other than the significant change (which can be clearly seen), what was also noticeable was the negative perception parents had of the school's ability to keep their children safe and to provide a quality of education before the project. Using the same research instrument, the parents were also asked how their confidence had changed with regard to CwDs accessing school.

Figure 10: Parent perception of confidence change in sending CwDs to school



(N.B.: Sample Size 68)

Again, the project made significant changes, but as before, the instrument indicates that there had been little confidence before the project started.

All the above can be framed as '*negative attitudes of parents*', but equally the research team believes it reflects parents are caring for their children and needing to feel confident that their child can be provided with a safe and quality education before sending them to school. Joseph Walugembe Country Director ADD International, Uganda put it this way:

> *'We are usually very insensitive to the feelings and the emotional weight of parents who are caring for their children with all forms of impairments usually without any form of support system. We are usually very quick to say about them that that is a negative attitude and repeat it in workshops but I think it is time we seriously reflect and rectify the narrative about attitude. There are a number of practical issues which are not addressed (parental concerns*

[53] All figures that use the Group Circle Perception Activity were taken from a photograph taken during the FGD and then relative amounts of responses were calculated.

about the CwDs) but we sweepingly refer just to their attitude and shift the blame from the weaknesses in our own approach and support to the parents.'

Irrespective of which view is taken by the reader, what is clear is the importance of parents/carers in increasing access to children with disability to school. Of the schools visited which had significantly increased the number of CwD over the last two years, all but one had a strong parent support group (PSG).

Case Study 10 – USDC/AbleChildAfrica

USDC/Able Child Africa worked across nine schools in 3 districts (Nebbi, Lira and Adjumani) to support the inclusion of children with disabilities. The project was hugely successful in increasing enrolment of children with disabilities. Across all nine schools, the average enrolment at the end of the project was 9.9%, and the increase in the number of children with disabilities was 53 per school. As part of the evaluation, 4 of the schools were visited (covering all three project areas). The main cause for the increase in numbers of CwDs which was identified consistently by head teachers of the school was 'the high level of parental engagement (due to the Parent Support Groups)'

A Parent Support Group (PSG) for parents/carers of CwDs was set up and registered in each school. A focal person was appointed to support the PSGs, and the project provided training to PSGs in advocacy skills and also income generation. The PSGs became forces for advocacy via a number of channels:

1) *The PSGs carried out home visits to CwDs in their communities either to advocate that a child attended school or if a CwD was continually absent. A number of parents highlighted that it was a result of these visits that they sent their child to school.*
2) *The PSGs developed the ability to support parents to financially send their children to school. This was done through 2 principle ways:*
    a) *The setting up of Saving and Loan Associations using a VSLA (village savings and loan association) model. Members saved on a regular basis and took out loans when required. The amount of savings varied between groups. At Agwok primary school, USH 580,000 was saved in this academic year. In total 18 short term loans (repayment period between 1 to 3 months) had been provided. The PSG reported that 100% of the loans had been repaid. Members highlighted that loans were sometimes used to pay hidden costs of school such as uniform at the beginning of the year but primarily to help the family to generate income from which parents could afford to pay for their children's stationery and exercise books. A similar story was found in Adjumani where 20 members of a PSG had saved USH 4 million. From this, loans of between USH 60,0000 to USH 250,0000 had been provided. In total, 22 families had received loans: 6 were fully paid and 16 were in the process of repayment. Two recipients of loans were interviewed; the first had been loaned USH 65,000 and had used it to buy stationary for their child at the beginning of the academic year and then to set up a small alcoholic brewing business. The loan was fully repaid. The*

profits from this, the mother reported, supported all the children (5) to access school. The second had loaned USH 75,000and had used it again to buy stationary for the child and also to buy and sell oil. Again, the loan was fully repaid. Both women said they had not been able to access loans from other institutions. When asked about the impact of the VSLA one member of the PSG commented: 'The loans have empowered us to be part of the community'. In another school, 68 members of the PSG had saved in the year and a half since it set up USH 18 million. This VSLA had a slightly different model whereby the 'school fees' (parental contribution) were first taken out to ensure every disabled child could access school and then the additional money was used to provide loans. The VSLAs were in the opinion of the evaluator significant in supporting the parents in enabling their children to access schooling. This view was verified by the parents at an Adjumani primary school.

b) The second way in which PSGs have developed the ability to support the parents to send their child to school is the setting up of income generating schemes from capital through the successful application of grants. In total 15.5million USH has been obtained by the various PSGs from Ugandan disability funds to support the setting up of income generating projects. This has been used for various schemes, for example, the purchase of plastic chairs which are then rented, the rent of fertile land for crop going and the purchase of goats for fattening. The income from the schemes was then used to support the children; for example, one group reported that they had used the income to support a child who needed surgery, a second had bought shoes for all the children.

Likewise, in Waluwerere Primary School, a PSG had been set up meeting weekly. They had also set up a VSLA, and the school reported that it had allowed families to:

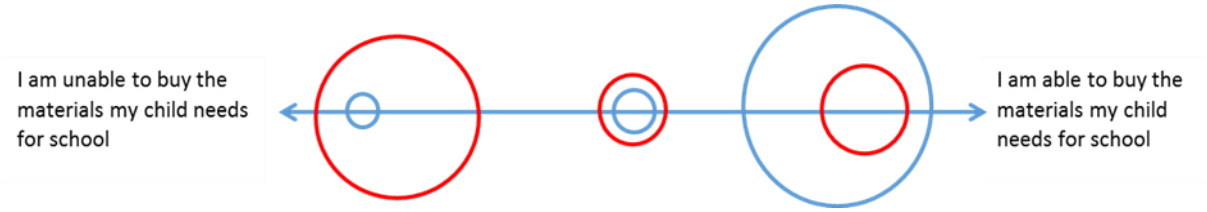
- Save money to pay school fees for CwDs.
- Borrow money to set up small businesses often buying and selling goods. This had allowed them to improve their economic circumstances and support their CwD.

The research found that in inclusive schools parents' perceptions had shifted from viewing schools as unable to educate and keep their children safe to viewing schools to being able to educate and look after their children, which was integral to the school becoming more inclusive. This was further substantiated by the finding that in all the schools visited which had significantly increased the number of CwDs over the last two years, all but one had a strong PSG. Regarding programming, NGOs had varying degrees of activities that engaged parents, from passive recipients of training and 'sensitisation' (see 4.4) to actively involved parents that participated, designed and drove income generation activities and community engagement. The most powerful example that precipitated change for CwDs was where the PSGs conducted community visits to encourage other parents to enrol their children into school or follow up on drop out. These were also particularly successful where economic empowerment and income generation gave parents greater decision-making powers.

A shift in perception of parents from barriers to inclusion to empowering them to become participants in inclusion is needed to capitalise on the power of the parent. Schools, NGOs, teachers and the district level officials need to embrace this way of thinking as the research showed that rapid increases in enrolment of CwDs were far greater when driven by parents and where those parent groups are directly linked to schools. The research documented many cases where parents were actively involved in their child's education. Some saw it as their responsibility to educate schools and staff on what their children are capable of achieving. Although some of these were enabled through more socially engaged parents, or parents with greater economic advantage and educational background, not all examples were. There are many examples and sources of inspiration and learning on how to mobilise the 'parent power' element of inclusion.

When exploring costs and effective programming, the greatest successes are achieved by NGOs that recognise that parents are the driver behind inclusion and NGOs that see income generation as key to increasing access. In many projects, this was a defining feature and ranged from informal savings schemes within PSGs to separate VSLAs. What was not clear was how much of the money saved and generated went to support the costs associated with individual CwDs. While it can be argued that it is not necessary to know this, some NGOs measured how able parents felt they were to support their CwD and the results were overwhelmingly positive. For example, in one primary school in Adjumani, a FGD was conducted with 68 members of a PSG who had set up a VSLA. They were asked about their ability to fund their children's schooling before and after the VSLA. In Figure 11, the size of the circles represents the strength of their response. Red shows parents' perceptions of how they felt before the VSLA was set up and blue how they feel now.

Figure 11: Parental perceptions of the support they can offer their child



In schools where the parent support group was particularly successful, the researchers observed the following:

1. The group is specifically linked to the school, and the school was involved in running them, for example with a school representative always attending and the head teacher sometimes attending.
2. A scheme whereby the group could generate income to help cover the 'hidden costs' of attending school is set up. This, the research team observed, was successful if established once the group was set up and had been functioning well (e.g. a VSLA). This was further strengthened if the scheme was instigated and set up by the parents or with their significant involvement (in fact there was evidence that if it was not it was more likely to fail).
3. The parents are empowered to become disability champions and advocates on either an individual or school level. As mentioned earlier, at an individual level a number of schools

visited highlighted parents are going into the community to identify families with disability and advocate for other parents to send their child to school or to follow up when a CwD has stopped attending. The role of parents as advocates at a school level was strengthened greatly when a parent was invited to be part of the school Parent Teacher Association (PTA) and School Management Committee (SMC).[54]

4.3.3 Community outreach

Throughout the research process many different forms of community outreach were observed, and in general, this was seen to have a great impact on CwD. The outreach ranged from efforts to identify and enrol CwDs to community-based education. In most cases, this was initiated by an element of an NGO programme, but outstanding examples of best practice were also seen in schools where there was a committed individual who implemented their community outreach programme. Parents, communities and schools have benefitted from strengthened relationships ultimately impacting on outcomes for CwDs. Particularly successful actions include follow up after drop out and initial identification.

Various forms of community-based education (CBE) examples were witnessed by the researchers and the more successful ones involved schools and teachers going into communities in particular to target children of all ages whose disability prevented them accessing school (for example, deaf-blind children). These were more successful in that they had an increased element of sustainability with skills being shared. However, one consideration is that these varied according to the need of the CwD. Where these needs were able to be met relatively easily/cheaply, it inevitably resulted in more sustainable, local responses. An additional element of CBE that is built into some NGO programming is the identification of OOSC (out of school children) and their subsequent catch-up education and re-integration into schooling. One such project, funded under the GEC (UKAID), targeted 22 centres in 5 central districts (2 centres were specifically identified to target female CwDs with mild to moderate disabilities).

A number of school/projects were carrying out advocacy and disability awareness activities in the community to raise the awareness of children with disability being enrolled in school. USDC organised radio programmes on the local radio although they had found it impossible to accurately measure the impact of this and no parent when interviewed heightened this as a reason they sent their child to school.

[54] The presence of a person that is committed to inclusion has a huge impact on access, engagement and quality and they can be from a variety of sources. One question here is in relation to payment and the motivation to carry out extra activities. This would be an interesting area to explore – does payment for additional services result in increased access and how does this impact on communities and schools? There is a programme currently in a pilot phase where mentors from the local community are selected to act as LSA and their role is to identify CwDs in their communities to access school and then support them while in school. They are not strictly volunteers as they are paid a stipend. The pilot has not been running long enough to have evidence yet, although the pilot was developed after a similar and successful programme in Rwanda (Chance for Childhood).

At Luwero Boys, the deputy head spoke of an ethos where,

> *'teachers have become ambassadors for the disabled. I will pick up the microphone at a wedding and talk to the people about the importance of children with disability accessing school.'*

On an individual level, there were a number of cases where home visits had been carried out to families of CwDs to advocate for their enrolment or to follow up when a child dropped out or had persistent absenteeism. This was usually as part of a project (For example USDC/AbleChildAfrica) with travel expenses being paid. Both teachers and representatives from parent support groups carried out these. When the parents of disabled children were interviewed, they talked about how the visits from both these groups had impacted.

> *'When a teacher came to my home, it showed me for the first time the school really cared.' (Parent Nebbi)*

> *'Parents visiting us really encouraged us to send our children to school. They told us it was good for their children, so we believed it was good for ours.' (Parent Adjumani)*

In other schools, this was developed independently of a formal project, often as a result of the passion of the head teacher and/or a special needs teacher.

Case Study 11 – Kihandi Muslim, Masindi

At Kihande Muslim in Masindi district, villages are visited by teachers to identify pupils with disabilities on a monthly basis. Records are kept of these visits. The school leadership explained that, as a result, they had both enrolled CwDs into their school and referred more complex cases to special schools. The school has a very high enrolment of CwDs (21.1% of total enrolment) and identified this, alongside efforts to identify children with disability in their school, had contributed to this. Teachers were not paid additionally to carry out this activity with the school simply reporting that 'they were simply self-motivated to do so.'

For secondary schools, children come from a wider community, so community outreach is much more difficult. However, Iganga Secondary School for Girls had developed an innovative solution.

Case Study 12 – Uganda Secondary School for Girls

The special needs department of Iganga Secondary School for Girls has identified which primary schools their visually impaired children have come from. They then contact the schools and enquired as to potential children in P7 who may do well enough in their end of primary exams to be able to access secondary school. The special needs teacher (who is himself visually impaired) then visited the schools to talk to the children (and where possible the families) of the importance of secondary education and the provision Iganga offers to support visually impaired children. The school reported that this was a significant motivator for many CwVI to enrol in the school.

Although not common, one interesting finding is the potential success (highlighted by anecdotal evidence) that children can have in identifying CwDs in their communities though a C2C (Child to Child) methodology. This needs further exploration, but given its cost effectiveness and self-sustaining element, it has potential gains.

Case Study 13 – USDC/AbleChildAfrica

The USDC/AbleChildAfrica project working across nine schools reported that children had supported the identification of children with disabilities. As part of the project, lessons had been taught using C2C methodology and materials asking children to 'solve the problem of low enrolment of CwDs in schools'. As a direct result of this, there were a number of anecdotal cases reported by schools where children had taken the responsibility to identify CwDs in their community and supported the child to access the school.

It has also gained ground at a national level with UNICEF funding the development of teacher training materials in the C2C methodology at the University of Kyambogo. This teacher handbook is currently being tested and there are plans to develop materials for children with adapted versions (for VI, HI using audio and visual or large print). The idea is that these resources will help to develop child participation in the implementation of the C2C methodology and will be designed and implemented after an adapted resources pilot programme has been evaluated.

4.3.4 Other examples of inclusive practice

1. Boarding facilities – Where these existed, they allowed CwD from outside the area to access an inclusive school, and this is often subsidised by an NGO. This has the benefit of retaining CwDs in schools but has questions regarding its longer-term sustainability.

In some schools, boarding facilities were available for all children including children with disabilities. This was often subsidised either through the support of an NGO or through the decision of the school. At Buckley Primary, CwDs paid USH 150,000 a term compared to USH 400,000 for other children. Likewise, at Kiwolera Army CwDs paid 160,000 a term with the remainder subsidised. At Luwero Primary, all children including those with disabilities pay USH 180,000 a term. In total 60% of CwDs (approximately 110 CwDs) board. At Kyomyo in Jinja, 22 of the 86 children with disabilities boarded in facilities subsidised by an NGO, SoftPowerEducation. Parents paid USH 50,000 a term; the school provided firewood and Softpower funded the rest. In addition to receiving accommodation, the children who needed it also received once a week both occupational and physiotherapy therapy from trained Softpower staff. At St Jude's Primary and Children's Home in Gulu, 36 children with disability (including 10 with severe learning disabilities) stay at no cost. The vast majority stay permanently as they were reported by the school as either '*abandoned, orphaned or internally displaced.'* (Head teacher)

At secondary school, most children board and all the secondary schools visited reported that there was an expectation that CwDs pay the same amount as other children. However, both schools reported that children with disability are often sponsored by NGOs (e.g. Oysters and Pearls, USDC).

There is an obvious benefit of having accommodation facilities. Where the journey to school is a barrier to access, accommodation addresses this. It also enables children with a hearing impairment, where there is not a teacher who can sign at a local school, to access a school with signing provision which is otherwise too far to travel to on a daily basis. There are however issues with equality of access as CwDs from families in poverty may not be able to afford the cost. Where subsidised by NGOs, there is a question of long-term sustainability. At Kyomyo, the accommodation block did have a garden and the food grown supported the feeding of the CwDs, but there was no other income-generating projects were observed. St Jude's highlighted the cost of accommodation, stating (without giving precise figures) that *'the funding for two children to be accommodated at the school will fund ten children with disability to access school in the community.'*

2. Transport - Some projects identified this as important in getting CwDs to school and retaining them. However, there are considerations around this, for example, one NGO bought buses to transport CwD, which represented a large capital outlay and the necessity of planning to financially sustain this. Parents were expected to also bear the costs of transport at the end of the project, and while the majority expressed a desire to do this, there are issues around equity as not all would be able to. This option is probably less viable outside urban areas.

Case Study 14 – Kyambogo Primary

Kyambogo Primary was part of the Cheshire Services project aimed at supporting children to access 100 schools in Kampala. As part of this project, children with disabilities where the journey prevented access, were bused into schools on school buses shared between schools (on average one bus per 10 schools). The project funded the initial purchase of the buses and the ongoing cost of servicing, driver and petrol. The project worked with parental to set up parental groups and support them in income generating activities or through setting up saving schemes with the idea that parents would then be able to fund the cost of transport when the project stops. When 14 parents were interviewed, all expressed a desire to continue sending their children to school and felt they would be willing to pay the transport costs. However, they did not know what this cost would be, and at this stage, the project has not begun any phase out to test if this would be the case.

Where transport was not possible, and the children had to make their one way to school, there was outstanding practice identified to support their physiological needs once in school.

Case Study 15 – Koch Primary, Nebbi

In Koch Primary in Nebbi, the parents had started a feeding programme. All parents of CwDs paid a fixed amount (USH 10,000) a month, which was supplemented through additional food grown in a hired garden and the children were provided lunch at school and, for P1-P2, breakfast. In total 80 CwDs benefitted from the scheme plus 15 others (children travelling a long distance to school and some teachers). Those who could not afford the monthly fee could also cover costs with foodstuffs. The good practice had been shared with the two other schools in Nebbi and there

was a plan to replicate it in those the project has not begun any phase out to test if this would be the case.

3. Community-Based Education - Schools and local NGOs recognised that in their local context for some CwDs it was difficult to access schooling. This was often because of the severity of the disability or the distance to the school. To enable these children to access different education forms of CBE were observed – three are highlighted in the case studies below. All three programmes provide support to children with disabilities who cannot access schooling. The advantage of the first two is that a school is reaching out to children with disabilities in their community through their teaching staff (who have received additional training). This is more cost-efficient than SoftPower's model and also builds a school's capacity.

Case Study 16 – Luwero Boys

At Luwero boys, five children in the community were supported by teachers from P2 twice a week to learn sign language. The plan is for the children to then join the school in a boarding capacity in the following year when they have learned to sign. An NGO (the school was unsure which) provided transport costs for the teacher; there was no additional cost, since the teachers provide the service in the afternoon when P2 are not in school. (N.B.: P1 and P2 children finish school at lunchtime in Uganda, and then the school are free to deploy teachers in the afternoon, as required.)

Case Study 17 – Buckley High (Primary)

At Buckley High (a primary school), Special Educational Needs teachers had been trained by Sense International to support deaf-blind children in the community. The training lasted for 8-9 weeks over the course of a year. Each teacher is responsible for nine children and visits the children twice a month; he or she works with the child and their family to show how to support the children. Teachers are paid meals and transport (USH 15,000 a day), and for the 18 visits they are provided funding for six days) but no additional funding for their time is provided, as it is seen as part of their job. The head teacher is responsible for managing the programme. In total 80 deaf-blind children are supported in this way through the programme.[55]

Case Study 18 – SoftPower, Jinja

SoftPower in Jinja run four outreach clinics a week for children with severe disabilities in rural areas of Jinja district. Activities in the clinic are delivered with a trained Occupational and Physiotherapist. Two of the clinics are held in schools, and two are held in other community

[55] Sense International, as part of their strategy, work to improve education for deafblind people through a CBE model. In order to achieve this they have printed and distributed 970 copies of the CBE curriculum and 720 copies of the interveners manual. They work with 26 SNE teachers in 3 special needs schools of Uganda School for the deaf, Buckley High School and St Mark IV school for the deaf. They have trained 271 mainstream teachers to teach deafblind children, used mainstream teachers and SNE teachers to visit 250 children/families using the CBE curriculum and 280 children with deafblindness/MSI and families have received home support.

buildings and in total 56 children with complex physiological and neurological disabilities who otherwise cannot access school are supported through this programme.

The following four bullet points also emerged as significant:

- Welcoming ethos – This links to reputation, and in places where this was obvious, there was greater enrolment of CwDs (addressed in more detail below).
- Child Rights Clubs - In the Hoima area Child Rights Club were established, which the project[56] reported had resulted in improved welcoming ethos and developed the confidence of parents to support their children to enrol in school
- Reputation - When schools are seen by their communities as having an inclusive ethos this impacts on numbers.
- Surgery and assistive devices - In some cases this was crucial to increasing access.

Summary of key learning about 'access':

1. School data shows that where a school has focused on inclusion, numbers have significantly increased and therefore IE has huge potential.
2. Parents are the gatekeepers of change in relation to access and if included in positive ways can significantly affect numbers. Part of engaging parents is to ensure schools are supported to have adequate child protection/safeguarding in order that they can feel their child is protected at school.
3. Comprehensive identification of CwDs is limited and hampered by lack of consistency with definition, classification and understanding of disability types. However, when schools are trained in improved identification there is evidence of significant impact on numbers of CwDs identified in schools
4. There is an element of not knowing the barriers to accessing education as we have seen with the parents' views being misrepresented. This has implications for programming and research itself.
5. Integrating local services (a multi-agency approach to identification) is crucial for the success of IE.

4.4 Engagement/Inclusive Ethos

The degree to which education provision is welcoming and portrays an inclusive ethos that is visible is key to successful IE. What was clear from this research is that every stakeholder in this process must actively engage to ensure the best outcomes for all children. Engagement and inclusive ethos is inextricably linked with access and quality. The research placed the school at the centre of this

[56] Hoima Network of Child Rights Clubs – see https://www.facebook.com/HoimaNetworkOfChildRightsClubsHonecric/ accessed 22/02/17

investigation. However that is not to downplay the importance of all the other stakeholders in education – including parents, district level officials, NGOs, FBOs, and national government.

Again, at the district level, the people responsible for special needs in their district were asked to select (from a choice of 16 interventions) and rank five interventions which they felt had the greatest impact on developing an inclusive and welcoming ethos for CwDs. The evaluation team then used a points basis (5 points for the item ranked number 1, 4 for number 2, etc.) to tabulate what the inspectors felt was the most effective intervention. This resulted in the following in order of perceived impact:

- Welcoming and inclusive attitude of teachers.
- Supportive peers (other children) who befriend and help the CwDs.
- Provision of materials for CwDs. (It was not clear whether this related to scholastic materials or assistive devices)
- Infrastructural changes to improve accessibility (e.g. ramps).
- Existence of a special needs policy/IE being part of the school improvement plan.

4.4.1 Shifting attitudes

Throughout the course of this research, an interesting picture of attitudes began to emerge. One example of this is the amount of 'sensitisation' and 'awareness' training that NGOs build into programming. This is not to say that it is not important, but rather that it was never identified in the research as being integral to changing attitudes. One of the most striking pieces of learning is that the strongest advocate for inclusion comes from the physical presence of CwDs in educational settings. Staff also reported where children had self-advocated. At Maryland High, the staff spoke about how a deaf student had changed their perceptions:

> *'At first, I thought a child with a disability could not do much, so I never gave her housework and chores to have pity her. She came and complained to me: why she was being treated differently? As a result, I changed and now treat her the same. She is the most reliable student and always the first I ask for help.' Matron of Girl's Dormitory*

It was apparent from interviews that the biggest precipitator of change was often the disabled children themselves. Part of this, teachers reported, was their determination and positive attitudes towards learning.

> *'The teachers prefer teaching the CwDs. They want to learn and for visually impaired students they care less who is watching them and just give clear answers.' (Head of SEN, Iganga Secondary School)*

Sensitisation and awareness-raising only go so far in breaking down barriers and increasing inclusion. CwoDs reported that their worldviews were positively shifted when CwDs were in their classes, and notions of what people can and cannot do were challenged. The fact that CwoDs and CwDs play and

learn together is more powerful than any training. When talking to CwDs and CwoDs the value of exposure to each other and subsequent relationship-building was seen as valuable and a positive step that affected attitudinal change. It not only mattered socially but CwDs also reported being in an inclusive setting and having supportive peers increased their learning opportunities.

This also applies to teachers. Many teachers reported that before they had taught a CwDs, they had felt it was somehow impossible to do so; they lacked the necessary training and skills and confidence. In many instances, they also believed that the presence of CwDs would lower the standards of achievement in their classrooms. However, having experienced CwDs in an inclusive setting, the teachers reported that the mere presence of a CwDs actually was the most powerful force in realising that inclusion is possible and that teachers can teach in these circumstances. Moreover, the vast majority of teachers teaching in an inclusive setting felt that inclusive schools were the best option for CwDs. A vast wealth of research exists regarding the nature of experiential learning, mindset shifts and epistemological beliefs in teachers. What is debatable is what the catalyst is for this change, as simple knowledge and training does not result in a change of attitude. However, what is known and also highlighted in this research is that exposure to CwDs has positively affected teachers' attitudes.[57] Part of this, teachers reported, was their determination and positive attitude towards learning.

> *'The teachers actually prefer teaching the CwDs. They want to learn and for VI they care less who is watching them and just give clear answers' (Head of SEN Iganga SS)*
>
> *'I used to have a fixed mind-set about disabled children but at least now but I have learnt that these children can learn; whatever you teach them they can learn. They teach us and we teach them.' (FGD Kyamja Primary)*
>
> *'Before a disabled child came to my class, I thought they were inferior. Now I have learnt differently. They are the same as any child. Teaching a disabled child has changed my attitude.' (Teacher Merryland High)*
>
> *'I came to the inclusive school and I thought it was a burden for me to handle them* [CwDs]. *At first I had a problem, how to associate with them, but I learnt that these are normal people.' (FGD Kyamja Primary)*

This is an interesting area for further study: how does the presence of CwDs in mainstream schooling affect teachers' attitudes and practice?

Teachers identified strong leadership as being a key determinant to the degree of inclusivity in a school.

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[57] Donaldson, J. (2016) Changing Attitudes toward Handicapped Persons: A Review and Analysis of Research, HM Government Attitudes Survey). In addition see research conducted by NGOs – e.g. SCOPE Disability Attitude report: http://www.scope.org.uk/Scope/media/Images/Publication%20Directory/Current-attitudes-towards-disabled-people.pdf
https://www.gov.uk/government/uploads/system/uploads/attachment_data/file/325989/ppdp.pdf accessed 15.01.17

> *'We are encouraged and supported to include the children with disability by our head teacher. If we have any issues, we come to them.' (FGD Kyamja Primary)*

This is supported by the examples the researchers collected in schools. In one school visited (Gulu Prison, P7) both the SEN teacher and the children identified that CwDs did not feel welcomed by teachers and other peers. When the SEN department were asked why they felt this was, the overriding impression was the fact that *'the head teacher was not interested.'*

Teachers who had received training around inclusive education reported that this had helped them in their confidence.

> *'I used to fear, I wondered if I might hurt a child who was deaf or blind but now I have the skills, and I can handle them, understand what they want and teach them.' (FGD Kyamja Primary)*

The amount of times that the research process came across a perceived 'need for sensitisation' from NGOs and district level officials highlights the need to 'unpick' this notion as it was not clear how this linked to increased access, improved ethos and its relationship to quality of outcomes for CwDs and indeed all children. This research does not demonstrate that there is *no* link. Rather that the link is not established in some cases and the fact that explorations of the perceptions of negative attitudes have revealed different motivations to send CwDs to school implies that we might not be as secure in the 'knowledge' we think we have in this area. Given the extent to which programming often includes this element, further investigation is needed and with this potential shift in mindset to listen to parents more and engage them as facilitators of inclusion.

When district offices were asked to identify the necessary conditions for IE, the welcoming and inclusive attitude of teachers was ranked highest. The majority of teachers that are teaching in an inclusive setting have positive attitudes towards inclusion which is supported by strong leadership, training and most importantly, exposure to CwDs.

4.42 Peer to peer relationships

Focus group discussions with able peers (CwoDs) were conducted in 6 schools. As with teachers, the exposure of able-bodied children to CwDs was reported as having caused a change. At Buckley High, an FGD was conducted with 20-30 students in P6 and P7 looking specifically at what had changed in their attitudes as a result of having CwDs in their class. Children's comments included:

> *'I thought they could do nothing, but now I know they can do things.'*
>
> *'I thought they were hostile people because I could not communicate with them, but now I know they can share ideas.'*
>
> *'I thought they couldn't go to school, but now I know they can.'*

'I thought they were useless in this country, but now I know they are of use.'

When asked if the thought CwD would be better-placed in a special school or with them in mainstream schooling, the overwhelming view was in a mainstream inclusive setting.

'They should go to our schools not their own because we need to learn from them.'

'I think they should be with us because if they are not, they will think we are isolating them.'

Also, approximately 16 children without a disability were interviewed in 2 focus groups in Ngetta and Jukia Primary. The key findings were:

- 13 out of the 16 said they had a friend who was disabled and three children spoke how they were trying to learn sign language to allow them to communicate with deaf children.
- 8 (7 girls, one boy) out of 16 said they had a friend outside the school who was disabled.
- 15 out of 16 said they thought disabled children should go to school.

'They can do the same as us….They are our friends so we want them in school.' (Ngetta Girls)

As part of the discussion, six were presented with a hypothetical situation: 'You find out that a disabled child lives in your village. What would you do?' Two out of six specifically talked about 'encouraging them to go to school'. The four others spoke about trying to be a friend to them, seeing what they could do to help.

The children with disabilities also spoke of the importance and value of inclusive friendships. At Iganga SS, the deputy head of SEN highlighted the importance of

'encouraging CwDs to have a positive relationship with other children, so they do not become irritating to them. We must give them the skills to make them fit in an inclusive setting.'

The CwDs also highlighted that being in an inclusive setting and having supportive peers increased their learning opportunities.

'In case of reading some notes from the textbook, you can't easily access it. But now I just ask a sighted girl to come in and she helps; in a special school I did not have that.' (S2 PwVI)

'There are parts I cannot learn on my own but they [CwoD] *come in and give us a hand.' (Student S3 with VI)*

They also highlighted that being with peers was a significant advantage of inclusive settings.

'Inclusive education makes them come in touch with the daily reality of life. I was in a special setting for 11 years and at that time I was dealing with myself and blind students. That's all I knew how to deal with. Then coming to an inclusive school, I was exposed to other students,

and I was able to benefit a lot, especially from the sighted students. They helped me and I helped them.'

All the CwDs included in the study reported having inclusive friendships. At Ngetta Primary in an FGD with 18 CwDs, the children with disabilities discussed whether they preferred being at home or school and 100% stated school. The most common reason they identified for this was the friendship groups they had, and the fact that at home they regularly faced 'abuse' from other children whereas at school this was not the case (only one child out of 18 interviewed identified facing any form of bullying while at school). In one mainstream school which had a number of blind children, all children went for lessons with the other blind children to learn braille. The children were asked which they preferred and all chose mainstream education and all stated the reason for this was to be with their friends and guides.

4.4.3 Leadership

Another facet that was repeated throughout the research investigation was that at every level of the system, leadership was key to achieving successful outcomes for CwD.

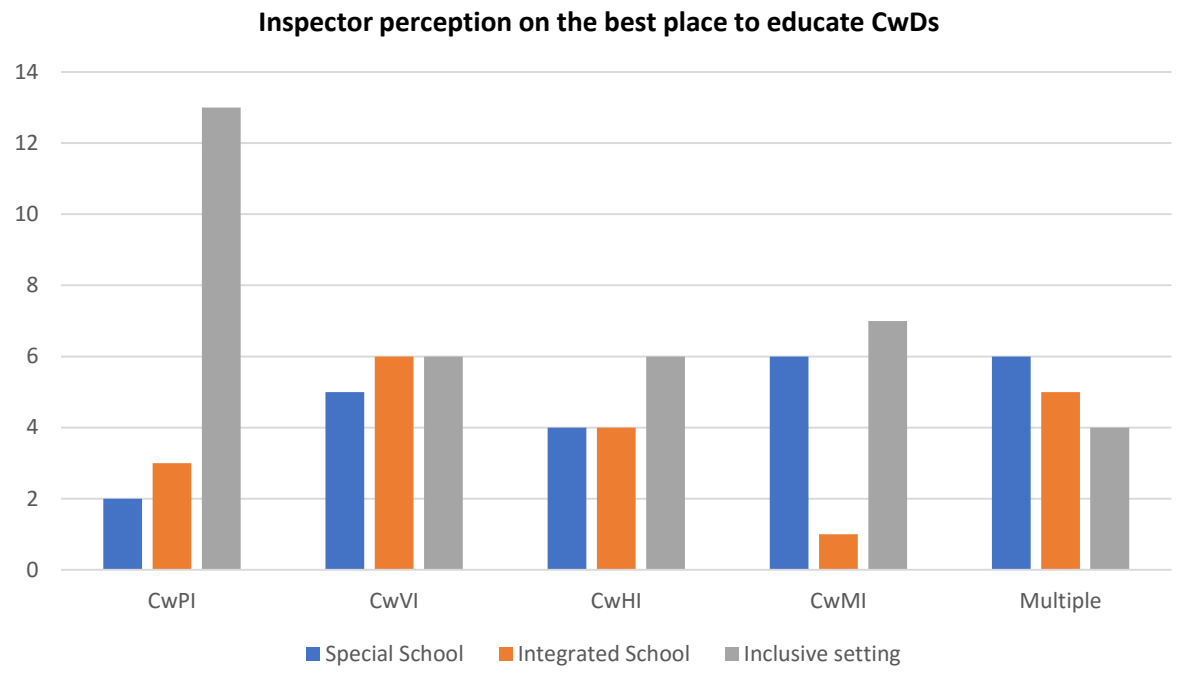
a) At a policy level, there is a lack of consistent leadership due to constraints that are faced by government departments. An initial meeting with the Department for Special Needs Education revealed that data concerning the amounts of special needs education teachers, number of subvention grants applied for (nationally) were not easily accessible as they were held by the planning department. The lack of access to this data made it difficult to analyse funding per head/CwD and trace the impact of additional funding on CwD accessing school or experiencing improved educational provision.[58]

b) Leadership at a district level is also a key area. Not all districts have a designated Special Needs Inspector, and when they do it is often only one of their many roles. While this is not indicative of the district ethos towards inclusion it does limit the available opportunities for schools in the district to get support. For example, 8% of district inspectors noted that there is an inadequate budget even to monitor schools. Also, it is not just about the single special needs inspector but more a district ethos. When 36 district-level officers responsible for special needs were asked to identify the three biggest challenges to the development of IE, 7 (19%) identified negative district attitudes as one of the three challenges. The extent to which the SNE inspectors themselves support IE is a further challenge. To test this, the research team asked the inspectors what form of education was the best for different disabilities, giving them the option of a special setting, an integrated setting and an inclusive setting. Eighteen inspectors responded (though not all responded to each disability type) but the answers highlighted that many inspectors do not believe that inclusive education is the best

[58] The subvention grant is a fund to which schools can apply to receive additional monies to support CwD. Throughout the research process it was not clear how many schools applied and succeeded. It was also not clear whether the district facilitated the process of getting this grant and/or whether any funds were passed onto schools.

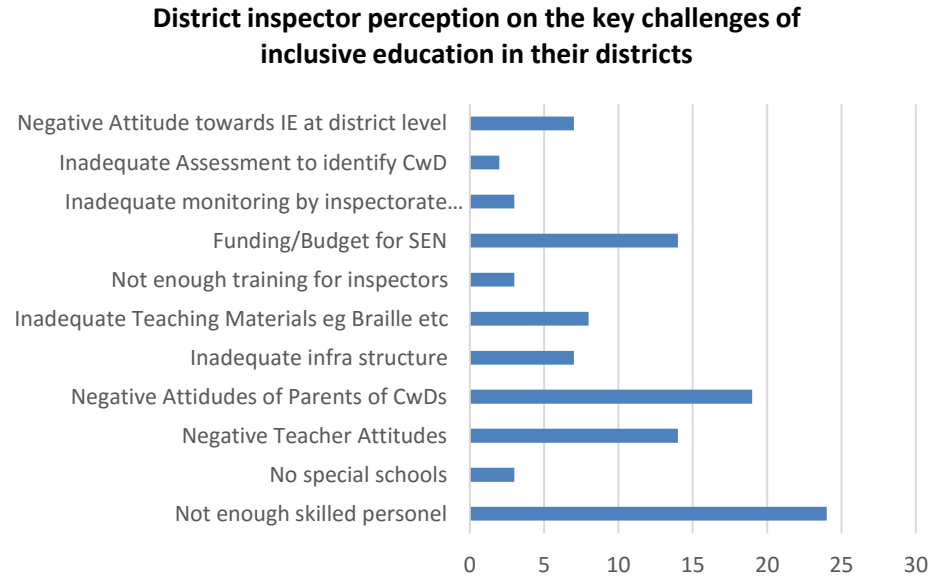
option for many children *at this point in time* and more work is needed to advocate and provide evidence for inclusion at a district level.

Figure 12: Inspector perceptions on the best place to educate CwDs



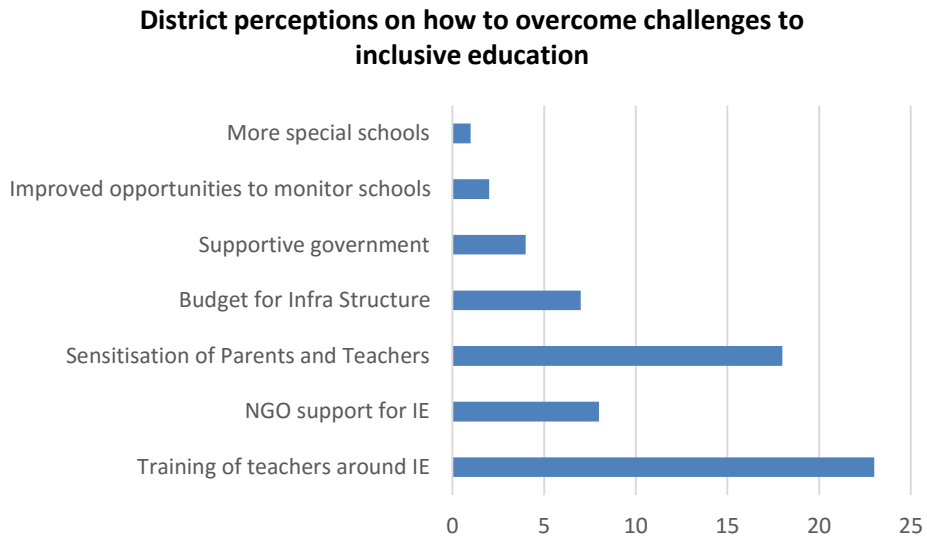
The researchers would argue that this should not be interpreted as a need for more 'sensitisation' training but suggests a need to listen and, where appropriate, respond to the concerns of the district inspectors. The survey also asked what the three key challenges to inclusive education were and what was needed to overcome these challenges. The most common responses were: a lack of skilled people, negative attitude of parents, and lack of funding.

Figure 13: District inspector perception on the key challenges of inclusive education



All of these has likely contributed to the belief that schools cannot cope with inclusion. However, regarding strengths of responses both about the key challenges and solutions, the district inspectors highlighted the importance of training to enable the teachers to provide IE. This would suggest that training around developing inclusive practices is more important than 'sensitisation' training.

Figure 14: District perceptions on how to overcome challenges to inclusive education



What can be clearly seen in the responses to both questions is the importance of having enough skilled personnel to deliver IE, therefore a need for more teacher training. The inspectors regarded this as a far greater need than NGO support and additional funding.

However, what was also apparent was the potential for districts to make a significant impact.

Case Study 19 – Nebbi District – USDC/AbleChildAfrica

The district is ensuring there are special needs teachers allocated to project schools (and in some project schools two teachers - on average in each district one in 3 schools has a special needs teacher).

In the Nebbi district, the district funded two new classrooms (USH 50m) in one of the partner schools; one to be used as a resource centre for assistive devices and the second to be used for special needs 'intervention' for example signing teachers.

'is not an NGO coming in and doing something for us. It is a partnership, working with us. We have been involved from the start, the planning and the implementation and we will still be there when the project withdraws.' Head of Nebbi District Education

c) Leadership at a school level is crucial to achieving impact on the lives and learning opportunities of CwDs and the successful implementation of an IE policy in school. This view is shared by NGOs, teachers and SNE teachers/departments. The data collected clearly, shows a correlation between the strength and vision of a head teacher and the degree of inclusion in schools. For example,

USDC/AbleChildAfrica in their 3-year IE project found that through analysis of Year 1 data and stakeholder interviews that the schools which were performing better had greater head teacher involvement and ownership. As a result, from Year 2 onwards head teachers were included in the training programme, which feedback showed improved ownership. At Iganga Secondary School, the head of the SEN supported this view:

> '*If you want to bring in an inclusive programme, it is always important to convert the head of the school because you as a head of unit may not carry that weight to bring all the teachers with you. But when the head of school speaks the same language as you – as an implementer – then the other teachers will automatically learn to speak the same language as you.'*

Head teachers identified various ways in which they as leaders supported the inclusive education agenda including:

- Monitoring of Lessons
- Inclusion in school improvement plan (although this was rarely mentioned and when the evaluation team asked for School Improvement Plans to verify this, they could not be found)
- Allocation of budget
- Release of teachers to carry out home visits
- Allocation of CPD/training time

The positive impact of a head teacher with clear and strong leadership acts as a catalyst for change. Leadership is also an important feature for SMCs (seen to most effective when there is a parent/carer of a CwD is on the SMC). When the relationship between the head and the SMC is based on working together, i.e. the head is present in SMC meetings, the school's inclusive ethos is more obvious in the infrastructure modifications that have been made and to a lesser degree the quality of teaching of CwDs.

Some of the key principles of school improvement are:

- To have clear, achievable targets
- To be able to self-evaluate to give schools greater ownership of the improvement
- To have a clear understanding of what a good or in this case an inclusive school looks like

In the context of IE, the above was not present in the schools visited. This should not be seen as a criticism of the leadership, but rather as a training need. Despite some heads being able to clearly articulate what they had achieved in their schools, many were unable to move beyond the access and physical environments and talk about the next steps in making their schools fully inclusive (including improving the quality of learning for CwDs). Regarding programming, there is a real need for training in this area to capitalise on the gains already made.

d) Policies for community participation in school-based management (SBM) have become increasingly common across Sub-Saharan Africa over the past decade, advanced by the World Bank, amongst others. It is proposed that parental involvement in SBM can increase resource efficiency, improve educational outcomes, and ensure that schools 'reflect local priorities and values'.[59] The argument is that community participation in SBM both builds the capacity of school management, and increases the accountability of the school to the community (e.g. around issues such as teachers' attendance, and treatment of pupils). In an inclusive education context, this includes accountability of the school to CwDs and the parents and carers of disabled children. Nearly all the primary schools visited had a parent of a disabled child on the PTA and school management committee, and in the case of Kyomya the chairman of both the PTA and the school management committee was a parent of a disabled child. The head teacher of St Bernadette's Primary School in Hoima explained:

> *'when electing members, all categories of people including parents of disabled, are encouraged in order to bring about different skills and widen accountability.'*

The schools consistently highlighted the value of having a member of the PTA or SMC who was a parent of the disabled child.

> *'The parents of disabled children suggested that disabled children should be fed at school, supported the idea and now they are taking porridge at school.' (Makhai Primary School)*
>
> *'CwDs are now served first at break and lunch in idea instigated by parents.' (Kymabogo Primary)*
>
> *'The parent has pointed out where segregation exists and also supported other parents to send their child to school.' (Kyambogo Primary)*
>
> *'The parent is a huge advocate for CwDs. They have carried out Parent Sensitisation Workshops to explain to other parents about disabled children and also advocated that any new classrooms have ramps to support access.' (Buckley High)*
>
> *'The impact has been on other parents as the management committee member has advocated to other parents of CwDs to provide more scholastic materials and as a result, nearly all the CwDs are coming with enough.' (Gulu Primary)*
>
> *'Our PTA members have sensitised the communities about CwDs' education, identification and referrals. They have also shared information with the school about CwDs in their community.' (Waluwerere COU Primary School).*

[59] Barrera-Osorio, 2009:2 accessed on 12.11.16 from: http://siteresources.worldbank.org/EDUCATION/Resources/278200-1099079877269/547664-1099079934475/547667-1145313948551/Decentralized_decision_making_schools.pdf

Only one secondary school visited had a parent of a CwD on their management committee and PTA, but again they highlighted the value of this as the member had *'encouraged more parents to bring their children to school.' (Headteacher Greenhill Senior Secondary School)*

A recently study in Uganda (Crawfurd 2016)[60] found a positive relationship between management and school performance (using a value-added metric). This study also found that at the lower end (non-elite) schools there was no correlation between '*school fees or other school resources and management performance, showing that in principle better management can be a low-cost strategy for improving learning outcomes.'*

In an IE context, this includes accountability of the school in providing quality education of CwD to the community including parents and carers of CwD. SMC leadership consistently was reported as an important element of increasing access and engagement in schools. During FGDs the value of having a member of the PTA or SMC who was a parent of a CwD was consistently highlighted. All schools are required to have an SMC, and the head teacher should work closely with them. Regarding what SMCs can do about IE, in examples of where they worked well, they have managed to supplement the government funding, and they have collaborated with Resident district commissioners (RDC) to engage parents. There are a few [61] examples where SMCs have worked with parents, constructing classrooms and improving attendance in schools and enrolment of those CwDs, not in schools. However, of those spoken to, they felt they did not have the skillset to adequately monitor inclusion. NGOs have not traditionally worked closely with SMCs, but in a few cases, NGOs are becoming more interested in working with SMCs as part of the leadership of a school as they have developed into a relatively powerful force in the running and development of schools. This research would indicate that focusing on the participation of the SMCs in the inclusion process has the potential to significantly improve the chances of changes made becoming embedded and sustainable.

4.4.4 Funding:

Issues around finance were identified by school inspectors as a key challenge to the implementation of IE. In the survey of 36 district inspectors, when asked to identify the three greatest challenges to achieving inclusive education, 14 specifically mentioned funding, eight inadequate materials and seven inadequate infrastructure. At a school level, head teachers were asked:

1) If they had specifically budgeted for special educational needs/inclusive education
2) If they were accessing the subvention grant
3) If they had received funding from other sources such as the PTA or NGOs specifically to support inclusive education?

With regards to a specific budget for inclusive education, it should be first noted how little funding schools receive in their budget (basic amount is 41,000 UGX per child). One head teacher reported:

[60] School Management in Uganda by Lee Crawfurd, Centre for Global Development, University of Sussex June 2016 – this is a draft paper.

[61] The researchers did not manage to interview many SMCs, so these conclusions are tentative.

'the money is so small it is almost very difficult to do that [i.e. to have a specific IE allocation]*.'* Therefore, with regards to an IE budget, the most common response from schools was that CwDs were treated like other children and included in the UPE budget. For example:

> *'We are an inclusive school and all pupils including CwDs access the UPE budget. We don't have a specific special needs budget' (Deputy Head Luwero Boys)*

Only Kyomya in Jinja specifically reports a budget which they said was 5% of UPE funding a special educational needs teacher, feeding programme for disabled, scholastic materials and in some cases medication.[62]

Although not one example of an IE budget could be found, there were many examples of head teachers spending on SEN when requested by a teacher/parent group. At St Bernadette's, Berkley and Kihande Muslim, ramps had been funded by the school. Iganga Secondary school reported that the head teacher had provided significant funding when requested; for example, USH 3.5m to fix braille machines. Rukoki Primary reported that they bought play and handiwork materials to support children with learning disabilities.

The amount of funding available at the school level is not clear (over and above the statutory amount allocated per student 41,000 UGX, per student per term [$114 as of February 2017]) and only 30% of schools surveyed reported that they had received the subvention grant.[63] Some schools reported receiving the subvention grant while others did not. For example, in the west in the Busoga District the three schools interviewed reported that they had received the subvention grant up to 2014 but then it had been dropped. On the other hand, all the schools in the Gulu area reported receiving the grant. However, in the schools visited only 30% reported currently receiving the subvention grant with the majority highlighting it had stopped in 2014. In the majority of cases there was no separate SNE budget (although this was often reported as due to lack of overall budget) and many schools relied on the presence of an NGO to enhance their work and provide funding for items such as resources and teacher training.

All the schools where the grant was received reported spending it according to the government guidelines. This was usually decided upon by the head teacher although, in Gulu High, the money was passed onto the special needs department who were responsible for spending it because *'the head teacher felt the department knew the needs of the school best.' (Head of SEN Gulu High).* However, in the best examples of good practice, the schools had been creative in generating funds, using active PTAs to fundraise, PSGs to access parental help either financially or in kind and actively seek NGO funding. In some cases additional government funding was sought and successfully obtained such as the school facilities grant but given many schools did not even know about the

[62] Due to limited time, the school could not find the evidence to verify this.

[63] Some schools reported on receiving the subvention grant while others didn't. For example in the west in the Busoga district the 3 schools interviewed reported that they had received the subvention grant up to 2014 but then it had been dropped. On the other hand, all the schools in the Gulu area reported receiving the grant. However, in the schools visited only 30% reported currently receiving the subvention grant with the majority highlighting it had stopped in 2014.

subvention grant, it seems unlikely that this avenue would yield many gains. Therefore, with regards to an 'inclusive education budget', the most common response from schools was that children with disabilities were treated like other children and included in the UPE budget. It is recognised that there exist additional costs associated with teaching a child with special needs and where the subvention grant is not available this may result in schools not being able to support CwDs in particular with Wave 2 and 3 (see the quality of education section) intervention. From a district perspective, funding allocations are decided by the DEO; where there are no officials with the SNE role, lobbying for a portion of the funding becomes harder. One district inspector also pointed out that even having sufficient funds to visit and monitor schools was an issue, contributing to a lack of knowledge in certain locations as to the IE provision.

Interestingly the research found that infrastructure developments are not solely reliant on NGO funding (51% of schools reported their changes were funded by NGOs) and that Governments (18%), Parents (26%) and School Fees (5%) contribute significantly to this. A common sense approach to infrastructure changes is needed to ensure buildings are designed with everyone in mind, but this is not immediately apparent in NGOs' programming. In an interview, the head of FENU expressed the sentiment – '…*why have a staircase and a ramp, when just a ramp will do?'* to illustrate the notion that much of IE programming (both NGO and government) is not common sense and that more could be done quicker and cheaper in the long run.

In many schools visited alternative funding streams for IE were accessed, to varying degrees; but this was not a uniform process for schools, and they rely on the following avenues, which vary according to social-economic conditions and NGO presence.

- In 30% of the schools visited, PTAs have funded items such as ramps for classrooms, the repair of braille machines, part-funded a toilet for CwDs and provided in-kind land to grow food for a feeding programme for CwDs.

Case Study 20 – Examples of PTAs

a) In Gulu primary the PTA, which the deputy head described as 'very active and interested in disability' had funded ramps for classrooms, the repair of braille machines and part funded a toilet for CwDs.

b) At Makhai Primary School the PTA (and in particular two members who had children who were disabled) identified the need for a feeding programme for CwDs. To support this, they provided land for farming to grow food for the programme and additional foodstuff. As a direct result, all CwDs are now being fed at school.

c) At Bukedea Primary school the PTA funded the construction of ramps and helped adapt the toilets to make them accessible for CwDs.

d) At Waluwerere School, the school had constructed and repaired ramps and made toilets accessible using a combination of PTA funding and the School Facilities Grant.

- PSGs: Further evidence of the empowerment of parents as advocates for IE can be seen in their financial support of IE initiatives in the school. PSGs directly linked to schools had also managed to successfully apply for funding from the National Disability Fund and the Community Driven Development Fund in 2 schools to support them to develop income generating projects. Although this was not directly funding the school, money from the income generating projects was being used, for example, to set up feeding programmes within the school.

Case Study 21 – PSGs
In the USDC AbleChildAfrica project, in 7 of the nine schools that were part of the project, the PSGs funded ramps into classrooms. In one school (Agwok), the PSG had built an additional disabled toilet.

- NGO funding: 83% of the schools visited had received direct funding support from NGOS to support inclusive education. The most common provision of funding was for infrastructure changes (e.g. ramps, toilets, accommodation) and also for teaching aids (such as braille machines and paper) and assistive devices (e.g. glasses for children).
- School fees: Where schools charged school fees, there was evidence in some cases of the funding being used to develop IE. For example, both at Greenhill Senior Secondary School and Buckley High School funding from school fees had been used to construct ramps and make accessible latrines (Greenhill only).
- Other Government funding: School Facilities Grants were used to construct ramps and/or accessible latrines. Local government funding to construct new rooms-one for storing resources to support inclusion and the other for a classroom to hold interventions delivered by special needs teachers such as signing lessons. 18% of schools reported using government funding to support government infrastructure improvement.

4.4.5 Other forms of inclusion:

- 90% of schools visited reported that CwDs were included in extra-curricular activities and one school reported a CwD as part of a winning debating team.
- During data collection, evidence was also collected about inclusion in sports with 92% of schools stating that CwDs were included in sports lessons and practice was observed where this was happening. What was unknown though was the degree of frequency and in some locations, CwDs reported feeling excluded. At Iganga girls a visually impaired girl reported: '*The school would be better if we were involved in more clubs and competitions; not just a few but all. We are sometimes left out of sports.'*
- In primary schools, CwDs were reported as being prefects in 81% of schools visited and in one case the head boy. This was less likely to occur in secondary schools, and at times CwDs were not included despite winning the election.

- To assess interactions between CwDs and CwoDs, the research team observed break-times to make general comments on the extent of inclusion. CwDs in many schools were isolated and did not mix with fellow CwoDs. However, in schools where group work featured more strongly in lessons there appeared to be greater mixing between CwD and CwoD at break-time.

Summary of key learning around 'engagement/ethos':

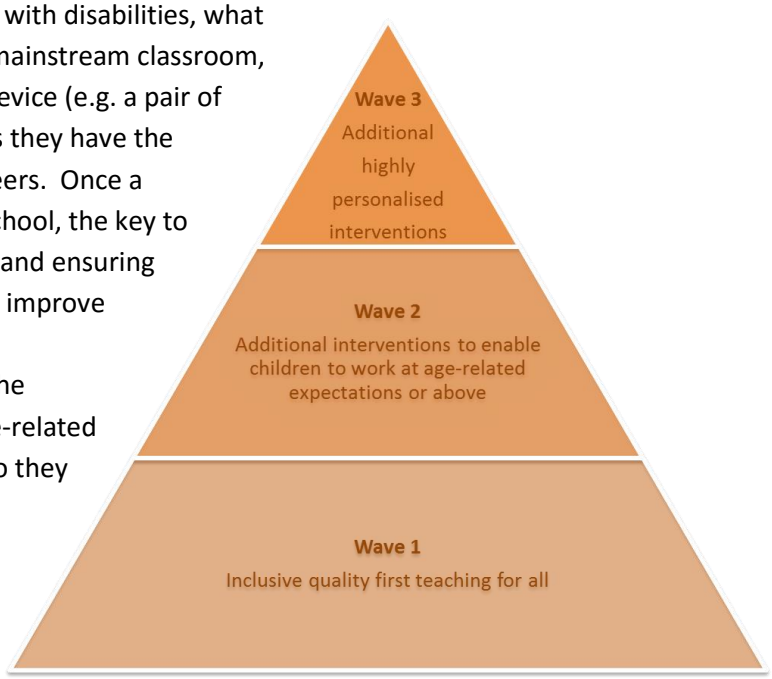
1. Leadership is important at all levels, but particularly in the head teacher of a school. There is a real training need to develop this and capitalise on the potential gains.
2. CwDs are the biggest advocates and drivers of change. More opportunities need to be leveraged where CwDs interact with CwoD, teachers, heads, SMCs and districts in order to drive change.
3. There is less reliance on NGOs for infrastructure development than was previously expected, which points to the driver of change being the relationship between schools and communities.
4. Exploring possible collaboration and work with SMCs is happening and could yield gains for IE.
5. Experiential learning is one of the key drivers to develop inclusive education. The Implications for programming is that to overcome these barriers, training and interaction with teachers needs to ensure they feel skilled enough to teach inclusively.

4.5 Quality

A World Bank Report (November 2013) highlighted that Uganda had been successful in enrolling most primary aged children in school and improving school infrastructure, with 94% of public schools having basic equipment such as blackboards and chalk.[64] However, the report found that despite this, the quality of education remains weak, which in turn poses serious challenges to the country's long-term social and economic progress as outlined in its Vision 2040 for its future. The Uganda Service Delivery Indicators (2013) based on independent surveys of 5,300 teachers in 400 primary schools found that what was most significant was the quality of the teaching. Ritva Reinikka, Director of Human Development at the World Bank said: *'Even in the best-equipped schools children will not get good services unless teachers are well trained and motivated'* (2013). This research agrees with the findings on quality, but for CwD the gains are more marginal, with many CwDs unable to access quality education. The research overwhelmingly finds that in schools where there is a focus on raising the quality of teaching and learning across the board (not exclusively for CwD or any other group) gains are inclusive.

[64] http://www.worldbank.org/en/news/press-release/2013/11/19/quality-uganda-education-and-health-services-poses-serious-risk-long-term-economic-progress accessed 10.12.16

The model in which the findings are presented is one that is used to assess interventions in schools. For a significant proportion of children with disabilities, what matters is the quality of teaching in a mainstream classroom, **Wave 1**. They may need an assistive device (e.g. a pair of glasses), but once there if put in a class they have the potential to perform as well as their peers. Once a project has supported them into the school, the key to improving their educational outcomes and ensuring their learning matches their peers is to improve the quality of teaching for all.



Wave 2 recognises that the pupil has the potential to work at and above the age-related expectations of their peers but to do so they will need a direct intervention. For a hearing impaired pupil, that may need signing support in the classroom. For a pupil who is blind, access to a braille machine or ICT to enable them to access the lesson. If this is provided, students can achieve at the same rate as their peers.

Wave 3 recognises that some children do not have the cognitive ability to access learning in the same way as their peers – for example, children with learning disabilities or those whose disability is so severe that they may not achieve the same learning outcomes as peers (e.g. deaf-blind pupils). They still can benefit socially from IE and make progress in their learning, but those steps may be different. For those children, the school (often with direct support from a special needs' teacher) may at times provide an additional provision, for example, a more life skills based curriculum. This is particularly the case as the child gets older and learning with their peers of a similar age becomes more complex and inaccessible. This may sometimes be in an inclusive classroom with the teacher providing different differentiated activities, and more often it may be at times in a unit with specialist equipment and support. When in a unit, at the same time the child still has opportunities to be with their peers perhaps in some lessons, extra-curricular activities and non-lesson time.

There is an obvious cost implication for Wave 1, 2 and three support. For Wave 1, teachers may need some training to become 'disability aware', but otherwise, there is no direct cost in supporting them to receive a quality education. For Wave 2, there will be costs (e.g. to provide a signing teacher or braille machine). Wave 3 often needs specific learning materials and a specialist teacher who will work with small groups and for more severe disabilities (e.g. deaf-blind) one to one support.

4.5.1 Wave 1

The research found that in most schools the quality of learning in classrooms was variable and quality teaching was limited; however, where it was good, CwDs were learning. One element that resonated throughout all the examples of best practice was that raising the level of quality of learning for all was in itself inclusive. This was not so present in the majority of NGO thinking explicitly and had not been targeted and measured in programming, although some NGOs had expressed the desire to explore this relationship. The inclusion matrix revealed that where good teaching and learning pedagogy existed, greater inclusion in the classroom was present. Tentative conclusions point to the increased focus on teacher training and the introduction of methods, which are by nature inclusive, for example, the increased uses of good quality group work (not just being seated in groups). This not only encourages students to interact with each other, but it also allowed CwDs to access the curriculum verbally and not directly from a textbook, which might be inaccessible. This is a rich area to explore more, regarding what and how much inclusion occurs by default in the classroom and its impact on outcomes for CwDs.

Integral to developing Wave 1 is the training that teachers receive to support them in delivering quality teaching for all. International research points to the potential impact that teacher training has on outcomes and quality[65] and this report finds evidence consistent with this. Despite the inconsistent approach of PTCs in training teachers in SNE previously mentioned, the perceptions of DEOs and DSIs also noted that teacher training had the potential to have the most impact (over and above that of funding and NGO participation).

To assess Wave 1, the following areas were assessed in schools:

Classroom practice (How the classroom teacher ensured the disabled child was included in the lesson) – In 85% of the classrooms observed, when teachers knew they had a CwD in their classroom there was an effort made to seat them appropriately and in some cases to engage them directly through targeted questioning. Where CwD were being supported by a CwoD this was generally at the initiation of the child and not the teacher.

In nearly all the lessons observed across the schools, the teachers knew who the children with disabilities were and thought about the seating arrangement, for example, seating visually impaired children at the front. In a number of lessons, the teacher specifically targeted the students with disabilities by asking them questions and ensuring their participation. In Agwok Primary, in a P7 lesson the child with a disability got the wrong answer, and then other children were asked, and the child was re-invited to answer the question.

In Gulu Primary, in P5 the children were checking each other's answers and reporting back. The child who was blind could not access this part of the lesson as she could not read the book, but the teacher ensured she was still given the opportunity to participate by including her through

[65] A good synthesis of this can be found on the IIEP portal accessed from: http://learningportal.iiep.unesco.org/en/blog/what-works-best-to-improve-learning-outcomes on 12.01.17.

questioning. Likewise, in P7 in Gulu a supportive buddy was observed reporting to a student who was blind what the students were writing in group work. The blind student was then transcribing this using a braille machine.

Children with disabilities often reported that children supported them in their learning and this was vital to their inclusion in the lesson. However, discussions with teachers revealed that this was not instigated by a teacher but by children naturally supporting each other. However, one exception was observed at Neeta Girls. Visually impaired children in P4 were sat with a chosen buddy. The teacher was giving the children a spelling test and read the words to the children. The visually impaired children then orally spelt their answer to their supportive buddy who wrote them for them on a slate. The teacher was then able to assess if the visually impaired children knew the answers. Likewise in Iganga Secondary the head of SEN reported:

> *'whenever there is new CwD the SEN department comes with the child to the class and introduces the child to the class and to the teacher. We request the class to feel free with the student; we explain to the class that the student has this challenge but on the hand this and that ability. We request a student to pair up with them and the first one who comes forward, they sit with him or her.'*

Learning environment (The classroom has displays/learning aids, which are age relevant and curriculum relevant and the teacher is using them to aid learning) – 82% of classrooms had very few displays, and when displays were present, they were not related to the curriculum or lessons. However, the exceptions demonstrated superb displays that were CwD friendly, and the teacher had invested themselves (financially or in kind – time) to create them. In a few cases, there was an obvious influence of an NGO, and the teachers spoke about how the training had developed their thinking around the importance of locally sourced displays and resources. The vast majority of classrooms had very few displays, and when displays were present, they were not related to the curriculum or lessons. There were exceptions in occasional schools. For example, in Neeta Girls', there were some displays in one classroom including children's work (CwD's work was also on display). The teacher had also created a learning corner where different crops were on display. The teacher explained that this was especially beneficial to the visually impaired children who were invited while the evaluator was present to come and feel the different foodstuffs and correctly identify what they were.

The researchers spoke to some teachers about their learning environment. The majority identified it as important but highlighted the lack of resources to make displays. For those who had successfully improved their classroom, they highlighted that they had funded the resources to make the displays themselves.

Case Study 22 – Learning environment

The two schools which were exceptions to this were Kihande Muslim and Bulima Primary in Masindi District. Both schools were part of a school improvement project aimed at improving the

quality of learning in 75 schools in the Masindi District run by the NGO RedEarthEducation. As part of this, teachers had been trained in making resources out of local materials at minimal cost. In addition, the project held termly workshops whereby teachers were invited to attend a day session to make learning resources (no per diem or transport costs were paid). The project collected recyclable material such as bottles and sugar sacks and at the end of the workshop teachers could take additional material to continue making the resources back at school. A number of the teachers in the schools also reported that having been part of the workshops they then encouraged their children to bring to the classes recyclable material to make further resources. All classes had display which were age appropriate and were used to support learning. For instance, bottle lines were used to teach children to blend words when teaching reading. For example, the letters C A T were placed in bottles on a line. The teacher would then bring the bottles together to support the students to visualise bringing letters together to successfully blend sounds to develop reading.

Use of learning aids - This reflects a range from the teacher using learning aids (e.g. a chart or realia) to children using learning aids to support their learning (e.g. a blackboard and in the minority (22%) of cases a pre-prepared resource). Examples were observed where learning aids were being used by CwDs rather than the teacher. Where this was the case, it was key to the CwDs being able to access learning.

In the vast majority of lessons, the only learning aid the teacher used was the blackboard to write notes or questions which the children were expected to copy or answer. Occasionally, the teacher had prepared a learning aid in advance; this was either a display such as in one classroom a map of Uganda or flashcards. The researchers only observed three schools wherein at least one lesson children were using learning aids.

Case Study 23 – Learning aids

In Kiwolera army primary in Kamule District a P2 Mathematics lesson was observed where children were being taught single digit multiplication. The children had their own counting sticks to support their learning. The teacher then wrote a sum on the board (for example 6x3) and modelled to the children how they should make six sets of 3 sticks and then bring them together and add up. There were two disabled children in the class who were partially deaf. The fact they saw the written sum and the teacher modelling the process helped them to understand. The teacher then wrote sums on the board which the children were expected to do using the counting sticks to aid them. In the opinion of the evaluator, counting sticks being used allowed the teacher to assess as to which of the children understood the methodology and which didn't. The teacher observed that one of the children with hearing impairment did not understand. She then modelled to him (one-to-one) and supported the child until they could work independently. By the end of the lesson both hearing impaired children (alongside the vast majority of the class) were able to successfully work out single digit multiplication problems. In the opinion of the evaluator there was real learning in the class; with children being able to successfully do something at the

end of the lesson which they could not have done at the start and furthermore the use of learning aids was absolutely key to the children being able to access that learning.

Child to Child work (The teacher gives the learner the opportunity to work in groups or pairs in the lesson; with the ideal being that the ratio of teacher to child talk in a lesson moves towards 50:50).

Research[66] shows that when students are given a regular opportunity to work with each other rather than simply listen and respond to a teacher, there will be increases in:

- Academic achievement
- The quality of interpersonal skills and relationships
- Improved self-esteem

However, the vast majority of lessons observed (85%) were traditional teacher-led lessons where the teacher either lectured or asked questions, which one child would answer (sometimes the disabled child). The CwDs even identified the limitations of this approach for their own learning. When a secondary student with visual impairment was asked what would make the school better, he replied,

> '*The teachers just dictate notes, and we just write in our version. But if they trained more teachers to ask questions and make us think then our school would be better and our studies more enjoyable.'*

In Gulu Primary, one teacher was observed using paired work when asking questions. The teacher posed a question, and the children were asked to discuss it with a partner before an individual was asked to give feedback to the whole class. This ensured that 'all' children had the opportunity to answer the question, if only to a partner. This occurred twice in the lesson observed. In Kiwolera Army Primary in P7 class children were working in groups to discuss how to answer the question. The disabled children were observed all partaking in the group work and in one case the child with visual impairment was leading their group. In one lesson observed, where pair work was tried, the CwD's partner refused to work with them, and as a result of the pair work reinforced exclusion rather than the intended inclusion. However, this was only observed once and in the researcher's opinion should not be seen as an argument against using the technique but rather a reason to ensure CwDs are sat with supportive peers.

Similar to the learning environment, only in two schools Kihande Muslim and Bulima Primary was group and pair work consistently seen across all lessons. Again, this has been a focus of the RedEarthEducation programme. In all lessons, children were given opportunities to work in groups or paired work. In the opinion of the researchers, this clearly benefited the CwDs not only regarding

[66] Meta analyses and research points to many benefits of active learning. Prince (2004) 'Does Active Learning Work? A Review of the Research' http://www4.ncsu.edu/unity/lockers/users/f/felder/public/Papers/Prince_AL.pdf on 12.09.16

participating in lessons but also regarding general inclusion and the development of interpersonal skills. Across 75 schools, RedEarth carries out at least one annual formal observation of all teachers (in addition to ongoing training, monitoring and support visits. Of those teachers, RedEarth report that 84% included a group or paired work element in their classes and in 62% of classes more than 50% of the class talk was student rather than teacher. What is also of interest is the impact on interpersonal skills and developing an inclusive environment. A headteacher of a primary school reported during an FGD that the group work element of the award had encouraged a deepening of relationships in the classroom and through the friendly competitive nature of the use of groups had flagged up concerns for a child.[67] What is interesting to note is of all the schools visited, in Kihande Muslim[68] (where group work in the class was such a feature) the CwDs most successfully integrated and played together with *'able peers'* during play and lunchtime.

Children with significant learning disabilities (for example in down syndrome) were sometimes seen in mainstream classrooms. Although they benefitted from socialising in classrooms, there was little evidence of improved learning. When books were looked to assess learning, the children would often have scribbles inside them. This occurred (in the opinion of the research team) because there was little or no evidence of differentiation of lessons and a clear pathway to learning.

4.5.2 Wave 2

Wave 2 interventions particularly target those CwDs who have the potential to academically perform at the same level (or higher) than their peers but who need direct in order intervention to do so. This could be in the form of support in class by a person such as a signer, additional equipment, additional lessons, or a combination of these.

A number of schools reported that a significant barrier to this was the fact that braille machines

There is significant potential for the use of IT, and many apps are being developed to support the learning of children with disabilities. The more modern of these (which use iPads for example) were not seen.

Some schools used additional tutorials to provide Wave 2 interventions recognising that CwDs may need additional support to achieve the learning outcomes of their peers. This was in particular in the case of secondary schools. At both Iganga SS for Girls and Gulu High, the school recognised that for more practically based subjects such as practical science the visually impaired children will struggle

[67] As groups attain points (in order to 'win' the point cup on a weekly basis) one group noticed that one of their number was not in school for a day or two. In their desire to attain points for the group they visited the child at home to find out why and indeed when they would be back in school. They found that the child's stepmother had beaten them so badly that they could not walk. The other pupils reported this to the teacher and as a consequence the head became involved and reported this abuse to the authorities. Although this example is not specifically of a CwD, this shows the value of group work.

[68] This can be seen in the child centred film

to access so during these periods they are provided with extra support in core subjects such as

Case Study 24 – Gulu High

At Gulu High students who are blind learn in the mainstream. The NGO Oysters and Pearls supports them through sponsoring six of them in paying their school fees. However, it has also developed ICT support for the children. They have supported through the provision of laptops which allows typed material (such as teachers' notes) to be read to the CwVI using screen-reader software which voices the text. The students use this equipment to write their own assignments, which enables them to receive feedback from the teacher. Oyster and Pearls funded a 2-week ICT course over the summer to introduce the software to the students; the school supported by funding refreshments. Additionally, an ICT coordinator is funded to support the children to access the software. The school still has braille machines on which the students take their own notes and which they use for national exams. However, the school reported that the huge advantage of the ICT is for students to produce assignments which can be marked and assessed by teachers and to access non-braille reading materials. In addition, they highlighted that once set up the cost of running is much more cost efficient because there is no need for expensive paper and students are still able to participate in learning if braille machines breakdown.

The students highlighted the impact of the ICT: 'Computers have helped me a lot to pass my end of year exams and class assignments.' (Student S4) 'I now feel I can join into lessons like other students.' (Student S2)

The project has collected impact data on children's learning outcomes. In Senior 4 and 5 students who are blind had just taken their end of secondary mock exams. Two achieved a Division 1 (the only two in the school) and three students, Division 3. However, what was most impressive was the difference the ICT had made. This was evaluated by looking at students' position in the year in 2015 (before the ICT was introduced) and compared with the students' current year group position (October 2016). Below are details of the performance of four students who were blind in S2.

	Year Group Position 2015 (pre ICT)	Current Year group position (12 months after ICT introduced)
Student 1	103	11
Student 2	135	23
Student 3	153	53
Student 4	151	74

Maths. This was by either a member of the Maths department or SEN department. The use of tutorials was less seen in primary schools with only one school (Gulu Primary) highlighting the SEN department carried them out.

An additional Wave 2 intervention for visually impaired children is to teach them braille. The head of SEN at Iganga SS highlighted that this that is not an alternative to mainstream but moreover complements it.

'We had one blind student who came in Senior One. He embraced the academic work together with braille and within one term he was concentrating on the academic work, but he could also use braille. It was successful because he got a degree in law.'

Case Study 23 – Ngetta Girls – Lira

At Ngetta Girls in Lira, children with visual impairment are taught in the mainstream. They are also provided additional lessons (one period a day) in braille in small groups to develop their braille skills. The children said they preferred being in the mainstream with their classmates but recognised that the braille lessons were important 'as it gave them the skills to take the braille machine into the classroom and make notes.' (CwVI Ngetta Girls)

In a number of other schools, the research team saw braille machines used to support children with visual impairment; more often than not these had been provided by NGOs. Schools reported that these machines sometimes broke, and that braille paper was costly and that NGOs did not provide funds for maintenance or the braille paper.

For children with hearing impairment, signing was used in some schools to support their learning. Different schools used different methodologies to enable this.

In Buckley High, the children with hearing impairment sat at the back of the class in a group with a teacher and blackboard. As the main class teacher delivered the lesson, a signing teacher followed and replicated the lesson at the back with the hearing-impaired children. The extent to which this constitutes inclusion can be questioned, as these children were sat at the back away from their peers, and taught a 'lesson within the lesson'. Also, in the two lessons observed the research team felt that the CwHI were getting a very 'watered down' version of the lesson. The researchers questioned the head teacher as to why this was done. She highlighted two reasons:

- When they had tried having the signer at the front of the class translating the lessons it '*distracted the other learners causing them not to learn.'*
- With working in a small group (a class within a class), the children with hearing impairment are '*given more opportunity to answer questions which helps their learning.'*

At other schools, the signing interpreter stood at the front and directly translated the lesson. This enabled the children to participate alongside their peers. In some lessons the teacher directed questions to the hearing impaired students which were translated by a signing interpreter; the children responded in sign language, which the signer translated for the rest of the class. When children with hearing impairments sit alongside their peers, this has the advantage of building social inclusion. Some of the hearing impaired children reported that '*their seating buddies helped them with the notes*.' In other classes, the CwHI were sat together; this enabled them to communicate and collaborate during group or pair work.

The key issue with the use of signing interpreters is that there they are a scarce and costly resource. If children with hearing impairment are distributed across the grades in a school, then multiple signing interpreters may be needed. Elsewhere in SSA, projects have been set up to use parents as signing interpreters and a small payment made to them. The researchers did not see such a scheme within this study. Although such projects support inclusion, another caveat to it is the assumption that the parents have the skills necessary to facilitate the more complex learning across higher grades.

A more cost efficient and inclusive methodology was reported at Luwero Boys and to a lesser degree at Kyamya Primary. Luwero Boys reported that all teachers know how to sign and will sign their lessons. Unfortunately, because of the school visit being on a national exam day, the research team could not witness this being demonstrated in the classroom. However, when asked the deputy head demonstrated that he could sign the key parts of the lesson he had taught the day earlier around human digestion. Likewise, at Kyamya the SEN teacher is teaching all teachers signing once a week. The teachers do this on a voluntary basis; this started recently. The research team observed a training session, and all teachers could be clearly seen signing and in 2 lessons observed both teachers used basic signing to support the hearing impaired children.

It is important to listen to the views of hearing impaired children about the quality of support they receive in classes. The research team spoke to hearing impaired children at Buckley High (a primary school) and Maryland High (secondary). All children said they preferred having a signing interpreter in the lesson, but they said they still learnt in lessons without signing interpretation, as long as '*the teacher writes all the notes on the blackboard' (*P7 Buckley) and '*when I am sat with a hearing friend who knows some sign language. If I then have a question or don't understand something, I ask them, and they can help.'* (Student S3, Maryland) In *all* the schools where signing was observed (even if only some of the time), other hearing children had also learnt how to sign – often as a result of their own interest.

> *'I saw the signing in a lesson, and I thought that was interesting so I asked my deaf friend to teach me. I now know how to sign really well. It's my new language.' (*Hearing child S3, Maryland).

To support the use of signing in the classroom, some schools had a programme for teaching new CwHI sign language. At Kyamya, Luwero and Buckley High children spend a foundation period (before P1) learning sign language.

The success of Wave 2 is dependent on the presence of a person responsible for SNE and there is a need to train them specifically, for example in identification.

One project with the potential for nationwide impact is the UNICEF funded adapted materials for the deaf, HI, VI and low vision CwDs pilot. These are adapted versions for all learners in the p4 and p6 curriculum by using flexi cards, vector readers and computers/classmates. It is being piloted in 20

primary schools currently and should the results show a significant enough impact, discussions concerning scale up and roll out will commence.

4.5.3 Wave 3

The key to good practice around Wave 3 interventions is an active SNE department supporting children with cognitive or complex disabilities which are difficult to manage in the mainstream. In some schools, children with a cognitive disability are simply placed in the mainstream, with little evidence of learning being seen. Some of the schools visited in the study had a unit run by SNE teachers with whom the children learnt. Learning in the unit took place in smaller groups and could be designed to specifically meet their learning needs. For example, in unit classrooms, timetabling was seen that contained basic maths and literacy but also life skills and handicrafts to potentially prepare the children for a vocation.

Case Study 25 – Gulu Prison

At Gulu Prison P7, 23 children (mainly with learning disabilities) spent time in a unit run by Special Needs teachers. The teachers reported that they followed a timetable which included:

- *Number and Literacy*
- *Science*
- *PE*
- *Art and Handicrafts (Vocational Skills)*
- *Music*
- *Life Skills*

In an interview, the children explained that they enjoyed the lessons, particularly handicraft. However, for some of the children, when books were scrutinised, it was felt they could have accessed mainstream education (for example, one child could do two-digit addition, and read and write whole sentences). When the special needs teachers were questioned on this, they said that the 'children were not happy in classes because the teachers did not like them.'

Other schools with units which catered for children with learning disabilities included Luwero, where children with learning difficulties also study an alternative curriculum developing vocational skills and producing items to sell, thereby self-funding their materials.

There is little doubt that Wave 3 interventions (often in the form of a unit to support children with learning disabilities) have a vital place in inclusive education. However, there are some pre-requisites to make them work effectively:

- Children accessing them have a cognitive disability, which prevents them accessing mainstream learning. (The researchers saw children with other disabilities placed in these units sometimes, and this was not supporting these children to reach their potential.)
- Teachers provide a varied curriculum, which is monitored by the head teacher. When the books of children in the unit were scrutinised in the units, there were a number of cases where children seemed to only occasionally do work. The importance of head teacher

monitoring was stressed by the Head of SEN at Iganga Secondary School who visits 'feeder' primary schools.

'I have visited some schools, and in them, you will sometimes find a head teacher who knows there is a unit in the school and does not know what is being done there and because of that nothing is really happening.'

- Opportunities are still provided for the children in the unit to integrate with other children, for example, a gardening project or in PE lessons
- Teachers have an understanding of the 'next steps' in learning for each child. The strength of the Sense International project is the development of a curriculum which supports the teacher to identify next steps for each learner.

In almost all the schools visited, a key to Wave 2 and 3 inclusion was either a qualified special needs teacher or someone responsible for leading on inclusion.

There is potential for development and support regarding training and mentoring from NGOs and Special schools. Sense International has developed a deaf-blind curriculum which specifically supports the learning and measurement of progress for these children, which has the potential to impact greatly on deaf/-blind students.

The special school sector to some degree has been marginalised in the debate around IE, as they are seen as opposed to it. The research process identified a different picture with one special school, in particular, noting that for inclusion to work, the special school sector needs to be engaged and working with mainstream for the benefit of CwD, especially in the arena of providing suitable education that is not just vocational but also academically challenging. There is a wealth of knowledge and experience that could be shared to make inclusion work better and provide quality education for all. The key to generating an evidence base about what works to raise quality is the monitoring of interventions and the subsequent sharing of them. NGOs, in particular, are increasingly concerned with raising learning outcomes and are documenting this, whether or not they are explicitly involved in IE. The sharing of evidence, methods and strategies is crucial for raising standards in teaching, management, programming, and the academic and social outcomes for all students.

Summary of key learning on the quality of education

1. Improving the quality of education for all has a profound impact on CwDs learning and therefore a focus of training should include improvement in general teaching and learning (with particular reference to group work as this also improves social outcomes for CwDs).
2. Good teaching and learning is by nature inclusive.
3. The role of the Special Needs teacher is vital to achieving successful Wave 2 and 3 identification and IE programmes need to reflect this particularly in their training.
4. Education providers have potentially much to learn from each other in terms of making IE work.
5. Work is needed on monitoring interventions to provide an evidence base (not only from the NGO sector but the education establishment and schools, too) for children's learning, including those with cognitive disabilities.

4.6 Learning outcomes

In the majority of schools, it was difficult to track the academic outcomes of CwDs. A number of primary schools could anecdotally report on specifically disabled children successfully completing PLE exams, but not the exact numbers. Likewise, when asked how the CwDs were doing the common response was 'average', but no evidence such as class ranking was available.

When assessing the progress made by CwDs most schools used the usual metrics – exam results, end of term/year tests but these are narrow metrics only reporting on academic progress. While this does not pose so much of an issue for some CwDs (i.e. those with visual or hearing impairments) for others (i.e. children with learning difficulties) just does not always capture the academic (or otherwise) progress made. For example, there is no standard non-cognitive metric being used in Uganda that can assess the progress made by a student with learning difficulties, which means educational outcomes cannot be measured in a real sense. In addition to this, it hinders the teaching and learning process as it makes it harder for teachers to assess progression. Few NGOs attempt to measure the impact of their programming on learning outcomes (PEAS being a notable exception) and even fewer measure learning outcomes for CwDs (Sense being the exception here). The programmes that did measure learning outcomes only disaggregated them by gender and geographical location when the NGO was in multiple sites. However, there were some examples of developments in this area, especially within NGOs.[69]

The focus on PLE and UCE examinations as measures of success in schools can have a negative impact on attendance and enrolment of CwDs (as mentioned previously, evidence suggests that CwDs are not always being 'encouraged' to transition into P7 and sit their PLE). A narrow focus on examination results risks overlooking the real gains made for individuals and schools as a whole. Recently there have been advances in trying to develop simple value-added scores for schools, which has been well received and is starting the discussion on how else to measure performance (particularly welcomed by the Uganda National Examination Board (UNEB) and University of Kyambogo). The research into value-added scores was carried out by ARK, a UK academy chain with interest in international education and research.

> *'Ark's research project has shown that robust value- added measures can be developed for secondary schools in Uganda. Primary leaving exam results account for 46% of the variation in secondary school examination results, showing the importance of controlling for this factor when evaluating school performance.' (Elks 2016, 4)*

[69] Sense International – Deaf-Blind Curriculum, USDC developing a framework for assessing CwDs with cognitive and learning difficulties. Initial discussions are centring around using an approach common in the UK, using an age related expectations framework and the development of IEPs to make learning goals individual.

The main focus of the NGOs spoke to, was to collect numbers of CwDs accessing school and attitudinal change. Whole school improvement projects spoken of did sometimes collect data around educational outcomes but were not 'mainstreaming disability' and as a result did not disaggregate for disability and were unable to answer how CwDs were doing in their project. The research team recommends that data is collected on this with the aspiration that children without cognitive disabilities are learning at an equivalent rate to their peers and children with a cognitive disability have evidenced progression in their learning. Various tools could be used to measure progression and outcomes. For the former, PLE results, class ranking, or a simple literacy/numeracy test measured against a control group of CwoD. For the latter, the development of Individual learning plans with measurable targets such as developed by Sense International.

The research team did seek other means of establishing the learning of CwDs, for example, by examining class books, which suggested that the majority of children observed were at least accessing work that was comparable to their peers. What was significant were the views of the children and parents regarding their academic performance, in particular, the difference between mainstream education versus special schools:

> *'When I sent my child to a special school, I observed the teachers taught the children slowly and had very little expectations of their learning; they were not serious. Now my daughter is in an inclusive setting I know she is treated the same as other children with the same high expectations.' (Mother of deaf student, Maryland High)*

> *'The biggest change for me is having friends who are not deaf and my learning. At first the work was very difficult, much harder than special school, but I have caught up. It has also changed my outlook; before coming to a mainstream school I didn't believe I could do much, now I want to want to work in a bank or a business.' (Deaf student, Maryland High)*

> *'There is a lack of commitment at times in special schools by the teachers. When we are in a special school we are there as people who need charity.* [In a mainstream school] *we are here to work hard and learn. There are parts I cannot learn on my own but they* [CwoD] *come in and give us a hand.' (Blind student, Iganga SS)*

4.7 SNE Teachers

In almost all the schools visited, a key to inclusion was either a qualified special needs teacher (or someone responsible for leading on inclusion). It is of interest that in many countries the role of head of SEN has been replaced by a head of Inclusion as this reflects the importance of the role as a facilitator of inclusion rather than that of someone responsible for SEN. Good practices observed included:

- Outreach to the community to support the enrolment of CwDs or follow up on CwDs who are absent (or dropping out).
- Testing of children to support the identification of CwDs in school.
- Leadership of Wave 2 and 3 interventions.
- Training teachers in signing or basic induction in disability. At Iganga Secondary School the Head of the SEN spoke about inducting new teachers:

'*We think some teachers are afraid of CwDs…They don't know where to begin. The head of school comes to our induction and this makes sure the teachers follow. All new teachers are inducted and given basic training on special needs and how to handle the CwDs in the class and the compound…For CwHI, we tell the teacher to have prewritten notes and gives them to the student in advance. Then when the other students are writing, he can compare them. If that is not possible, to ensure they write everything they say. For VI the teacher must dictate as well as write notes and if there is a difficult word to spell, he kindly spells it out. '*

- Advocacy for the disabled, including on issues such as infrastructure.
- Ensuring the voices of CwDs are heard.
- Facilitating Parent Support Groups.
- Supporting the induction of new CwDs to the school and providing pastoral support to CwDs.
- Providing assistive devices such as braille machines.
- Running extra-curricular activities such as disabilities clubs.

The head of SEN at Iganga School best explained:

> *'If you want to make inclusion work you have to make it very easy for the teachers to embrace an inclusive setting. We don't want it to be taxing for the teaching, then a barrier occurs so if we keep it easy for them it works. We* [SEN teachers] *have to make it easy for these teachers and to do that we have to bring the burden (of support) onto ourselves.'*

However, given the theoretical importance of this role, what was observed in the majority of schools with an SEN teacher was that they were doing a limited number of these activities and more or less preferred to stay in their unit supporting children in their unit. In some cases, because of this, the SEN teacher could be seen as a potential barrier to inclusion rather than a facilitator of inclusion. The research team tried to unpick this in conversations with SEN departments. Two themes which arose were:

1) The perception amongst SEN teachers that their training had been very much around running a unit rather than being a facilitator of inclusion and they have had to develop this role themselves, to a greater or lesser extent.
2) Their perception of a huge challenge around supporting a number of CwDs in different grades. From discussions with SEN teachers, it was clear that no targeted planning and mapping of time existed such as a provision map. A provision map is an efficient way of showing all the provision that the school makes which is additional to and different from

that which is offered through the school's curriculum. In particular, they are helpful as they provide:
- An overview of the programmes and interventions used with different groups of pupils.
- A basis for monitoring the levels of intervention.

4.8 Training

Fundamental to improvements in the development of IE is the training of teachers. This was highlighted as the biggest need both at school and district level and also by some of the other NGO stakeholders. Many NGOs operate in the arena of training, some of which includes training on SEN, inclusion and child-friendly pedagogy/school.[70] However, what was observed in some programmes was a 'one size fits all' approach to training, rather than bespoke training packages to meet the needs of key players in IE at a school level. On the basis of the research, there are five areas the research team feel important to address:

1. To improve the quality of education for the majority of CwDs the key to training is Wave 1 intervention: improving the quality of teaching for all students. Of particular importance for CwDs is the development of C2C/active learning. CwDs continually stressed the importance of working together and also how working together broke down peer to peer barriers.

2. The second strand of training relates to the impact of developing the capacity of staff to identify CwDs. Schools which successfully carried out identification activities achieved a significant increase in the identification of CwDs already in school.

3. The third strand of training which has a major impact is around school leadership and how to lead an inclusive school. (This would potentially also include district inspectorate and members of the SMC).

4. The final training strand which the research suggests is vital is the training of SNE teachers or (where absent) a designated person responsible for SNE in the school. The research found that in some projects SEN teachers were being ignored in IE training, but this study indicates that these teachers have an important role in facilitating inclusion, particularly around Wave 2 and 3 interventions. A part of this should include provision mapping.

5. The importance of monitoring and support as a follow-up to training cannot be stressed enough. Where training programmes were successful they were supported by ongoing (e.g. monthly) monitoring and support visits, with additional 'top-up' training, as necessary. This was most effective when carried out by educational professionals. In the absence of regular monitoring visits, schools reported that training was not embedded in everyday classroom practice.

[70] Build Africa, AbleChildAfrica, GEC partners, RedEarth, PEAS, etc.

5.0 Financing IE and Costs

This research attempted to discover how interventions compared on a cost per pupil basis. Very few NGOs were willing to disclose such information due to the varying degree of support programmes had for CwDs. For example, Cheshire Services has a holistic approach, with high levels of expenditure on operations and assistive devices for CwDs to enable them to access schooling while other programmes that also focus on access are working with CwD with less severe needs, so the average unit cost per child is lower. When asked about costing information for this research NGOs were reluctant to share it – possibly due to the lack of control they would have over its interpretation. Traditional notions of sustainability of programme and longevity of impact are important, but some in the NGO sector expressed the concern that with high unit costs the programming would not be seen as 'sustainable', but the impact on individual lives was enormous and unquantifiable.

The numbers of CwDs enrolled in schools does not illustrate the severity of disability, and it needs to be recognised that CwDs with a greater degree of severity of disability present greater challenges and are in some cases more expensive to support them in accessing schooling. This means that comparing projects alone on absolute numbers is flawed and can misrepresent the relative successes or weaknesses of schooling/programmes.

The above point also has relevancy for the exploration of costs. NGO programming varies according to NGO interest and funding available. Throughout the course of this research, there was not one single example of where NGO programming addressed the three tiers of inclusion – access, engagement and quality. While this is to be expected, it does mean that programmes are not comparable when they operate in different spheres. Also, it reflects the need for greater partnership and the huge potential for the sharing of learning across NGOs and joint-programming to provide for these three tiers of inclusion.

Examples of unit costs:

AbleChildAfrica/USDC

Nature of the Project

Develop inclusive education across all schools over three years, principally through:

- Development of Parent Support Groups (Access)
- Training of teachers in Child to Child Methodology (Quality)
- Infrastructural changes in schools (Ethos)
- Medical support to schools to help identify children and provide assistive devices (Access)

The project also had a strong advocacy element. The following cost analysis is based on direct cost only, not costs at head office (international or local).

Whole Project (3 years):	**$**	**USH**	
Cost Per School	$14,760	53 million	Based on 9 schools

Cost Per Beneficiary	$146.79	528,424	Based on 905 CwDs across the 9 target schools

Costing Various Interventions:

1. Setting up Parents Support Groups in each school	**$**	**USH**	**Costs of setting up, running and monitoring**
3 Yr Cost Per School	$2460	8.85m	Based on 9 schools
3 Yr Cost Per Beneficiary	$24	88,071	Based on 905 CwDs across the 9 target schools

2. Infrastructure Improvements (Ramps and disabled toilets)	**$**	**USH**	**Costs of setting up, running and monitoring**
3 Yr Cost Per School	$3675	13.2m	Based on 9 schools
3 Yr Cost Per Beneficiary	$36	131,620	Based on 905 CwDs across the 9 target schools

T3. Training of Teachers in supporting the quality of education for CwDs	**$**	**USH**	**Costs of setting up, running and monitoring**
3 Yr Cost Per School	$3364	12.1m	Based on 9 schools
3 Yr Cost Per Beneficiary	$33.4	120,402	Based on 905 CwDs across the 9 target schools

RedEarthEducation (Aiming at Improving the quality of teaching for all (including CwDs) across 50 schools)

Training of Teachers in supporting the quality of education for all children (Wave 1 Intervention)	**$**	**USH**	**Costs of setting up, running and monitoring**
3 Yr Cost Per School	$2583	9.29m	Based on 50 schools
3 Yr Cost Per Beneficiary	$5.74	20,664	Based on 22500 children across the 50 target schools

Some key learning

- Disability projects often have high costs per school. This means that they only support a small number of schools. This has a significant impact on their potential to scale up across whole districts and Uganda. Considering there are 12,303 government schools in Uganda, it could be argued that there is a need to find a more cost-efficient model of practice.

- However, there appears to be significant value of looking at the unit cost of different interventions. For example, the review found that setting up parent support groups linked to schools was significant in improving the numbers of CwDs access schools and its unit cost per beneficiary at $24 over the 3 years was relatively low. The review identified other interventions which although no direct costing has been made available have the potential to be of significant value for money. These include:
  - Working with existing health services to support the identification of CwDs.
  - Training schools to improve the identification of CwDs who are in school but not correctly identified (often labelled as slow learners).
  - The research found that the biggest impact on changing attitudes towards CwDs amongst teachers and peers was direct contact with the children which is of little cost.
- There seems to be significant value in high-quality training and mentoring of schools in the quality of education for all (Wave 1 Intervention). The cost per beneficiary (given all children benefit) is significantly low at $5.74 over the 3 years. To support children with more complex disabilities (Wave 2 and 3 interventions) the cost per child goes up as children require more support either through assistive devices or smaller groups and 1 to 1. However, no costings from other projects were provided to examine this in more detail.

In other countries, larger scale projects have been set up at lower unit costs.

Ethiopia (Itinerant Teacher Project)

The government released 20 special needs teachers two days a week to support neighbouring schools. Each teacher supported between 3 to 5 schools:

- Providing training to staff in school
- Supporting the establishment of disability clubs

	$	USH	
Cost Per School	$144	519,500	Based on 75 schools
Cost Per Beneficiary	$9.56	34,123	Based on 1132 CwDs across the 75 target schools

6.0 Validation workshop

This was held on the 9th March 2017 in Kampala and over 50 people from the IE community attended to validate the research findings. The workshop briefly presented the research rationale, process undertaken, findings and then concluded with a discussion on the ways forward. The key

questions that were presented for discussion are outlined below, and a final report was written by a rapporteur to ensure independent reporting of the workshop events and discussion.

The stakeholders/participants present reflected that the findings were fair and accurately reported the current situation. The the main findings of the research were validated and the government representative, Mr Onen Negris, from the Department of Special Educational Needs, stated *'We shall take the report very seriously and try to improve.'* He requested that those working in the sector try to coordinate their efforts and share evidence and learning within the sector. The chairman of USDC spoke passionately about the need to take this research forward and that all in the room had ownership over the results and a duty to act on them.

Participants raised issues that are addressed in this report (the half-day session was not long enough to cover all the issues). Some of the points raised and reactions to the presentation include:

- Disability is a mindset that needs addressing – despite the research highlighting the misrepresentation of groups' opinions.
- Participants had questions surrounding the terms Special Needs Education, Integrated Education, Inclusive Education and disability versus SEN. This tension is addressed in this report.
- In Uganda, there are many types of schools, and the participants added that it quite difficult sometimes even at the districts level to differentiate which school was inclusive or integrated and also the understanding of inclusion at the school level.
- In the case of severe disabilities, is IE appropriate? What about phonic awareness for the deaf? Were they seen in an IE school?
- Accurate census data is needed at the national level as CwDs are often 'hidden'.
- There are problems around the primary-secondary transition: there's a ballooning in P6 because schools do not want to let CwDs progress and negatively affect their results. (This has implications for identification: schools *have* identified them because they keep them back)
- Three participants mentioned 'what about private schools?' – addressed in this report.
- The study provides useful evidence for NGO funding bids. For example, it provides evidence of areas which are already well-served for IE, so this will help to avoid duplication of efforts.
- Some mentioned that the legacy of the 'EARS' (Danida) programme was not addressed while others were keen to move on from this as it was long ago and focus on the current issues.
- Many were surprised about the reported decrease in the amount of CwDs accessing school; there is a need to find out why.
- The role played by the Disability movement in promoting best practices was not brought out.

The participants were then split into groups and asked to address three questions to validate the findings and highlight areas for further examination. The last question was intended to summarise the workshop findings and come to the point of agreement on next steps.

Focus for group discussion:

1. What do you think about these findings? Do they resonate with your own experience?
2. Is there anything not captured here?
3. What are the implications of this research for your own area of work?

The following is a summary of the areas discussed organized according to areas identified for future focus and advocacy.

1**. Research:** This research has informed future research and scope of operation, it has also helped to avoid replication of interventions and has facilitated experiences shared by other stakeholders since it is regionally based and supports the implementation of SDG4. However, future research needs to investigate the following:

- What are the most appropriate ways in which to judge learning outcomes?
- What is the situation in rural areas given there is 80% drop out of children in rural schools? Are there more CwDs in these areas?
- How can other methodologies (other than C2C) be explored and used to push forward IE?
- What internal barriers like the finances, social economic and institutional barriers and critical cost drivers affect the degree of inclusion?
- How can we explore the role of SNE teacher further?

2. **Networking:** To strengthen partnerships and collaboration the following areas need to be addressed:

- To resolve the inconsistency between UBOS and the MoES about information and data on inclusion and disability. This therefore calls for more collaboration between the institutions which can only be made real if development partners that complement government efforts support the process.
- NGOs need to strike a balance between advocacy and program budgets.
- Greater connection needs to be made between the stakeholders and listen to the experience that DPOs have and the relative position of organisations regarding inclusive education.
- Work towards the institutionalisation of SNE in teacher training. There is a need to enrich teacher training curriculum with inclusive education.
- Work towards creating a more solid partnership between the NGO and the MoES.

3. **Policy:** Advocacy, formulation and broadening of the curriculum beyond, including resource mobilisation support. There is a need to provide clear definitions of the physical, multiple and learning difficulties that CwDs have and then use consistently in all documentation.

4. **Monitoring and evaluation:** Greater emphasis on this areas will result in made detailed information for planning purposes. This needs to:

- Include support for supervision on a district level
- To accurately assess multiple disabilities (and other forms) a comprehensive tool is needed and then extensive training of data collectors to ensure consistency.

- Teachers are unclear about definitions. Therefore there is a need for a universal definition of the term disability.

5. **Capacity building:** Various parts of the IE sector need capacity building to ensure consistent delivery of services, full engagement with the education system and the measurement of outcomes.

- Advocacy towards having and promoting a holistic approach that benefits all should be encouraged as some parents fail to access special schools and some even do not know where they are located in their districts.
- Parents need awareness, training and guidance to realise inclusion even in their communities. It is important to address the lack of information on socio- economic factors coupled with the cultural beliefs and practices that dis-appropriately affect CwD.
- Schools need support in developing assessment forms that capture disability and training in how to use them. The question of measuring learning outcomes also needs to be addressed in such a way that is consistent and useful to schools in their planning.

The participants recognised that designing inclusive programmes is complex and requires a high level of expertise to be successful. However, this research and the discussions during the validation workshop go some way in re-defining these challenges and developing new methods of intervention. It was also noted that this research has introduced an evidenced based way of thinking about inclusive education and will hopefully lead to a multi-disciplinary approach towards managing inclusive education. The main message from the participants was that to achieve all of the above, a high level of coordination is needed between the stakeholders. The evaluation team would recommend that this momentum is carried forward and that there is a forum for further discussion and collaboration that leads to concrete commitments from the stakeholders in IE as to what actions need to be taken with a time frame attached.

7.0 Concluding remarks and ways forward

This research has highlighted many examples of where solutions to the issues/barriers facing IE have been developed successfully with positive outcomes for CwDs. Fundamentally these solutions, at whatever level, have come from a shift in attitude towards seeing a CwD in a deficit model (i.e. the problems are located within the CwD) to a model that seeks to make education inclusive by finding solutions to the problems that children face in schools.

Regarding what contributes to the success of IE in Uganda, the following features were identified by the research and act as indicators as to the way forward.

- This research is consistent with much other research that shows that educating CwDs alongside CwoD has benefits for all. The children themselves spoke articulately about the benefits they gained both academically and socially and during consultation spoke passionately in favour of IE.

- School leadership was found to be important in navigating the problems that CwD face in school. Having leaders that are knowledgeable and committed to making a difference can result in real changes that impact on CwDs and both the school and local communities. The potential for SMCs to develop a more IE ethos and practice in school has been raised and more research into how this partnership can benefit schools is needed.
- The presence of a committed, interested SNE individual in school goes a long way in determining the quality of provision that CwDs experience. Developing ways in which to ensure schools have these individuals requires district and national level planning.
- Whether or not parents engage with schooling for their children is determined by their perceptions of quality, safety and appropriacy. Programming/schools that worked to engage and build trust with parents were successful, and areas that developed relationships between official structures had started to embed these successes.
- Regarding national level leadership, clear goals and a commitment enshrined in policy are clearly needed to make inclusion education a reality. The clarity of purpose, definition and identification in any IE system is crucial in allowing all stakeholders to work together to the same end. The National government also can direct existing funding to IE and make sure that other sectors and all government departments collaborate and are involved in IE. They are also able to use their influencing power to determine where development aid goes and can ensure that it supports IE.
- The research identified a clear need on a system-wide level to develop curriculum and training to support the delivery of IE in Uganda. This involves bringing together the stakeholders at this level to ensure consistency and clarity between their planning and implementation in their respective areas, from UNEB to University/college training providers to effective monitoring by DEOs and DSIs.
- It is also essential to carry out effective monitoring and evaluation of IE programming and activities, so there is a continual cycle of learning that benefits IE delivery.
- Both the research and validation workshop noted a lack of consultation with DPOs which is a weakness. The myriad barriers that PwDs face need to be built into any programming for IE to ensure that appropriate solutions are devised.
- Data collection by government and NGO needs to reflect the situation on the ground regarding groups that are marginalised and vulnerable. In relation to CwDs, this data can be further disaggregated according to a consistently used definition of disability type. The research discovered many examples of good practice in education but not explicitly IE or education with a disability focus, so it is hard to know the effect of their programming on groups not identified in their M+E planning. For example, many programmes will benefit CwDs although their focus is on girls. The recent focus on girls in education has generated a whole host of funding that specifically targets girls which have traditionally been an under-resourced area. As marginalised and vulnerable groups interact with each other, more detailed data collection will be able to help with determining the impact on different groups.

Annexes:

Annex 1: Inclusion matrix

Progression in Inclusive Education Matrix at School Level

The assessment team recognises that what inclusive education looks like in a school setting is very complex and multi-faceted. Underlying it all is the overall goal of inclusive education being to ensure that all learners access, participate and achieve in their education and that they are all valued equally.

It recognises three significant strands in this

- Increasing **access** to education for CwDs(i.e. the numbers of disabled children in school)
- Full **engagement** of CwDs with other pupils in the classroom (Inclusive Ethos)
- **Quality** of learning for CwDs

Within each of these strands it recognises there are various 'sub-strands', which act to support this happening.

The assessment team also recognises that it takes time for a school to become inclusive. Therefore for each sub-strand there is a continuum to show progression to inclusivity.

The idea of the tool is that in an extended school visit through using head teacher's interviews, lesson and general observations, school data, a teacher attitude survey tool and a children attitude survey tool; the team can assess where a school is on each of these strands. This will allow us to pick up strengths (and therefore good practice) and areas for development. When comparing over a number of schools it is hoped to enable trends to be observed.

The reason we have chosen such a matrix is because in a Ugandan context a similar tool (but this time looking at general school improvement not specifically special needs) has been used and has significantly impacted in the Masindi district as a way of assessing and then improving schools. Members of the assessment team have been involved in the design of this.

A copy of the actual matrix is available upon request: emmasarton@gmaill.com or marksm66@yahoo.com

Annex 2: UNCRPD – Article 24
List of NGOs/CSOs/FBOs forums and networks consulted

The Committee highlights the importance of recognising the differences between exclusion, segregation, integration and inclusion. Exclusion occurs when students are directly or indirectly prevented from or denied access to education in any form. Segregation occurs when the education of students with disabilities is provided in separate environments designed or used to respond to a particular or various impairments, in isolation from students without disabilities. Integration is a process of placing persons with disabilities in existing mainstream educational institutions, as long as the former can adjust to the standardized requirements of such institutions. Inclusion involves a process of systemic reform embodying changes and modifications in content, teaching methods, approaches, structures and strategies in education to overcome barriers with a vision serving to provide all students of the relevant age range with an equitable and participatory learning experience and environment that best corresponds to their requirements and preferences. Placing students with disabilities within mainstream classes without accompanying structural changes to, for example, organisation, curriculum and teaching and learning strategies, does not constitute inclusion. Furthermore, integration does not automatically guarantee the transition from segregation to inclusion.

The core features of inclusive education are:
a) Whole systems approach: education ministries must ensure that all resources are invested toward advancing inclusive education, and toward introducing and embedding the necessary changes in institutional culture, policies and practices.

b) Whole educational environment: the committed leadership of educational institutions is essential to introduce and embed the culture, policies and practices to achieve inclusive education at all levels: classroom teaching and relationships, board meetings, teacher supervision, counselling services and medical care, school trips, budgetary allocations and any interface with parents of learners with and without disability when applicable, the local community or wider public.

c) Whole person approach: recognition is given to the capacity of every person to learn, and high expectations are established for all learners, including learners with disabilities. Inclusive education offers flexible curricula, teaching and learning methods adapted to different strengths, requirements and learning styles. This approach implies the provision of support and reasonable accommodation and early intervention so that they are able to fulfil their potential. The focus is on learners' capacities and aspirations rather than content when planning teaching activities. It commits to ending segregation within educational settings by ensuring inclusive classroom teaching in accessible learning environments with appropriate supports. The education system must provide a personalized educational response, rather than expecting the student to fit the system.

d) Supported teachers: All teachers and other staff receive education and training giving them the core values and competencies to accommodate inclusive learning environments, which include

teachers with disabilities. The inclusive culture provides an accessible and supportive environment which encourages working through collaboration, interaction and problem-solving.

e) Respect for and value of diversity: All members of the learning community are welcomed equally, with respect for diversity according to, inter alia, disability, race, colour, sex, language, linguistic culture, religion, political or other opinion, national, ethnic, indigenous or social origin, property, birth, age or other status. All students must feel valued, respected, included and listened to. Effective measures to prevent abuse and bullying are in place. Inclusion takes an individual approach to students.

f) Learning-friendly environment: Inclusive learning environments must create an accessible environment where everyone feels safe, supported, stimulated and able to express themselves, with a strong emphasis on involving students themselves in building a positive school community. Recognition is afforded to the peer group in learning, building positive relationships, friendships and acceptance.

g) Effective transitions: Learners with disabilities receive the support to ensure the effective transition from learning at school to vocational and tertiary education, and finally to work. Learners' capacities and confidence are developed and learners receive reasonable accommodation and equality regarding assessment and examination procedures, and certification of their capacities and attainments on an equal basis with others.

h) Recognition of partnerships. Teacher associations, student associations and federations and OPDs, school boards, parent-teacher associations, and other functioning school support groups, both formal and informal, are all encouraged to increase their understanding and knowledge of disability. Involvement of parents/caregivers and the community must be viewed as assets with resources and strengths to contribute. The relationship between the learning environment and the wider community must be recognized as a route towards inclusive societies.

i) Monitoring: As a continuing process, inclusive education must be monitored and evaluated on a regular basis to ensure that segregation or integration is not happening either formally or informally. Monitoring, according to article 33, should involve persons with disabilities, including children and persons with intensive support requirements, through OPDs, as well as parents or caregivers of children with disabilities where appropriate. Disability-inclusive indicators must be developed and used consistent with the 2030 Agenda for Sustainable Development.

Annex 3: Data collection tools

Data Collection Tools				
Tool	**Purpose of Tool**	**Who will collect data?**	**From whom is the data collected?**	**Sample Size**
Inclusion Matrix	To assess on a school level the development of inclusive practices. This provides a means of auditing a school but also ways to develop in school a more inclusive education provision. The themes that demonstrate inclusive education are targeted towards different groups but also different elements of the teaching and learning process in schools including the environment. The stakeholders questioned will use alternative tools (as outlined separately below) and all brought together to provide a detailed picture of the degree of inclusive education on a school level.	USDC & Enable-Ed	Head teachers	52
			Teachers	150
			CwD and CwoD	140
			Those responsible for SEN in school	20
Semi Structured Interviews	Semi -Structured Interviews will be used to verify other data collected and to collect feedback and reflections on the state of IE in schools and system wide. Questions will include verification of: 1) Enrolment 2) Attendance 3) Inclusive friendships 4) Parent involvement 5) Access to and use of assistive devices 6) Teaching methodologies 7) District and National Government commitment to IE	USDC & Enable-Ed	District Officials	All
			Parents	110
			CwD and CwoD	140
			Government Officials	59
			Teachers	150

	8) Involvement of PSGs 9) Access to funding/grants and NGO programmes			
Lesson Observations/Learning Walk	The observations will be used to measure the degree of IE against a set of criteria and will feed into the Inclusion Matrix tool. Training for USDC will take place in the first two weeks of October and be carried out by RedEarth. The purpose of the training is to create a shared understanding of lesson observation in a Ugandan setting that can then ensure that good practice is identified using the same set of criteria across each region.	USDC & Enable-Ed	Teachers	2 per school (38 schools)
CwD and CwoD perception and attitude tool	This tool is to be designed to measure self-reported feelings of inclusion. The basis for this tool is to walk through the child's typical day with them and question in more detail critical points though the day where IE may suffer, and the attitudes and perceptions of others may impact. The narrative story of the day will be supported by pictures to aid discussion. The pictures are in a Ugandan context and help children to identify their feelings and attitudes towards certain images as well as providing a tool for children to identify their friendship groups and activities they participate in.	USDC & Enable-Ed	CwD and CwoD	140
Enrolment records	Enrolment records to be collected re the amount of CwD in relation to CwoD but also the type of disability - some work will need to be done with regard to ensuring the same definitions of CwD type are being used.	USDC	Head teachers	52

Assessment Records	These will be the records collected by schools following all assessment of children, both CwD and CwoD. The tools used for CwPI/HI/VI will be the same as for CwoD while the tools used to assess CwLD will be based on showing progression.	USDC	Head teachers	52
Attendance records	Attendance records to be collected of CwD compared to CwoD	USDC	Head teachers	52
Annual Teacher records from Districts	To measure provision of SNE teachers per District. To measure commitment of government to IE	USDC	Government	53% of districts
District Level Survey	To assess on a district level the development of inclusive practices when schools are being assessed but also in the district level planning and delivery of support for schools. This is a two-tier data collection tool with the first tier being sent to more districts to identify the districts to visit and canvass in more depth during the second tier.	USDC & Enable-Ed	DEOs/DSIs/local councils	At least 50% of districts to drill down to the next layer of survey which is in more detail
NGO/CSO/FBO/Association and Agency Survey	To gauge the level of commitment to IE and disability provision from the private sector and how it interacts with the public sector and impacts on CwD and CwoD and becomes a catalyst of IE in a school or non- formal education setting. This is a two-tier data collection tool with the first tier being sent to more organisations to identify the work being done in IE and then to visit and canvass in more depth during the second tier.	Enable-Ed	NGOs, CSOs, Agencies and Associations	See annex -35 consulted

Policy and Literature Review	To ascertain the degree to which IE is being made feasible through the policy and literature landscape in Uganda.	USDC & Enable-Ed	To be determined	n/a
National Data Analysis	To identify districts where CwDs are accessing/not accessing education and as a proportion of total enrolment (disaggregated by gender) as a pre-curser to drilling down as to which districts to look at deeper and a tool to look at the correlation between other factors (gender, poverty, language) and CwDs access to education.	USDC & Enable-Ed	National Data	All districts in data set

Annex 4: List of schools/education institutions visited

Project Sites

In total the team visited the following schools. These were chosen on the basis of recommendations of good practice either from NGOS, MoES or district officials. This was verified through district and national data.

Name of School	Phase	Region	Notes
Bulima Primary	Primary	Bunyoro	A former unit/integrated rural school that is now inclusive supported by the NGO RedEarthEducation
Kihande Muslim	Primary	Bunyoro	A semi-rural school supported by the NGO RedEarthEducation
Gulu High	Secondary	Acholi	Supported by the NGO Oysters and Pearls
Gulu Prison P7	Primary	Acholi	A primary school that caters for the community located by the prison and part of the UNICEF Child2Child project
Gulu Primary	Primary	Acholi	A former unit/integrated school that is now inclusive
St Jude's Primary & Children's Home	Primary	Acholi	A catholic run primary school practising inclusive education with a children's home for CwDs running alongside it.
Luwero Boys	Primary	Buganda	A former unit/integrated school that is now inclusive and supports both male and female CwDs
Kyambogo Primary	Primary	Buganda	An inclusive school in Kampala supported by Cheshire Services
Merryland High School	Secondary	Buganda	A private school which has inclusive practice for CwHI
Buckley High School	Primary	Busoga	A fee paying school supported by Sense International
Iganga High School for Girls	Secondary	Busoga	An inclusive secondary that supports both male and female CwDs
Kyamya Primary	Primary	Busoga	A former unit/integrated school that is now inclusive supported by a number of NGOs including SoftPowerEducation
Kiwolera Army Primary	Primary	Busoga	A former unit/integrated school that was supported by Sightsavers
Jukia Primary	Primary	West Nile	An inclusive town school supported by USDC
Agwok Primary	Primary	West Nile	An inclusive rural school supported by USDC
Koch Primary	Primary	West Nile	An inclusive rural school supported by USDC
Subbe Primary	Primary	Adjumani	A rural school supported by USDC

Ngetta Girls	Primary	Lango	A catholic fee paying school that used to be unit/integrated now inclusive supported by a number of NGOs
Nauyo Primary	Primary	Bugisu (Mbale)	An inclusive government school supported by NGOs- Compassion, Child-care Restoration Outreach (CRO)
Makhai Primary	Primary	Bugisu (Mbale)	An Inclusive Church founded school supported by NGOs- Parkins International, USAID/RTI
Mbale School for the Deaf	Secondary	Bugisu (Mbale)	A special school supported by NGOs- Lillian Foundation, Forum for African Women Educationalists (FAWE), Uganda National Association for the Deaf (UNAD) and Government
Bukedea Primary	Primary	Teso (Bukedea)	An inclusive government school supported by NGOs- UNICEF
Bukedea Township Primary	Primary	Teso (Bukedea)	An inclusive government school
Kaberamaido Technical Institute	Vocational	Teso (Kaberamaido)	A government Institution supported by Germany Investment Program - KFW
Kaberamaido Township Primary	Primary	Teso (Kaberamaido)	An inclusive government school
Alem Primary	Primary	Teso (Kaberamaido)	An inclusive government school
Namirembe Mixed Day and Boarding Primary	Primary	Bukedi (Budaka)	An inclusive government school formerly supported by NGOs- Cheshire Services Uganda (CSU)
Waluwerere Primary	Primary	Busoga (Bugiri)	An inclusive government school supported by NGOs-Uganda National Association for the Deaf (UNAD), Sight savers, GOAL Uganda, Bugiri Union of Disabled Persons of Uganda (BUDIPU), World Vision
St. Stephen Secondary	Secondary	Busoga (Bugiri)	A government school
Green Hill Secondary	Secondary	Busoga (Bugiri)	A private inclusive school
St. Bernadetta	Primary	Bunyoro (Mid-western)	One of the pioneer schools in terms of educating SNE children. Has a unit for the deaf and blind but the children study together on some occasions.

Nile Vocational Institute	Vocational	Hoima (Mid western)	One of the very few Vocational institutions in the region. Its intake of CwDs are mainly supported by NGOs like Sight savers.
Rukooki Model	Primary	Kasese (Western/ Rwenzori))	The only Primary school in the District with a large intake of CwDs. It is government aided.
Saad Memorial	Secondary	Kasese (Western/ Rwenzori)	Government aided Secondary school which takes in CwDs. It had a big number of SNE teachers but many of them have subsequently left.
Bumadu Seed	Secondary	Bundibugyo (Western/Rwenzori)	A small number of CwDs (mainly CwPI) who are accessing mainstream secondary
Hakitenjya Community Polytechnic	Vocational	Bundibugyo (Western/Rwenzori)	The institute used to have many youth with disabilities but at time of visiting many students were absent due to political instability arising from tribal tensions.
Kampala School for the physically handicapped	Primary and vocational	Kampala	One of the oldest special schools in the country that has good links with secondary schools surrounding it
Masindi Technical Vocational Institute	Vocational	Masindi	One of 8 technical colleges in the country

Annex 5: List of NGOs and donors/funders consulted

Action for Advocacy of Community Education (AFACE)
ADD International
Build Africa
Cheshire Services
Children at Risk Action Network (CRANE)
Clarke Group
DFID
ELECU
FENU
FHI 360. Girls' Education Challenge
Finn Church Aid
Hands for Hope
Leonard Cheshire
NUDIPU
Parliament of Uganda
PEAS

PLAN
Refugee Law Project
Save the Children
UNICEF
USAID/RTI
VSO
Sense
RedEarth Education
MoEST and the Department of Special Needs
President's Office
UNEB
Embrace Kulture
Kyambogo University
Sight Savers
Handicap International
Chance for Childhood/Future for Kids
USDC

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