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## INCLUSIVE EDUCATION

## POLICY, PRACTICE AND PROGRESS:

## A TRANSFORMATIVE ANALYSIS OF MIDDLE EAST COUNTRIES

A manuscript drawn from a thesis presented in partial fulfilment of the requirements for the degree of

Doctor of Education
at Massey University, Palmerston North,
New Zealand

KAREN RUTH CHESTERTON KHAYAT


#### Abstract

Access to an inclusive education for children who are disabled is internationally agreed to be a basic human right. As such, it has been enshrined in the United Nations Convention on the Rights of Persons with Disabilities. Governments of all countries in the Middle East have signed the convention and committed to ensuring this right as soon as possible. As they incorporate these obligations into relevant education legislation and policy, there remains concern that multiple factors which persist in marginalising children who are disabled will impede progress and effective implementation of policy.

This study reviewed a sample of three countries in the Middle East; Bahrain, Iraq and Jordan. Replicating the 'Pathways to Inclusion' Toolkit used in Europe, data were gathered through questionnaires and interviews and aligned with the requirements set out in the United Nations Convention. An analysis framework applied a rating to policy, practice and progress to indicate how supportive they were of the progressive realisation of inclusive education.

Some alignment was found between the complex realities of the three countries and the expectations of the Convention. However, this study took a unique strengths approach in order to inspire the interest of policy makers. Some of the strengths noted were the traditional and religious responses to those with impairments, the tenacity of interdependence within communities and the parental preference for inclusion. These strengths were situated alongside the widespread drive towards modernisation, developing technology, and participating in the global community. Conducted through a transformative lens, the intention of this research was that the identification of these strengths would shift thinking forward to empower political and civil processes in their ongoing bid to implement the expectations of the United Nations Convention on the Rights of Persons with Disabilities.


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## CHAPTER ONE INTRODUCTION

Convinced that a comprehensive and integral international convention to promote and protect the rights and dignity of persons with disabilities will make a significant contribution to redressing the profound social disadvantage of persons with disabilities and promote their participation in the civil, political, economic, social and cultural spheres with equal opportunities, in both developing and developed countries.

Convention on the Rights of Persons with Disabilities
(United Nations, 2006a, preamble)

### 1.1 BACKGROUND

A global movement is taking place towards inclusive education as a method of providing education rights to children who are disabled. Along with changes in thinking, attitude and practice, education policy has been expanding and transforming to include the needed recognition of the issues involved in inclusive education. In 2006, a United Nations convention was released to provide an international standard for such policy and practice (United Nations, 2006a).

### 1.2 EDUCATION

Education is held up internationally as a tool for improving the chances of individuals to provide for themselves and their families. It is the single most effective tool for combating poverty, and considered to contribute to boosting economies, developing equality, citizenship and social justice (Lei \& Myers, 2011; Martínez-Pujalte, 2008; Singal, 2011; UNESCO, 2009a). Education is also credited with improving health and increasing life expectancy (UNESCO, 2009a). Therefore, it is not surprising that for most governments, ongoing educational improvement is a central goal.

### 1.3 INCLUSIVE EdUCATION

Part of educational improvement efforts is ensuring universal access to education, or 'education for all'. Schools around the world are increasingly faced with the challenge of providing equal access to quality education to all diversities of children. Among these diverse groups are students with different types of impairments, thought to number some 150 million (UNESCO, 2010a). The obligation to provide access to regular education classrooms for these students is enshrined in international conventions where it is presented as an issue of human rights (Lei \& Myers, 2011; Martínez-Pujalte, 2008; United Nations, 2006a; Visser \& Stokes, 2003; Vlachou, 2004). This strategy of education provision for all in the regular classroom, called inclusive education, has been gaining wide acceptance (Lei \& Myers, 2011) and governments are increasingly attempting to align national policies and in turn, practice, with this approach (Brantlinger, 1997; Chow, Blais, \& Hemingway, 1999; Eleweke \& Rodda, 2002; Florian, 1998; Peters, 2007; Vlachou, 2004) .

### 1.4 Inclusiveness of Education Policy

Policy is attributed with the power to challenge discrimination, marginalisation, and oppression (Chaney, 2011), yet multiple caveats have been found in the text, wording and interpretation of education policies in many countries which can hinder rather than promote inclusion (Vlachou, 2004). Literature has reported the ongoing and sometimes deliberate exclusion of children with impairments from education (UNESCO, 2009a). As educational exclusion based on disability is considered a violation of human rights, there is pressure on governments to identify solutions and develop or improve the inclusiveness of education policy (UNESCO, 1994, 2008b). The question this study raises is whether political will, or lack thereof, is impeding progress.

### 1.5 Inclusiveness of Education Policy in the Middle East

As discussed in a workshop held between Gulf Arab States (UNESCO, 2007), education policies in the Middle East are far from what could be considered inclusive. The intentions are there and a degree of commitment is evident, but on the whole, Middle Eastern countries are reported to be lagging behind and lacking in strategy and long-term planning (Gaad, 2010; Hakim \& Jaganjac, 2006). This may also be inferred by evidence that the region's participation in international inclusive education dialogue and discussions such as inclusive education workshops and conferences is low (UNESCO, 1994, 2011a; University of Manchester, 2011). Pressure is starting to be applied in each country by people who are disabled as they are gaining more awareness of their rights and developing skills in advocacy (e.g. Brown, 2005; Fayed, 2011b; Handicap International, 2010).

Every country must go through its own process of analysis and development according to its unique educational structure, culture, status and set of beliefs and values (Grech, 2009; UNESCO, 2009a). While much can be learnt from progress in Europe and other Western countries implementing inclusive education, it is not enough to duplicate their policies. Despite variations in history and policy, special schools and resources rooms can be found all across the region as the predominant approach to providing education for students who are disabled. These are often found to have their roots in imported ideas and Western programmes (Bazna \& Reid, 2009; Dukmak, 2010; Gaad, 2010). Sporadic examples of inclusive education are reported (Bazna \& Reid, 2009; Fayed, 2011b; Gaad, 2010), but they are more often than not, individual efforts rather than a planned political initiative (Fayed, 2011b).

The development and articulation of policy committed to inclusive education is now considered essential right across the Gulf (Gaad, 2010; UNESCO, 2008b). However, Bazna and Reid (2009) suggest that inclusive education should not be considered a progressive development for the region. They believe that segregated
education was never compatible with local culture and that inclusive education would be a return to the traditional system. With many Middle Eastern countries in a time of transition or of strengthening existing government systems and services, it now seems timely to offer contextually relevant recommendations for policies to ensure and protect the rights of some of the most vulnerable in the midst of all the development.

### 1.6 United Nations Convention on the Rights of Persons WITH DISABILITIES 2006

The United Nations Convention on the Rights of Persons with Disabilities (UNCRPD) came into force on the 3rd of May 2008 (United Nations, 2006a). This international convention is a human rights instrument that provides a legal framework to protect and promote the rights of people who are disabled (Lei \& Myers, 2011). Article 24 of the convention in particular ensures the right to a properly supported inclusive education at all levels and for all (Lei \& Myers, 2011; Minou, 2011).

### 1.7 Monitoring Commitment to the UNCRPD

All Middle Eastern countries have signed the UNCRPD and most have also ratified it (UNESCO, 2011b). Signing the convention indicates an intention to ratify in the future and ratification of the convention makes it legally binding. Those who have signed or ratified the UNCRPD are expected to be working towards increased implementation and also establishing mechanisms for monitoring their implementation. On offer through the UNCRPD is the opportunity for countries to examine and coordinate their efforts in safeguarding the rights of people who are disabled (Lei \& Myers, 2011). Indeed, Dreyer (2011) believes that in the absence of monitoring mechanisms such as the UNCRPD, "social justice will remain restricted to theorising about a pedagogy of hope" (p. 66).

### 1.8 CONCEPTUAL DEFINITIONS

### 1.8.1 Inclusive Education

A clear definition of 'inclusive education' when dealing with policy is essential, as lack thereof, according to Dreyer (2011) can result in "diverse interpretations, definitions and, subsequently, responses among the parties concerned" (p. 57). Much of the literature on issues of inclusive education begins with a definition of the term as it is widely agreed that there is an absence of shared understanding on its meaning (Dreyer, 2011; McMenamin, 2011; Pather, 2011; Singal, 2011; United Nations, 2006a). However, with the wealth of resources on the issue now available, at a conceptual level there seems to be growing consensus on the central tenets of inclusive education and the remaining debate is concerning the shape or nature of inclusion at the practical level (McMenamin, 2011).

Inclusive education is primarily a process of schools adapting and improving on all levels in order to meet the diverse needs of all children. It involves educational reform, a fundamental change in thinking and a transformation of the way schools respond to their students. It is about making school for all, a place where difference is not only welcomed, but celebrated; where all learners can participate and are supported to achieve their full potential (Ainscow, Dyson, Booth, \& Farrell, 2006; Ainscow \& Sandill, 2010; Bines \& Lei, 2011; Booth \& Ainscow, 2002; Dyson, 1999; Slee, 2007). While the term 'inclusive education' was initially developed in response to the exclusion of students who are disabled (UNESCO, 1994), this definition has more recently widened to include all students and any type of marginalisation (Barton, 1997; Booth, Ainscow, Black-Hawkins, Vaughan, \& Shaw, 2002; Dreyer, 2011; Slee, 2004). For the purposes of this study however, the focus will be on those who are disabled.

### 1.8.2 Special Education

Discourses of 'special education' are understood to pertain to a different approach than that of 'inclusive education'. While also recognising the ability of children to
learn and supporting this to its full potential, special education responses are individualised and tailored specifically to a student or group of students. Special education may take place in a special/segregated environment, in a different classroom, grouping, or even through a special programme within the regular classroom. While inclusive education seeks to reform education, in special education paradigms, general education provision remains fundamentally unchanged and a special, different or adapted programme is provided in response to the perceived needs of a student or group of students (Ainscow, 1997; Armstrong, Armstrong, \& Spandagou, 2011; Barton, 1997; Rieser, 2012).

### 1.8.3 Disability

'Disability' is another term requiring definition due to widely diverse classifications in different countries and cultures (Lei \& Myers, 2011; Szecsi \& Giambo, 2007). The most recent and widely agreed upon definition is that found in the United Nations Convention on the Rights of Persons with Disabilities (United Nations, 2006a). Using the definition provided by the United Nations Convention when referring to the term 'disability' is appropriate as this document will be frequently referred to throughout this study.

Persons with disabilities include those who have long-term physical, mental, intellectual or sensory impairments which in interaction with various barriers may hinder their full and effective participation in society on an equal basis with others. (United Nations, 2006a, p. 4)

An alteration made to this definition is to recognise that disability is not only that which is long-term, but also short-term, and even fluctuating or episodic (Palmer \& Harley, 2012). The definition acknowledges the 'social model of disability' whereby disablement is socially produced through lack of access or exclusion from various functions and aspects of the environment (Palmer \& Harley, 2012; Peters, 2007; United Nations, 2006a). Also consistent with this understanding, the word 'impairment' refers to the characteristics of a person such as blindness, autism, cerebral palsy; and words such as ‘disability', ‘disabled’ and ‘disablement' refer to limitations that may be experienced by people with impairments, due to oppression
or discrimination. Although the terminology 'people with disabilities' is found throughout the UNCRPD and is widely used in literature, to be faithful to the social model of disability the terminology chosen for this study is 'people who are disabled'. In this phrase, the word 'disabled' is not used as an adjective to describe a feature of the person, but instead it is referring to the 'state of disablement' in which they find themselves, with disablement being imposed upon that person due to social, political, or environmental oppression.

### 1.8.4 Middle East

This study adopts the terminology 'Middle East' to identify with an area that remains indistinct (Middle East, 2014; National Geographic). It will predominantly recognise the Western Asia region and refer to the following countries due to their geographical association: Arabian Peninsula, Cyprus, Egypt, Iraq, Iran, Israel, Jordan, Lebanon, Palestinian territories, Syria, and Turkey. Wider definitions of the 'cultural Middle East' include more countries from the continents of Africa, Asia and Europe associated more loosely through political, religious, or linguistic ties.

### 1.9 RESEARCH FOCUS

The topic of this study is an examination of current education policy, practice and progress in the Middle East. The focus is on identifying the extent to which progression is being made towards the type of education called for to meet the needs of children who are disabled. Using the UNCRPD as a benchmark, the purpose of this study is to offer contextually relevant recommendations for ongoing improvement in the inclusiveness of education policies and their implementation in the Middle East. As such, the following research question and three sub-questions guide the study:

How do national education policies and access to schooling in participating Middle Eastern countries align with the inclusive education expectations of the United Nations Convention on the Rights of Persons with Disabilities?

- What opportunities for inclusive education can be found in national education policies?
- What type and amount of access to schooling for children who are disabled is taking place?
- What progress is being made towards inclusive education?


### 1.10 ORGANISATION OF THE MANUSCRIPT

This chapter has outlined the background and focus for the study and provided some conceptual definitions of central terms.

Chapter two sets the theoretical basis of the study first in terms of the policies under examination, followed by the larger picture of policy theory, and finally through an examination of the key factors relevant to implementation of policy for inclusive education.

Chapter three presents the methodology of the study. The toolkit used, the design, the sample, data collection and analysis are all presented with their theoretical justification followed by a description of how they were put into action.

Chapter four introduces the three countries represented in the data then chapters five, six and seven comprise the findings of this research. Organised into three chapters, they each answer one of the three guiding research questions. Chapter five presents the findings in terms of policy for inclusive education, chapter six presents practice findings, and chapter seven the findings on progress.

Chapter eight develops the findings into a discussion. First the theoretical grounding for the approach adopted is presented and then the discussion is framed around the research questions.

Chapter nine concludes the study by presenting the implications towards developing policy, practice, and progress for inclusive education in the Middle East, and also the implications in terms of the United Nations Convention on the Rights of Persons with Disabilities and the research toolkit used.

## CHAPTER TWO THE LITERATURE

### 2.1 INTRODUCTION

Children who are disabled are thought to number some 150 million worldwide (UNESCO, 2010a). With 'Education for All' a goal of international priority, inclusive education is the strategy that has been gaining wide acceptance globally for effectively achieving this goal particularly in consideration of the needs of the children who are disabled (Lei \& Myers, 2011). Inclusive education is now the strategy enshrined in the United Nations Convention on the Rights of Persons with Disabilities (UNCRPD) for ensuring education rights to children who are disabled (United Nations, 2006a). Ratification legally requires countries to bring their national legislation, policy and programmes into alignment with the UNCRPD. This literature review first defines inclusive education, and then situates it within the UNCRPD. This is followed by a section reviewing the literature on policy theory and structure, and the extent of commitment to inclusive education in policy internationally and a focus on policy in the Middle East. It then examines some of the frequently identified factors hindering implementation. These findings lay a foundation for an analysis of national inclusion policies to identify their foundations, and their subsequent impact in line with the expectations laid out in the UNCRPD.

### 2.2 Defining Inclusive Education

Perhaps the most widespread consensus in literature regarding inclusive education is the lack of consensus on the meaning of the term 'inclusive education'. Most articles on the topic begin with raising this discordance (Armstrong et al., 2011; Bines \& Lei, 2011; Fayed, 2011b; Mitchell, 2010; Polat, 2011; Zoniou-Sideri, Deropoulou-Derou, Karagianni, \& Spandagou, 2006). Reaching agreement on this term is fraught with challenges particularly when there are multiple
understandings, not only from country to country, but even within schools (Ainscow \& Sandill, 2010; Bines \& Lei, 2011; Ruane, 2011). Croft (2010) believes that these various understandings are justified as inclusion is a process rather than a state of being and thus the understanding of it must be flexible to accommodate different contexts and stages of progression. However, she also speculates that this vagueness may dilute the sense of urgency needed for responding to ongoing exclusion. Armstrong et al. (2011) also fear that "inclusion may end up meaning everything and nothing at the same time" (p. 31). Mitchell (2010) believes that the influence of international charters and conventions is beginning to change this landscape. As countries sign onto global values, we are getting closer to world-level ideology (Baker \& Wiseman, 2005). Indeed, the UNESCO International Conference on Education (UNESCO, 2011a) understood "concretizing the notion of inclusion" (p. 127) to be one of their key roles. Such universal prescription of definition is said by Wright (2010) to be not only ineffective, as it fails to recognise the unique contexts of practice, but also impossible because of the tendency to be retranslated at each local level. An interesting perspective is offered by Hausstätter (2013) who suggests that the debate surrounding the meaning of the term is part of the process which inclusive education needs to ensure that the concept continues to evolve. He suggests that the danger in a definition is that the term loses its political power and its unfamiliarity, because the power in the term persists so long as it remains the unfinished and unrealised alternative to the established system. Slee (2013) also dissuades us from too much focus on defining inclusion when many of the resulting definitions actually result in exclusion.

### 2.2.1 Definition

Nevertheless, whether there is, should be, or ever can be one clear definition of inclusive education, because of the significant amount of international interest and discussion surrounding the issue, the essence of most descriptions of the term is similar. In a review of definitions given by a range of authors, general agreement was found (Ainscow, Booth, \& Dyson, 2006; Brantlinger, 1997; Dreyer, 2011; Florian, 1998; Havey, 1998; Kearney \& Kane, 2006; Lloyd, 2000; Ngcobo \&

Muthukrishna, 2011; Rouse \& Florian, 1998; UNESCO, 2011a). The first point of agreement is that the location of schooling is the general classroom in the neighbourhood school. The second is that the curricula, social, educational, and interactive environments of such a classroom must welcome participation of all, be accessible and barrier-free and, perhaps more importantly, reconfigure according to the diversity that continually challenges it. Genuine inclusion refers to this participation and this reduction of exclusion being for all students at all times. This therefore implies that there is no type of diversity, no type of impairment, and no severity of impairment that lies outside out of the category of 'all'.

### 2.2.2 Individual focus

Within this definition, the remaining issue of contention is whether the emphasis is on the student and ensuring they are participating in school, or on the school and whether they are removing barriers to participation. Some insist that the students are the focus and that inclusive education must be about including children who are disabled into mainstream schools (Hernandez, 2008; Kalyanpur, 2011). It has been argued that the individual needs of these students demand an equally individualised approach to providing them quality education (Marvin, 2002; Minou, 2011). The concern is that if inclusion becomes too general, children who are disabled will again be forgotten and overlooked (Croft, 2010).

### 2.2.3 Systems focus

However, Ainscow and Sandill (2010) have contributed to a growing understanding that inclusive education must have a broader vision encompassing all learners, not just students who are disabled. They advocate that inclusion should focus on the level of the system and be about reform to ensure that schools are effective in reaching all children. Literature is increasingly building in favour of framing inclusive education in the language of democratic schooling and within general education reform (Hulgin \& Drake, 2011; Slee, 2013). This angle suggests that inclusive education is less about individual students than it is about quality education, universal design, and transformation of the whole system (Alborz et al.,

2011; Dreyer, 2011; Ngcobo \& Muthukrishna, 2011; UNESCO, 2011a). Hausstätter (2013) takes this position further in explaining that when inclusion is intrinsically part of the system rather than just an 'add-on' it has more strength to effect reform from within.

### 2.2.4 Dual focus

It may not be necessary, however, to consign understandings of inclusion to the two distinct paradigms of student level focus or system level focus. It may be that in order to gain consensus, the two approaches must meet in the middle and strike a balance (Croft, 2010; Walton \& Nel, 2012). UNESCO (2011a), in their "childfriendly schools" (p. 84) initiative, promotes a linkage between the two paradigms which they believe is the less understood key to success. In fact they believe that there cannot be one paradigm without the other. Schools cannot effectively include children who are disabled unless systematic school-wide reform takes place so that the schools are inclusive. Equally, schools cannot be called inclusive if they are not actively including children who are disabled and considering their individual needs.

### 2.3 The United Nations Convention on the Rights of Persons with Disabilities

### 2.3.1 Context

On the third of May 2008 the first international human rights treaty of the $21^{\text {st }}$ century, the United Nations Convention on the Rights of Persons with Disabilities, entered into force. This convention is famed for not claiming to introduce any new rights (Kayess \& French, 2008; United Nations, 2005) but instead for restating the rights already contained in the other core human rights treaties (Table 2-1).

Table 2-1: Core Human Rights Treaties
Core Human Rights Treaties:
Universal Declaration of Human Rights, 1948
International Covenant on Economic, Social \& Cultural Rights, 1966
International Covenant on Civil and Political Rights, 1966
International Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Racial Discrimination, 1966
Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination against Women, 1979
Convention Against Torture and Other Cruel, Inhuman or Degrading Treatment or Punishment, 1984
Convention on the Rights of the Child, 1989
International Convention on the Protection of the Rights of Migrant Workers and Members of Their Families, 1990

Many go to great lengths to detail the historical context that necessitated this treaty specific to the status of disability (Kayess \& French, 2008; Lewis, 2010; Rieser, 2012; Schulze, 2010). With the emergence of the international disability movement, there began a global shift in the way disability was perceived (Oliver \& Barnes, 2010). Rather than looking at people who are disabled as objects of pity needing services and treatment, the social model promoted that disability should be understood as an interaction between the social environment and a person's impairment. The new treaty was considered to be evidence of an end to the global conversation on the appropriate perception of disability as it heralded in the new social model in place of the medical and charity models (Hernandez, 2008; Lord \& Brown, 2011; Schulze, 2010). "It is a dusk as well as a dawn" (Lewis, 2010, p. 106). This new thinking drew attention to the inadequacy of international human rights law to provide protection for people who are disabled. Firstly, other than the Convention on the Rights of the Child, the rights of people who are disabled were not explicitly mentioned and thus invisible (Bickenbach, 2011; Hernandez, 2008; Waterstone, 2010). Disability was not mentioned as a protected category, but has been left to fall under saving clauses as illustrated by this excerpt from the Universal Declaration of Human Rights: "without distinction of any kind, such as race, colour, sex, language, religion, political or other opinion, national or social origin, property, birth or other status [emphasis added]" (UN General Assembly,

1948 Article 2). Although there were other international documents which explicitly discussed the rights of people who were disabled (e.g. Standard Rules, Salamanca Statement), they were not binding or legally enforceable. Hernandez (2008), however, puts forward the position that the UNCRPD was needed, not so much because countries had failed in their obligation to people who are disabled, but more so because generalised human rights treaties failed to effectively reflect the unique experience of disability. As Young (1989) explains, although human rights are universal, framing them in universal terms can sometimes contribute to oppression. It is often necessary to formulate rights in ways that recognise the differences of particular groups in order to safeguard these rights. Therefore, with international commitment to disability high, it was time to fill the void with a dedicated document (Mégret, 2008).

### 2.3.2 Significance

One might ask why an entire human rights treaty was needed if there were no new rights articulated. The text of the treaty directly answers this question by stating its concern that "despite these various instruments and undertakings, persons who are disabled continue to face barriers in their participation as equal members of society and violations of their human rights in all parts of the world" (United Nations, 2006a, preamble k). A comprehensive analysis of the issue is also provided by Mégret (2008) who argues that new rights are almost created and the words "enriches", "modifies", "reformulates", "extends" and "innovates" (p. 498) are used to describe what the convention does. There are some that argue that the way the convention broadens existing rights could be considered introducing new rights (Lang, Kett, Groce, \& Trani, 2011).

If no new rights are officially introduced, what is it that makes this convention significant enough so as to attract words such as "landmark" (Lang, 2009, p. 275), "unique" (Lewis, 2010, p. 98), "international milestone" (Waterstone, 2010, p. 1), and "cause for celebration" (Madans, Loeb, \& Altman, 2011, p. 1)? Those reviewing the convention make note of a long list of unprecedented features in the
development, the structure, and in the content of this document which are discussed in the next three sections.

### 2.3.3 Development

Never before has a convention been negotiated in such a short time period of four years nor involved such a high level of participation in its development (Kayess \& French, 2008). In addition to input from governments, participation in negotiating the text included people with impairments and disabled peoples' organisations, non-governmental organisations, inter-governmental organisations, human rights organisations and even involved an internet lobbying campaign (Lang et al., 2011; Lewis, 2010; Waterstone, 2010). According to an analysis in New Zealand, this level of participation was found to be both meaningful and effective (Lewis, 2010) and, while it might have been a first for the United Nations, has become common practice in mainstream political science (Moriarity \& Dew, 2011). It was also noteworthy that agreement on the final text was unanimous by the United Nations member states (Lang, 2009), and a record was set with it being signed by 81 countries and the European Union on just the first day (Lewis, 2010).

### 2.3.4 Structure

As a status-based treaty developed to protect the rights of people due to their status, it is by far lengthier than any other (Lewis, 2010). It provides a lot more detail and specifics because, although it is a treaty, it is also structured and designed to be used as a development tool (Kayess \& French, 2008; Moriarity \& Dew, 2011). As such, it contains some unique features that have previously not been used in international treaties. These include action points and a list of guiding principles, and it is also the only convention to date to provide a title for each article, presumably to aid in navigation (Kayess \& French, 2008; Lewis, 2010). Another first is that it applies international rights law to the private sector rather than only to government (Kayess \& French, 2008). One of the most discussed features of the convention is its unique approach to monitoring (Hernandez, 2008; Lewis, 2010). Not only does it establish a monitoring body at United Nations level
and require states to meet regularly, but it also requires states to establish similar monitoring bodies at the country level. Furthermore, reporting is far more transparent than it has ever been before with an unprecedented degree of public access to reports. An additional section called the Optional Protocol, if signed, allows individuals and groups to communicate directly with the United Nations regarding violations of rights. These novel approaches are said by Stein and Lord (2010) to be the United Nations' response to critiques of previous monitoring mechanisms of human rights treaties. In some ways this new treaty is a trial of new approaches to monitoring and reporting.

### 2.3.5 Content

Beginning with a lengthy preamble made up of 25 paragraphs, the convention consists of 50 articles with 18 more in the optional protocol. The first nine articles provide background and overarching principles (see Table 2-2) and introduce cross-cutting themes which apply to all other parts of the convention (Articles 1 to 9).

Table 2-2: General principles of the UNCRPD
a) Respect for inherent dignity, individual autonomy including the freedom to make one's own choices, and independence of persons;
b) Non-discrimination;
c) Full and effective participation and inclusion in society;
d) Respect for difference and acceptance of persons with disabilities as part of human diversity and humanity;
e) Equality of opportunity;
f) Accessibility;
g) Equality between men and women;
h) Respect for the evolving capacities of children with disabilities and respect for the right of children with disabilities to preserve their identities.
(United Nations, 2006a, Article 3)

Ten more articles detail the requirements for monitoring and reporting processes at all levels (Articles 31 to 40). In between these and the first nine articles are 21 articles (Articles 10 to 30, see Table 2-3) which articulate an extensive range of specific rights applicable to all areas of human life (Hernandez, 2008; Madans et al., 2011). The final 10 articles are fairly standard for every convention with the
main innovation being the added requirement to make the text available in accessible formats (Articles 41 to 50). An optional protocol consists of 18 further articles detailing the processes guiding communications from various parties wishing to claim violations of the convention.

Table 2-3: Articles 10-30 of the Convention on the Rights of Persons with Disabilities

| Article 10 | Right to life |
| :--- | :--- |
| Article 11 | Situations of risk and humanitarian emergencies |
| Article 12 | Equal recognition before the law |
| Article 13 | Access to justice |
| Article 14 | Liberty and security of person |
| Article 15 | Freedom from torture or cruel, inhuman or degrading treatment or punishment |
| Article 16 | Freedom from exploitation, violence and abuse |
| Article 17 | Protecting the integrity of the person |
| Article 18 | Liberty of movement and nationality |
| Article 19 | Living independently and being included in the community |
| Article 20 | Personal mobility |
| Article 21 | Freedom of expression and opinion, and access to information |
| Article 22 | Respect for privacy |
| Article 23 | Respect for home and the family |
| Article 24 | Education |
| Article 25 | Health |
| Article 26 | Habilitation and rehabilitation |
| Article 27 | Work and employment |
| Article 28 | Adequate standard of living and social protection |
| Article 29 | Participation in political and public life |
| Article 30 | Participation in cultural life, recreation, leisure and sport |

(United Nations, 2006a)

The convention is not without its critics. Kayess and French (2008) consider the convention to have failed to adequately address bioethics, and Schulze (2010) also documents the debates that took place during drafting surrounding issues of when life begins, selective genetics, and pre-birth negative selection of impairment. The other issue Kayess and French (2008) express disappointment over is that Article 17 is silent on compulsory treatment which they contend is the human right most violated for people who are disabled. Despite these criticisms, most report the content of the convention to be comprehensive, detailed and applicable to all disciplines, to effectively protect equality and freedom and prohibit any segregation of service provision to people who are disabled (Bickenbach, 2011; Lewis, 2010; Mannan, MacLachlan, \& McVeigh, 2012).

### 2.3.6 Article 24

Of particular interest to this literature review is Article 24, the article which requires the provision of inclusive education. Inclusive education has been mentioned before in United Nations documents (e.g. Education for All and The Salamanca Statement). Indeed it was the Salamanca Statement which brought global recognition to inclusive education, coined the terminology and detailed the approach extensively (UNESCO, 1994). However, this is the first time inclusive education has been made part of binding international law (Hernandez, 2008). In brief, in the context of education and people who are disabled, the article requires countries to refrain from excluding, ensure equal access, accommodate individual requirements, facilitate effective education and provide individual support measures. Due to the central role this article plays in this study, it is included in full below. While access to general schools is presented as the norm, Hernandez (2008) and Schulze (2010) reveal that the drafting of the text was not without controversy over whether segregation should be an exception or a choice. The resulting article reflects the 'twin-track' approach of system reform in conjunction with individual measures as required. It is also important to note that this article is subject to a clause (Article 4, para 2) where it is recognised that realisation of these rights will not be immediate but progressive and involve significant resources and cooperation. Article 24 acknowledges life-long learning including tertiary education, but differentiates primary school as being free and compulsory in contrast to other levels of education. It recognises the importance of training all teachers and specifically mentions the employment of teachers who are disabled. Braille and sign language are also directly mentioned both as types of communication to facilitate and an area of specialist skill that teachers must be trained in.

## Article 24-Education

1. States Parties recognize the right of persons with disabilities to education. With a view to realizing this right without discrimination and on the basis of equal opportunity, States Parties shall ensure an inclusive education system at all levels and lifelong learning directed to:
a. The full development of human potential and sense of dignity and self-worth, and the strengthening of respect for human rights, fundamental freedoms and human diversity;
b. The development by persons with disabilities of their personality, talents and creativity, as well as their mental and physical abilities, to their fullest potential;
c. Enabling persons with disabilities to participate effectively in a free society.
2. In realizing this right, States Parties shall ensure that:
a. Persons with disabilities are not excluded from the general education system on the basis of disability, and that children with disabilities are not excluded from free and compulsory primary education, or from secondary education, on the basis of disability;
b. Persons with disabilities can access an inclusive, quality and free primary education and secondary education on an equal basis with others in the communities in which they live;
c. Reasonable accommodation of the individual's requirements is provided;
d. Persons with disabilities receive the support required, within the general education system, to facilitate their effective education;
e. Effective individualized support measures are provided in environments that maximize academic and social development, consistent with the goal of full inclusion.
3. States Parties shall enable persons with disabilities to learn life and social development skills to facilitate their full and equal participation in education and as members of the community. To this end, States Parties shall take appropriate measures, including:
a. Facilitating the learning of Braille, alternative script, augmentative and alternative modes, means and formats of communication and orientation and mobility skills, and facilitating peer support and mentoring;
b. Facilitating the learning of sign language and the promotion of the linguistic identity of the deaf community;
c. Ensuring that the education of persons, and in particular children, who are blind, deaf or deafblind, is delivered in the most appropriate languages and modes and means of communication for the individual, and in environments which maximize academic and social development.
4. In order to help ensure the realization of this right, States Parties shall take appropriate measures to employ teachers, including teachers with disabilities, who are qualified in sign language and/or Braille, and to train professionals and staff who work at all levels of education. Such training shall incorporate disability awareness and the use of appropriate augmentative and alternative modes, means and formats of communication, educational techniques and materials to support persons with disabilities.
5. States Parties shall ensure that persons with disabilities are able to access general tertiary education, vocational training, adult education and lifelong learning without discrimination and on an equal basis with others. To this end, States Parties shall ensure that reasonable accommodation is provided to persons with disabilities.

### 2.3.7 Implications

There is wide agreement that the test of the convention will be in its implementation (e.g., Bickenbach, 2011; Lang, 2009; Waterstone, 2010) about which some analysts are more optimistic than others. According to Kayess and French (2008), the high expectations it has generated must be "tempered with realism" (p. 33) and Waterstone (2010) says the "obstacles are daunting" (p. 3). Lang (2009) identifies a list of problematic issues which will make implementation difficult, and many of these relate back to the recognition that effective implementation depends on appropriate attitudes towards disability. Although the convention and resulting policies may be robust, attitudes cannot be enforced. Lewis (2010) and Rieser (2012) suggest that ratifications of the convention have taken place more through advocacy from disabled people's groups than through a government's willingness. But Lang (2009) tempered the criticisms by suggesting that many of the signatories have come on board in an "aspirational" (p. 282) way knowing that there is a long road ahead. One of the key expectations of the convention is the role it may play in shifting attitudes, or in what has been termed a 'paradigm shift' (Kayess \& French, 2008; Lang, 2009; Mannan et al., 2012). Lewis (2010) explains how this takes place through a process of norm development where thinking, talking and doing are linked to establish a new reality. It is interesting to note, as Kayess and French (2008) point out, that the way in which the convention is written actually reinforces old paradigms. In particular they point to the continual use of the term 'people with disabilities' when the convention has gone to lengths under the banner of the social model to attach 'disability' to the influence of society rather than the person. Therefore, according to the new paradigm, the terminology of 'impairment' should be used when referring to the person, if it is intended to include those who are at risk of being 'disabled', yet the convention fails to do this even in its title.

The practical structure of the document lends itself to a higher possibility of implementation than previous international human rights treaties, as also do the monitoring mechanisms. Although a legally enforceable instrument, the
monitoring mechanism is clearly persuasive in nature rather than coercive and the committee can only provide recommendations (Hernandez, 2008). By 2011, Rieser (2012) was already reporting backlogs in the committee reviewing reports. It appears that there were a number of other innovative suggestions for more effective monitoring mechanisms which were not taken on board (Stein \& Lord, 2010). However, it stands to be said that now, amidst all the challenges, for the first time in history, people who are disabled, the world's largest minority, can hold their governments responsible for enforcing their rights (Lang, 2009; Lang et al., 2011; Mannan et al., 2012).

In summary, the UNCRPD is a landmark human rights treaty which emerged in a global climate of increased understanding of disability as a social construct. As such, previous human rights treaties had not given adequate attention to the unique experience of disability and the related rights environment required to protect this group. The resulting convention reframes previous rights in ways relevant to all aspects of human life for people who are disabled. With a high level of enthusiasm and participation, the convention set records particularly with the speed of negotiation and signing. It also raised the benchmark for future treaties by the incorporation of a number of unique features in its design and structure which make it easier to implement and monitor. The text includes 21 detailed articles pertaining to all aspects of human experience for people who are disabled. One of these deals specifically with education and calls for inclusive education at all levels with various measures to ensure it is appropriate and effective. As with any political action, the convention faces challenges, particularly as it is translated into action. In direct response to the challenges, it is noteworthy that the strengths of the convention may be in changing attitudes, guiding and monitoring practical steps, and in at last providing a robust framework to legally enforce the rights of people who are disabled.

### 2.4 Policy

### 2.4.1 Policy Theory

Underpinning this literature review and the related study is the understanding that education policy is much more than just a text developed by a government in response to a problem. Current understanding is that creation and implementation of policy are very complex fields involving multiple players (Weaver-Hightower, 2008). These players are not just policy-makers and schools, but also many other stakeholders and institutions extending far beyond national boundaries. Theories used to understand these complex models of policy processes include the 'policy-as-discourse' theory put forward by Stephen Ball (1990), the 'policy cycle' of Bowe, Ball, and Gold (1992), Bourdieu's theories of social field (Lingard, Rawolle, \& Taylor, 2005; Mills, 2008), and Bernstein's cultural reproduction theory (Bernstein, 2000; Singh \& Taylor, 2007).

According to policy-as-discourse theory, the text of policy is understood to capture the struggles and interests of those involved in its production. In this way, policy is considered a type of discourse and lends itself to analysis and disclosure of deeper meaning. As put so clearly by Ball (1990), "we do not speak a discourse ... [the] discourse speaks us" (p. 18). The theory of policy cycle refers to the overlapping and sometimes contradictory impact of the contexts of policy influence, production, and practice. It shows that the meaning and intention of different players can be vastly different even in the context of same policy text (Bowe et al., 1992). Bourdieu's social field theories lead to the locating of policy within a field comprised of numerous players, some of whom dominate and some of whom are dominated. This field is fraught with struggles for transformation or preservation. According to this theory, resulting policy will, more often than not, be determined by those who are dominant (Lingard et al., 2005; Mills, 2008). Bernstein's cultural reproduction theory takes the argument further suggesting that dominance is determined and indeed, inherited by control over resources. Furthermore, policy
texts can capture struggles for power and control of resources (Bernstein, 2000; Singh \& Taylor, 2007).

All of these theories lead to the realisation that policy cannot be understood in isolation from its context and explain why policy text is therefore never valueneutral.

Policies are (a) crucial in their physical and graphic form as well as in their textual content; (b) multidimensional, with many stakeholders; (c) value laden; (d) intricately tied to other policies and institutions; (e) never straightforward in implementation and (f) rife with intended and unintended consequences. (Weaver-Hightower, 2008, p. 153)
Policies are believed to be formed through processes of power struggles, conflicts, and in what are considered ramshackle ways which are not "necessarily rational or calculated" (Singh \& Taylor, 2007, p. 303) and they usually ultimately reflect the interests of the "already powerful" (Weaver-Hightower, 2008, p. 153). Therefore, resulting policy is effectively a window into the context in which it was formed.

### 2.4.2 Policy for Inclusive Education

With inclusive education as a global agenda, inclusive education policy has been emerging around the world. Literature as well as policy analysis and reviews have been examining the most appropriate ways to situate inclusive education within the policy environment.

Pather and Nxumalo (2012) found that the predominant approach to inclusive education policy has in many, or even in most countries been as a marginal theme. In Turkey for instance, inclusive education is handled as a separate issue in policy and regulation and as such, has served to maintain the special education agenda (Erkilic \& Durak, 2013). A similar situation is found in Malaysia where inclusive education policy exists primarily to determine where students who are disabled should go to receive their education (Jelas \& Ali, 2012). These types of attached or stand-alone policies, have reportedly maintained discrimination and "deficit
thinking" (D'alessio, 2007, p. 66), allowing exclusion, and as Jelas (2012) says, have acted to safeguard what is perceived to be 'normal'. Current laws in the USA are even considered by Hulgin (2011) to be "planting discrimination deeper and more unconscious" (p. 402). Critics of stand-alone inclusive education policy say that these can create parallel systems and come along with numerous, unnecessary and time consuming activities and paperwork (Lashley, 2013; Sailor \& Burrello, 2012). For inclusive education policy to be effective and taken seriously, it cannot be only an 'option' (Parry, Rix, Sheehy, \& Simmons, 2012; UNESCO, 2009b).

These issues, among others, have led many to argue for inclusive education to be part of system-wide education policy (Aron \& Loprest, 2012; Lashley, 2013; Parry et al., 2012; Ruane, 2011; Sailor \& Burrello, 2012). Parry, et al. (2012) warn that although it is primarily the education policy to which attention must be given, it must not be forgotten that other policies and initiatives, if not inclusive in nature, can compromise and conflict with inclusion. Some even say that all laws should include disability dimensions to ensure that barriers are not erected in other sectors (Jelas \& Ali, 2012; Wright, 2010) and D'alessio (2007) believes that successful inclusive education must be part of a larger societal reform.

Ruane (2011) cautions that education policy reform should not be just a process of welcoming a new category of learner into the unchanged existing framework, or what Connor and Gabel (2013) call the "add and stir" (p. 109) approach. Instead, education policy should be redefined based on a new understanding of the expanded group that the common policy will now cater for (Aron \& Loprest, 2012; Ruane, 2011). Disability should not be considered as the 'other', but as part of the larger definition of 'us' (Ballard, 1997; Barton, 1997). Policy should ensure provision of instructional resources according to individual need towards attaining student goals without feeling the need to discuss the reasons for requiring any particular support or service (Hausstätter, 2013; Sailor \& Burrello, 2012). Indeed, the discussion of disability should be hardly relevant due to the understanding informed by the social model of disability (Ballard, 1997) that most of the barriers
to participation and achievement lie outside of the students, and that inclusive education is principally about school organisation (Hausstätter, 2013; Sailor \& Burrello, 2012). Lashley (2013) also suggests that policy should be framed, or perhaps reframed, in terms of human capability rather than disability with the focus on enhancing the capabilities of all children rather than on how to deal with disability. Aron and Loprest (2012) call for balance in agreeing that, while education should be made special for all children, they wonder whether this could sometimes become so general that children who are disabled are again left behind. Presenting disability as just another difference risks overlooking some unique needs for intensive and appropriate education (Anastasiou \& Kauffman, 2012; UNESCO, 2009b).

It has been frequently mentioned that the process of developing policy is complicit in its effectiveness (Crossley, 2010; King, 2007). Consultation and meaningful participation of people who are disabled in policy reform is being called for (D'alessio, 2007; Pather \& Nxumalo, 2012). Not only is stakeholder involvement necessary for ensuring that their voice is heard in the written policy, but they are often responsible for advocating for the policy reform in the first place as found by Hulgin and Drake (2011) in the USA. In addition, Jelas and Ali (2012) believe that involvement of other sectors and other ministries is needed. Those who will implement policy can also be considered stakeholders and Wright (2010) noted an attempt in Scottish policy to "blur boundaries" (p. 156) between those making the policy and those who would implement it. Top-down policies have limited success, and policies with a global origin must be made sense of within each context (King, 2007; Wright, 2010). In reviewing situations in southern Africa, Pather and Nxumalo (2012) did, however, identify problems when those at the grassroots have limited capacity or understanding of global trends. Yet they believed that participation has value in identifying local resources that can be harnessed for inclusive education. Including examples of good practice is one way to link policy to the context, yet Wright (2010) found this to be of limited value in Scottish policies.

He suggested another approach of backward mapping where policy statements are developed by working upwards from implementation needs.

To summarise, it appears that a move away from marginalised inclusive education policies and towards inclusion being part of general education policies is justified. This should be done in a way so as to be linked with policies for other sectors, or at the very least they should not conflict or contradict. The general understanding is that inclusive education incorporated into education policy does not need to focus on disability as such, but rather should be concerned with the way in which the whole system is organised. Finally, meaningful policy should always reflect the participation of stakeholders from all different levels to ensure that global issues are translated into the contextual reality of those it concerns.

### 2.4.3 Extent of Policy commitment

Movements towards the development of inclusive policy find their roots in the human rights struggle (Dreyer, 2011; Ngcobo \& Muthukrishna, 2011) which has been growing in influence over the past 20 years (Farrell \& Ainscow, 2012). Inclusive education is widely understood to be an enactment of human rights extended to all people without discrimination or regard to difference, and a direct outcome of a just, accepting and tolerant society (Rouse \& Florian, 1998). Polat (2011), however, takes a different perspective and presents the primary driver for inclusion as the Disabled People's Movement which has effectively directed the issues of educational policy for people who are disabled back to the politics of disability and the fight for civil rights. Regardless of origin, the literature tends to agree on the global profile of the issue of inclusion (Graham \& Jahnukainen, 2011; Savolainen, Engelbrecht, Nel, \& Malinen, 2012) which has been debated at the highest level (UNESCO, 1994, 2008a). As a result, internationally binding conventions have been developed such as the 12 international policy documents analysed by Peters (2007) (see Table 2-4). These international documents led onto the rights of people who are disabled being incorporated into national level laws and legislation in many countries (Brantlinger, 1997; Forlin, 2010; Pijl \& Frissen,

2009; Rouse \& Florian, 1998) whereby discrimination based on disability was made illegal. This move in the USA is considered by Slee (2001) to represent a "major civil rights victory" (p. 388). However, in education legislation in many countries, children who are disabled are rarely mentioned (UNESCO, 2009) and most policy commitment is yet only rhetoric (Polat, 2011).

## Table 2-4: International Policy Documents

1960 United Nations Convention Against Discrimination in Education

1971 United Nations Declaration on the Rights of Mentally Retarded Persons

1975 United Nations Declaration on the Rights of Disabled Persons

1981 Sundberg Declaration

1982 United Nations World Programme of Action 3 goals: Concerning Disabled Persons

1989 Tallinn Guidelines for Action on Human Resources Development

1990 Convention on the Rights of the Child (UNICEF)

1990 World Declaration on Education for All (UNESCO, Jomtien)

1993 United Nations Standard Rules on the Equalization of Opportunities for Persons With
Disabilities

1994 World Congress on Special Needs Education, Salamanca

1995 World Summit for Social Development Programme of Action

2000 Education for All (EFA) Framework for Action (UNESCO-Dakar)
(Peters, 2007, p. 101)

General agreement can now be found for the rights basis of inclusion and the importance of equity of educational opportunity (Dorrance \& Schädler, 2012; Rieser, 2012; Slee, 2013). Advocates take this to the extent whereby it is promoted that not only is inclusive education a basic right, but also that the alternative, segregation, particularly by placement in special schools, is morally wrong. It is recognised that most teachers support the idea at a conceptual level and it is widely accepted that inclusion has become the dominant ideology (McMenamin, 2014; Paliokosta \& Blandford, 2010). This support has led on to a global movement through which inclusion has become the goal of most education systems with supporting policies being developed at all levels (Polat, 2011; Savolainen et al., 2012; UNESCO, 2011a). Hodkinson (2010) considers the concept of inclusion to be strongly evident in the UK education policy, Allan (2006) discusses the existence of inclusion policies in Scotland, albeit that exclusion persists, and Selvaraj (2014) concludes an examination of New Zealand policy with the suggestion that despite
years of consensus at government level, teachers still find themselves faced with education policy lacking in strength. Zoniou-Sideri, Deropoulou-Derou, Karagianni, \& Spandagou (2006) identify the term 'inclusion' to be part of the official education policy of Greece; Wiazowski (2012) notes regulations in South Africa based on international standards for inclusion but the near absence of any implementation; Hunt (2011) acknowledges significant progress towards the education of students who are disabled in the general classrooms of the USA with its basis in the IDEA policy; Singh \& Taylor (2007) note the global trend towards inclusion impacting Australian Education policy; and finally, Croft (2010) claims evidence that policies in developing countries are increasingly recognising the importance of inclusion.

As gleaned from the literature, beginning from a human rights foundation and a call from disabled activists for their education rights, international conventions emerged followed by national legislation enshrining the equality of education rights of people who are disabled. As consensus on the moral justification of inclusive education grew, so also did representation of the rights of students who are disabled within education policies around the world. Therefore, globally, inclusion is considered an issue central to education whereby all children, regardless of difference or disability, share equal rights to quality education in the mainstream school.

### 2.4.4 Policy for Inclusive Education in the Middle East

Development of policy for inclusive education in the Middle East ${ }^{1}$ has followed a unique path within each country represented in the region (Brown, 2005; Purinton \& ElSawy, 2012). Four themes emerge in reviewing the literature which illustrate the main drivers in reform of education policy.

[^0]One theme which has received the most publicity in recent years is that of political upheaval and the wave of civil uprisings across the Middle East and Arab region which began in 2010 and has been termed the 'Arab Spring'. Characterised by dissatisfaction with the rule of local governments, public action was instigated in attempts to demand change and remove rulers from power. Under the shadow of complex political environments, education, and even more so, the inclusiveness of education, can either be very low on the legislative agenda, or not there at all (Purinton \& ElSawy, 2012). Al-Nakib (2012) suggests that protests and demonstrations had the effect of drawing attention away from much needed reforms including that of education. Worse still, she fears that, in light of the protests, governments in the region will use education as a vehicle for exerting control over citizens as they have now seen the potential outcomes of assertive and confident citizens (Al-Nakib, 2012). In this context, and in terms of education for students who are disabled, segregation is among the strategies which offer more control. "Divisions mask injustices between groups by keeping them separate and therefore facilitating control" (Purinton \& ElSawy, 2012, p. 102). Another perspective is explored by Laiglesia (2011) who suggests that the Arab Spring showed that people were no longer satisfied with being told what they should do. It signalled the end of acceptance of policy that is dictated, even if by the best technical experts, and the beginning of an era that calls for inclusive policy processes and policy that reflects the needs of the population. Whether government change is due to the Arab Spring, due to increased democratisation, or due to conflict, it presents an opportunity to rethink education policies and address inequalities (Alborz, 2013; Smith Ellison, 2014).

Educational reforms and the introduction of inclusive education under the guise of modernization have been particularly prevalent in the more economically stable Gulf States. It has been taking place at such a fast pace in some countries that education personnel may feel swept along only to find later the changes hard to sustain because they were not accompanied by a complementary change in thinking and philosophy (Brown, 2005). Often inclusive education may be
incorporated into policy, not due to an adoption of the principles, but more because it is seen as forward-thinking, modern, or up-to-date (Gaad, 2010). This way of introducing inclusion can also result in it being seen as a foreign practice (Gaad, 2004) and it is well understood that education reform cannot be transplanted from one place to another and expected to have the same outcomes (Alborz, Slee, \& Miles, 2013; Pijl \& Frissen, 2009; Savolainen et al., 2012; Wiseman, 2010). Regardless of how rapidly reform takes place, it must be remembered that it takes many years to see results (Brown, 2005; Laiglesia, 2011). With Western education systems assumed to be better (Bazna \& Reid, 2009), packaging reform in this way endangers a good philosophy of being 'thrown out with the bathwater' when there is a perceived threat to local values (UNESCO, 2011a).

The commitment to human rights is another driver towards policy for inclusive education in the Middle East region with significantly high levels of ratification of international conventions and declarations. Nour (2005) commented that the many laws and decrees in the region are in line with human rights and this is commendable in an area in which the concept of collective human rights is claimed to be fairly new (Brown, 2005). Weber and City (2011) suggest that Arab culture, which is centred around the family and tribe, may be finding it difficult to orientate to the thinking of individual rights. Nonetheless, Nour (2005) noted that all countries in the region were signatories to the Convention on the Rights of the Child and a UNESCO (2011a) report mentioned that all their constitutions ensure education for all with some even giving explicit mention to children who are disabled. More recently, signing or ratification of the United Nations Convention on the Rights of Persons with Disabilities is a step which all Middle Eastern countries have taken (UNESCO, 2011b). With this document specifically calling for inclusive education, policies must be aligned. Al Zyoudi, Al Sartwai, and Dodin (2011) write that the United Arab Emirates and Jordan have aligned their policies, yet Maas (2012) shows that policies in Yemen are an incomplete reflection of the global position. Even though they were one of the first to ratify the UNCRPD, Egypt is reported by Fayed (2011a) and Loveluck (2012) to be one of the least politically
active countries in the region in terms of education innovations, with only individual efforts taking place without the backing of policy. Hagrass (2005) responds to these concerns proposing that it is time for national disability movements to exert their influence on national policy by calling for their rights. A study conducted by Nagata (2008) found that people who are disabled in Lebanon and Jordan preferred policy to be developed under a rights-based model and Axelsson and Barrett (2009) provide guidelines on how people who are disabled could organise themselves towards advocating for and contributing to the increasing alignment between national policy and the commitment to human rights.

There is also international pressure in the Middle East region for what has been termed 'democratisation'. This is different from just introducing modern practices or aligning policy with global rights frameworks. The concept and practice of inclusive education is understood to be founded on the ideas and values of democracy (Gaad, 2010; Hamaidi, Homidi, \& Reyes, 2012; Hulgin \& Drake, 2011). Inclusive schooling is both an act of democracy, and a contributor to the development of democratic society. It has been said that the universality of education is one of the cornerstones of a democratic society (Erkilic \& Durak, 2013; Stern, Clonan, Jaffee, \& Lee, 2014). Exclusion of students due to impairment or any other reason runs against these objectives. Democracy accepts and values diversity as a natural part of life (Rieser, 2012). Power (2012) says that most education policies reflect efforts to address inequalities in education. Therefore, with inclusive education calling for representation of diversity in the classroom, Slee (2013) shows how this environment can serve to cultivate democracy. Inclusive classrooms resulting from democracy discourses become a space within which children develop their awareness and competencies in social justice and equity, thus preparing them to enter the larger community as democratic citizens (Ranson, 1993; Slee, 2013; Stern et al., 2014). Hamaidi, et al. (2012) assert that democracy should be the central goal of education and some even use the term interchangeably with inclusion.

A study reported on by Cooray and Potrafke (2011) draws attention to the influence that religion has on the degree of democracy. It found that Muslim countries were generally less democratic. This is challenged by Joseph (2013) who finds it illogical that democracy is associated with English more than Arabic and by extension, Middle East countries. Nevertheless, UNESCO (2011a) identifies the current political climate in the Arab states as an opportune time for this democratisation of education. A far more cynical review of the situation is provided by Labidi (2010) who presents the recent Western driven education reforms in the Middle East not so much as a neutral democratic exercise, but with the intention of "transforming the internal order of Middle Eastern societies" (p. 196) and, more plainly, containing the threat of terrorism. Labidi, however, goes on to point out that this "coerced democratization" (p. 196) has not worked, and, according to Ruane (2011), it has ended up "colonizing rather than empowering" (p. 3).

### 2.5 POLICY IMPLEMENTATION

Internationally, policy for inclusion appears to be well established and wide spread and, indeed, as Peters (2007) and Allan (2006) point out, it is an essential prerequisite to the practice of inclusion. Nevertheless, the real impact of policy lies in its implementation. Inclusive education is acknowledged as a difficult task to undertake effectively (Savolainen et al., 2012), and as the years roll past, even decades, researchers show disappointment in the low rates of implementation and the persistent exclusion of children who are disabled continuing to take place in schools around the world (Dreyer, 2011; Lei \& Myers, 2011; Oliver \& Barnes, 2010). Peters (2007) notes that "despite the increasingly rapid proliferation of numerous international policy documents, inclusive education has not yet 'gone to scale'" (p. 99). Slee (2001) refers to this discrepancy as a "slippage between the intention and implementation of policy" (p. 389); Chaney (2011) calls it a "disconnect" (p. 447); and Lei and Myers (2011) a "dissonance between rhetoric and reality" (p. 15).

Some change and progress has been acknowledged in the literature, but it is considered inadequate or piecemeal. A review by Lei and Myers (2011) found little change between 2005 and 2009. Vlachou (2004) terms this as "change without difference" (p. 8) whereby technical changes may take place, but underlying exclusionary values remain, which, under the guise of inclusion, may actually be what Slee (2001) calls "reluctant schooling" (p. 385). Swain and Cook (2001) call this 'selective' inclusion and it has been noticed that even where students who are disabled are included, it is often without genuine participation (Lloyd, 2000; Slee, 2001). Visser and Stokes (2003) suggest that the fault may be in the policy itself when it is not legally enforceable, yet there are reports of exclusion continuing and increasing even when it is clearly illegal (Education Review Office, 2010; Slee, 2013). Others say that the model of inclusion itself is not viable therefore creating implementation problems (Anastasiou \& Kauffman, 2012); and Dreyer (2011) reminds us that we should not put too much faith in policy to bring about something that is not yet reality. Regardless of the reason, it is evident that policy is not having the desired impact and exclusion is still continuing on a scale significant enough to raise concern and call for further research into the source of the low effectiveness. Researchers have considered many different factors contributing to this problem which are presented in the following section. A special focus on literature regarding the situation in the Middle East appends each topic.

### 2.6 Philosophy embedded in policy documents

The beliefs inherent in policy are very relevant to their implementation and impact on schooling. Ideological struggles make their way into policy documents and when not congruent with the principles of inclusive education, they have the potential to exclude. Policy is far from ideologically neutral and is considered by Wright (2010) to be a reflection of the philosophical understandings held by society. Peters (2007) delves deeper and claims that "every written policy document deploys a particular discourse as both tactic and theory in a web of power relations" (p. 100). With policy considered a representation of the moral authority of the times, it has the
power to legitimise paradigms that either include or exclude (Peters, 2007). Debate surrounding the concept of inclusive education is far from concluded and it is still much discussed. With two distinctly polarised perspectives head to head, the issues are very emotionally charged and political (Brantlinger, 1997; Kavale, 2002; Rose, 2002; Zoniou-Sideri et al., 2006).

One of the perspectives represented in the debate is where traditional special education paradigms and practices have been transferred into explanations of inclusive education. This is the paradigm that claims to support inclusive education to a degree, yet calls for cautious policy and pragmatism (Anastasiou \& Kauffman, 2012; Kavale, 2002; Rose, 2002). Although portrayed as a scientific position, it has been exposed to be ideology which views disability through the eyes of charity, prejudice and pity (Allan, 2012; Kliewer \& Drake, 1998; Shakespeare, 1994; Vlachou, 2004). Critics of this philosophy believe that it contributes to exclusion by maintaining traditional understandings of disability and misrepresenting inclusion to be a philosophy of tolerance whereby difference is 'managed' (Allan, 2006). Underlying and more complex reasons for maintaining these special education paradigms have been revealed as a selfish desire for the preservation of a perceived privileged status (Staub, 1990). Those holding this perspective complain about being cast as 'bad' and even being equated to proponents of slavery and apartheid (Kavale, 2002). Nevertheless, supporters of this field of thought believe it to be based in evidence and realistic.

The newer and more radical perspective is that of 'full' inclusion, or perhaps just inclusion in the full sense of the word, ${ }^{2}$ which promotes inclusion for all in general schooling all the time. It is considered to have an entirely different knowledge base

[^1]and be based in the social model of disability which views the problem to be located in the interaction of the person and the environment, rather than in the person alone (Croft, 2010; Florian, 1998). These inclusion advocates believe that segregation is morally wrong and that there can be no 'separate but equal' (Connor \& Gabel, 2013; Rieser, 2012). The standpoint of inclusion therefore, rejects the option of special education practices being in any way part of the same education system, and Kearney and Kane (2006) liken the suggestion thereof to an oxymoron. This perspective is underpinned with ideals of human rights, diversity, equity, social justice and inherent democracy (Slee, 2001). It has, however, been widely criticised as being ideological, and thus detached from reality (Brantlinger, 1997; Chow et al., 1999; Havey, 1998; Hulgin \& Drake, 2011; Kavale, 2002; Kliewer \& Drake, 1998; Rose, 2002). As Brantlinger (1997) states, there is a strong belief among teachers that inclusion policy makers are out of touch with the reality of the classroom. Indeed, inclusion advocates themselves recognise that it is a lofty and utopian goal (Brantlinger, 1997; Havey, 1998). They have been criticised for being closed to alternative views and so considering their view that of the "anointed" (Kavale, 2002, p. 209). The blanket generalisation of the ideology is said by Chow, et al. (1999) to "smack of tyranny" (p. 459). Further criticism extends to relating inclusion to a 'fad' or an "overextension of the civil rights movement" (Schopler, 1996, p. 279). The idea has even been raised that this perspective could also contribute to exclusion, based on the fact that we cannot rush in and 'dump' children who are disabled into an education system which has not yet prepared itself or aligned itself with true inclusion philosophy (Connor \& Gabel, 2013). The results of this would ultimately be marginalisation in the classroom, a call for the continuance of a parallel segregated system (Chow et al., 1999; Rose, 2002), or as Mary Warnock, an original promoter of inclusive education warns, "school-less children" (Rouse \& Florian, 1998, p. 328).

Literature on the Middle East suggests a similar struggle between the two conflicting fields of thought, the first dictated by the medical and charity model of disability and the second by a rights-based model. As documented by much of the
literature from the region, the predominant approach to education for children who are disabled in Middle Eastern countries can be observed as being special schools or special classes within regular schools (Amr, 2011; Axelsson \& Barrett, 2009; UNESCO, 2011a; Weber \& City, 2011). There is little agreement as to where exclusionary attitudes originate with Slee (2013) asserting that exclusion is actually produced by schools rather than the schools only reflecting exclusion already apparent in society; while others argue that the Islamic faith predominant in the region does in fact promote the charity model by encouraging care for the poor and less fortunate (Al-Aoufi, Al-Zyoud, \& Shahminan, 2012; Gaad, 2010; Hagrass, 2005). Still others fault the cultural traditions of shame and fatalism as underlying philosophies of segregation (Alborz et al., 2013; Brown, 2005; Nagata, 2008) but a number of authors attribute this thinking to an imported Western model of special education that was considered scientific, modern and superior (Axelsson \& Barrett, 2009; Bazna \& Reid, 2009; Brown, 2005; Turmusani, 1999; Weber \& City, 2011). When an educational policy is imposed or imported, local society and its cultures and traditions cannot be held to blame for its consequences. The charity model is also central in Christian values both in the region and found motivating faith-based organisations who often provide services to people who are disabled (Axelsson \& Barrett, 2009). Although Weber and City (2011) are quick to point out that the contributions of these organisations have been significant, they have come at a cost. Brown (2005) attributes this model to the traditional motivation to protect and care for each other whereby it makes no sense to burden people who are disabled with the expectation of independence when others around them are willing to help them. But Hagrass (2005) believes this may often be a proper response in countries where disability would otherwise be an overwhelming obstacle, and at the very least, it can be regarded as a starting point (Axelsson \& Barrett, 2009).

The rights-based model more recently introduced through international cooperations and conventions could again be perceived as a Western imposition (Brown, 2005; Grech, 2009; Khuffash, 2012; Purinton \& ElSawy, 2012). According
to Nagata (2008) the underlying social model of disability may have limited relevance in the day to day life of people who are disabled in the Middle East region where more complex factors come into play. Labidi (2010) believes that Western driven education reforms are not neutral but have the intention of re-educating to a different cultural ideology. As Mitchell (2010) cautions, reforms are not sustainable when they are not accompanied by the related ideology, or, more specifically, when inclusive practice takes place in isolation from inclusive thinking. However, there are some who believe the inclusion model to be more compatible with cultural and religious traditions in the area. Gaad (2004) and Brown (2005) speak of the social cohesion and strong family ties considered resistant to separation and segregation and found to result in a strong family preference for inclusive education when provided the option. Alborz et al. (2013) propose that the Islamic values of mercifulness and kindness can be a foundation for initiating support systems. Ahmed (2007) rejects allegations that shame and divisions in society have any Qur'anic basis and brings to light the potential support for inclusion and a rights based philosophy in the emphasis on equality in the Quran. Indeed, in the case of Yemen, where due to financial constraints, they did not initially buy into the Western medical model, a developing and thriving inclusive education system can now be found (Bazna \& Reid, 2009; Maas, 2012). Other countries in the region are still in the initial stages where inclusion is beginning to be evident in rhetoric but a considerable amount of change must yet take place for implementation to align itself (Alborz et al., 2013; Amr, 2011; Gaad, 2010; Laiglesia, 2011; Mitchell, 2010; UNESCO, 2011a; Weber \& City, 2011).

### 2.7 The Written Document

Many writers agree that the very language, terminology and rhetoric used in policy can contribute to its ultimate impact and, as such, can be an instrument of exclusion. The strength or otherwise of the language of a policy is in the agreed definition of terms, the terminology used, the inferences, and the clarity of the writing.

### 2.7.1 Definitions

A general lack of agreement on the definition of inclusion and other central terms related to inclusive education has a number of researchers concerned as it may contribute to ongoing exclusion (Ainscow \& Sandill, 2010; Armstrong et al., 2011; Polat, 2011; Wright, 2010). Kearney and Kane (2006) claim that inclusion has never been assigned an official definition in New Zealand as also is the case in the USA (Havey, 1998), and in Greece 'equal access' is understood to be specialised provision (Zoniou-Sideri et al., 2006). Norwich (2006) states that "it is rare to find arguments against inclusion, as it is rare to find arguments against democracy. Disagreement occurs, by and large, in regard to the extent and nature of inclusion" (p. 71). Implementers of policy are thereby depending primarily on conjecture to apply the terms. Even the meaning of the term 'all' is considered to be in need of clarification (Kavale, 2002).

### 2.7.2 Terminology

In addition to definitions, the actual terms used in policy can lead to exclusion. Continued use of discriminatory words is believed by Dreyer (2011) to "perpetuate segregation" (p. 58). Abstract terms such as 'preference' and 'satisfactory' which were repeatedly found in policy, are vulnerable to assumption, misunderstanding and misappropriation (Havey, 1998; Visser \& Stokes, 2003). Allan (2006), however, identified policy as an opportunity to introduce new statutory language or, as Peters (2007) observed, new enabling terminology such as those promoting the social factors relevant to disability. However, Swain and Cook (2001) cautioned that terminology change may not change the policy itself and Kearney and Kane (2006) considered the ongoing use of oppressive terms as being sometimes necessary in order to deal with the issues at hand.

### 2.7.3 Semantics

Beyond the words chosen, the way the texts are constructed, the sentences and phrases chosen to portray meaning have the potential to exclude (Liasidou, 2014).

The wording of a policy is understood to be in no way neutral but rather considerably value laden (Zoniou-Sideri et al., 2006). Allan (2006) suggests that exclusionary pressures are written into policy texts. The very way in which policies have been written, whether contradictory, fragmented, or in weak language, has often left them open to reinterpretation and even reworking (Allan, 2006; Liasidou, 2014; Peters, 2007; Walton \& Nel, 2012; Wright, 2010; Zoniou-Sideri et al., 2006). The omitting of issues or terms is also significant when considering what is being hinted, silenced, or avoided (McMenamin, 2014; Peters, 2007). For example, in Greek education policy, the act of avoiding using the term 'disability' shows the preference that it remain unspoken and covered, accentuating the larger perception of disability as a misfortune. By denying the experience of disability the options for children who are disabled are reduced to 'fitting in' to the general system or remaining excluded (Zoniou-Sideri et al., 2006). Another example is the conspicuous absence of any mention of the role (or otherwise) of special school provision in New Zealand education policy showing the hesitance to confront a potentially politically charged issue (McMenamin, 2014; Selvaraj, 2014).

### 2.7.4 Loopholes

Another recurring issue contributing to exclusion has its source in specific parts of the text of the policy itself and their legal implications. These parts have been termed loopholes (Eleweke \& Rodda, 2002), caveats (Peters, 2007), provisos (Lloyd, 2000; Visser \& Stokes, 2003), let out clauses (Lloyd, 2000), slippage in the language, copping out (Allan, 2006), clauses of conditionality (Slee, 1996), the rub (Havey, 1998), or a cushion enabling schools to remain the same (Kearney \& Kane, 2006). All these terms refer to either explicit or implicit ways in which policy allows the option of exclusion under certain conditions. In some cases these conditions are abstract enough to be applied to any situation, for example, inclusion wherever possible (Eleweke \& Rodda, 2002) or subject to the availability of resources (Peters, 2007). Most often these exclusionary aspects of policy have been found to be applied to those with severe disabilities (Education Review Office, 2010; Peters, 2007; Vanderkolk) or emotional and behavioural difficulties (Visser \& Stokes,
2003). Pijl and Frissen (2009) believe that, while we may not be able to entirely rid policy of these loopholes, policy-makers should at least try to make them the less appealing option.

Similar ambiguities exist in the written policies across the Middle East. With rich diversity in the region of the Middle East, understandings of disability and inclusive education are equally diverse. Even with Arabic being the predominant language, there is little common understanding (Gaad, 2010; UNESCO, 2011a). Gaad (2010) identified similarities with how inclusive education was presented in policies in the Gulf States, but Mitchell (2010) found that there was little consistency in definition. With the extent of controversy over terminology in countries boasting a longer history of practice in inclusive education, controversy can be expected in the Middle East where, not only is the terminology young, it is also imported and is yet to have a basis of experience within which to interpret it (Mitchell, 2010). Inconsistencies in definitions are not only found between countries (Nour, 2005), but even, as Hagrass (2005) found in the case of Egypt, within countries. Often governments are seen to use different terms or definitions from organisations in the same country (Nour, 2005). In the Gulf States, Weber and City (2011) noted a range of approaches under the name of inclusive education. A review of disability definitions in Egypt revealed an underlying medical model, and the concept of 'otherness' or abnormality dominating (Hagrass, 2005). Researchers in Iraq found the translation of the Arabic term for disability to be equivalent with 'defective' (Alborz et al., 2013) and discussions were "laden with a language of defectiveness and benevolence" (Alborz et al., 2011, p. 65).

Gaad (2010) documents cases of strong policy in the Middle East, but she also points out the severe lack of clarification in policies in terms of what form inclusive education should take. This leaves it open to a wide range of interpretation resulting in ongoing debate and controversy. Hamaidi, Homidi and Reyes (2012) documented contradictions within legislation in the region, Axelsson and Barrett (2009) pointed to the deficiency of policies in methods for enforcement, and Nour
(2005) found laws in Egypt to have wide gaps neglecting important issues such as early detection and cooperation. While it must be acknowledged that the region has been praised by UNESCO (2011a) for many rich inclusive practices, all of these gaps in policy avail schools with the opportunity to maintain the exclusive status quo, even within an inclusive policy environment.

### 2.8 Attitudes of teachers

Well intentioned policy cannot enforce the necessary transformation in attitudes, and consequently, exclusion can continue to happen with teachers following their belief systems. There are many who claim that inclusive education incorporated in policy does not directly lead on to reform, but that it begins from the beliefs and attitudes of teachers in schools (Ainscow, Booth, et al., 2006; Ballard, 1997; Mackenzie, 2011; Pijl \& Frissen, 2009; Savolainen et al., 2012). They maintain that effective inclusive education has its origins in the deeply personal experiences and beliefs of teachers, and the school culture and philosophy. Ballard (2003, as cited in Allan, 2006) put it simply when stating "inclusion ... is about ourselves" (p. 127). The belief systems found to lead to exclusion are generally those of teachers' negative attitudes towards disability (Chow et al., 1999; Kavale, 2002; Rose, 2002). Conversely, a study in the UK found a general positive belief amongst teachers that inclusive education was an appropriate change and the principle was widely accepted (Swain \& Cook, 2001). This observation was also supported by the findings of Rose (2002). It is interesting, however, to note that more often than not, this philosophical support is tempered by an ensuing pragmatic stance recognizing the reality of the classroom and the lack of readiness of teachers for the challenge of inclusive education (Rose, 2002; Savolainen et al., 2012; Vlachou, 2004). Indeed, there is recognition that the demands of inclusive education policies are great and involve increased responsibility and challenge (Allan, 2006; Chow et al., 1999). Kavale (2002) also reported the trend in the USA where teachers rarely implemented necessary instructional changes unless they were considered 'easy'. However, Visser and Stokes (2003) reviewed cases in which the teachers'
understanding, or lack thereof, of disability and inclusion compared across schools was the primary determinate of inclusion or exclusion, rather than the demands. The conclusion of these seemingly contradicting reports could be that while most teachers agree with inclusive education in principle, when faced with the seemingly overwhelming demands, there is a tendency to revert to an exclusionary belief system which releases the teacher from the responsibility of dealing with the issue. Croft (2010) identified that, even though children who are disabled may be in school, if teachers hold a norm-referenced view of child development and learning, they may feel less responsible or capable of addressing low achievement. As a result, exclusion can be perpetuated within the classroom because low achievement may lead on to dropping out of school altogether. Kearney and Kane (2006) offer that part of the solution lies in professional development so that teachers are better prepared to accept the responsibility of meeting the needs of all students regardless of disability. They also claim that when supported by community awareness and lobbying, policy can actually impact attitude change. However, they still maintain that the key to inclusive education is each school's core philosophy. Pijl and Frissen (2009) also recognised that schools must lead the change from within and they put forward support as the key, as they found that, when teachers feel alone, negative attitudes become infectious. Ainscow, et al. (2006) document positive examples of schools in the UK who initiated dialogue surrounding externally imposed policies and were able to effectively change their underlying values towards increased inclusiveness and Pather (2011) identified schools in South Africa which were inadvertently practicing inclusion because they had a "welcoming and supportive ethos" (p. 12). Ainscow (2007) agrees that increasing the inclusiveness of schools starts and ends with teachers; with their conceptualising of the possibilities then developing greater responsibility in the realisation of them.

The pivotal role of teachers' attitudes in the success of inclusive education was also identified in the literature on the Middle East (Alghazo, Gaad, \& El, 2004; Amr, 2011). A number of studies from the UAE, Jordan and Egypt were reviewed. These included general education teachers (Alghazo et al., 2004), early childhood
teachers (Hamaidi et al., 2012), pre-service teachers (Al Zyoudi et al., 2011) and general public (Almuhtaseb, 2010; Axelsson \& Barrett, 2009). All of these studies agreed that inclusive attitudes are required to drive inclusive behaviour, and conversely, negative attitudes will restrict opportunities for children who are disabled in the classroom. Findings across the studies concurred that negative attitudes abound in these Middle Eastern countries. Some found that female teachers were generally more positive than males and suggested that this could be due to their traditional role of caring (Alghazo et al., 2004; Fayed, 2011b). It was also found that attitudes in favour of inclusion increased with length of experience and with training (Al Zyoudi et al., 2011; Alghazo et al., 2004; Hamaidi et al., 2012). The study in Egypt found no significant difference between the attitudes of trained or untrained teachers, but Fayed (2011b) has suggested that this could be due to a shortcoming in the teacher training process. Another consistent result was that attitudes of acceptance towards inclusion of children who are disabled decreased proportionately with the severity of disability finding those having severe intellectual impairments recipients of the most negative attitudes (Alghazo et al., 2004; Fayed, 2011b; Gaad, 2004). Two other findings worth noting were that in the Middle East it is often the attitude of the school principal that plays a larger role in the success or otherwise of inclusive education (Al Attiyah \& Lazarus, 2007), and also that the strong call from families for inclusion of their children can override teacher attitudes and motivate practice (Gaad, 2004; Mitchell, 2010). As with international literature, it was noted in the Middle East that many support inclusion in principle but not in practice (Almuhtaseb, 2010; Hamaidi et al., 2012), and overall in the Middle East it has been suggested that attitudes are more in line with segregated than inclusive education (Al Attiyah \& Lazarus, 2007; Alghazo et al., 2004). In response, there is a call for the prioritizing of teacher training (Hamaidi et al., 2012) with explicit emphasis on bringing teachers to see their own need to adopt inclusive attitudes (Alghazo et al., 2004). Gaad (2004), however, believes that any exclusionary attitudes found in schools in the Middle East region are a knock-on from the attitudes found in a society tasked with changing to a new philosophy and, therefore, schools should not shoulder the problem alone. In light
of the concern that inclusive education may be a concept imported to the Middle East with equally unfamiliar underlying values, a UNESCO (2011a) report recommends that it will be necessary for countries to reconcile these with their own cultural, traditional and religious values before attitudes will be authentic. Ahmed (2007), Bazna and Reid (2009), and Weber and City (2011) however, are in strong agreement that traditional society is more inclusive than not and has potential to inform the attitudes of teachers without the need to conform to foreign ways of thinking.

### 2.9 CONFLICTING RIGHTS

Even with the inclusion agenda and subsequent policy originating from a human rights perspective, the potential for exclusion of children who are disabled has arisen when rights conflict and decisions must be made regarding whose rights prevail. With people who are disabled demanding such, their rights have been acknowledged, but as Allan (2006) points out and Visser and Stokes (2003) confirm, this in no way guarantees them. "The idea of human rights can be deployed in struggles at whatever level, but the outcome of these struggles cannot be guaranteed" (Vlachou, 2004, p. 4). With inclusion calling for access to the regular classroom for all, courts in the USA have found in favour of both inclusion and segregated placement or exclusion (Little \& Little, 2000; Palley, 2006). Competing and conflicting policies have complicated the issue and introduced the risk of 'rights-based exclusion' whereby the rights of one take primacy over the rights of another (Ainscow, Booth, et al., 2006; Florian, 1998; Swain \& Cook, 2001; Vlachou, 2004; Zoniou-Sideri et al., 2006). Allan (2006) also warns that when rights are not statutory, the dominance of adults would continue. She pointed out that it has been stated in Scottish parliament that while children's voices must be heard, not before the rights of parents have been acknowledged. Conflict can take place between education policies, legal, civil and human rights, and perhaps more risky for those who are disabled, the rights of many versus the rights of the few (Visser \& Stokes, 2003). Therefore, that which has championed inclusive
education, the notion of rights, also serves to fuel problems and ongoing exclusion (Vlachou, 2004). Vlachou goes on to recognise that this very contradiction is what inclusive education is endeavouring to combat. She states that, with current education systems and structures continuing to exclude and obstruct full access to educational rights, "inclusive education is a project of educational reconceptualization ... Inclusive policy, practices, and discourses strike at the heart of the endemic tensions and contradictions inherent within mass education" (Vlachou, 2004, p. 9).

Similarly reflected in the Middle East, children who are disabled are minority players in the competition for access to education. In Middle Eastern countries where education is being rehabilitated or improved and there are still inadequate facilities and infrastructure, inclusive education is often considered a luxury (Alborz, 2013; Amr, 2011; Gaad, 2010). So, even with wide commitment to human rights, from the onset of educational reform, the rights of the majority are found to take priority in the race for resources and the 'equal' rights of the vulnerable minority are put aside. In some Middle Eastern countries traditional power positions take a higher position and it is the minority elite whose rights and opinions outweigh those of even the majority (Loveluck, 2012). Al-Nakib (2012) and Laiglesia (2011) recognised that even with policy commitment to equal human rights, divisions in societies in the Middle East run deep and rights-based approaches may take many years to produce results. A severe lack of methods of enforcement render rights-based policies ineffective in protecting the rights of children who are disabled from being overlooked, delayed or excused away indefinitely (Axelsson \& Barrett, 2009; Mitchell, 2010; Nour, 2005).

### 2.10 STANDARDS AGENDA

One of the policies believed to conflict with inclusive education is that which has been referred to as the 'standards agenda' or the philosophy of the market-place. This is where, in the bid to raise educational achievement, the competitive forces of
the free market are allowed to operate in schools (Ngcobo \& Muthukrishna, 2011). This policy and its potential threat to the inclusion movement is repeatedly addressed at length by literature and warrants special mention (Ainscow, Booth, et al., 2006; Dudley-Marling \& Baker, 2012; Graham \& Jahnukainen, 2011; Rieser, 2012; Rouse \& Florian, 1998). With governments seeking to push up achievement, the climate of competition and standards has long been supported by policy (Barton, 1997; Rouse \& Florian, 1998) and these policies are often also linked to funding and incentives (Lloyd, 2000). While inclusion policies are still present, there are many who consider these two policies to be in direct conflict with one calling for equity and the other for excellence (Hausstätter, 2013; Stangvik, 2014). In this policy environment, students who are disabled effectively become 'unattractive' to schools and a poor investment (Ainscow, Booth, et al., 2006; Slee, 2001; Stangvik, 2014). There is general agreement that this climate not only finds students who are disabled vulnerable, but is indeed a vehicle for exclusion (Graham \& Jahnukainen, 2011; Mitchell, 2010; Pijl \& Frissen, 2009; Slee, 2001; Vlachou, 2004). Some suggest that there is evidence of schools discriminating to attract high achievers and shifting resources to those more likely to achieve (Florian, 1998; Lloyd, 2000). They point out that parental choice has made the situation more acute and an increasing number of students who are disabled are actually out of school in the UK (Graham \& Jahnukainen, 2011). This movement has even been equated to social Darwinism (Rouse \& Florian, 1998; Stern et al., 2014) promoting the survival of the fittest schools and students. In the USA, exemption from standard tests for students who are disabled was introduced with the intention of reducing standards driven exclusion, yet this only resulted in an inflated classification of disability in order to increase the appearance of school success (Brantlinger, 1997; Mitchell, 2010). It is noted by Lloyd (2000) that the frequent introduction of new strategies leaves teachers feeling powerless to manage, evaluate and revise their own practice. Ainscow, et al. (2006), as part of a research project in the UK, were interested to find less conflict between the two agendas than they expected. They found an anomaly of natural progression towards inclusion whereby the drawing of focus by the standards agenda to those not
stacking up also drew teachers to consider how to rethink their practice. Rouse and Florian (1998) also concluded their article with optimism by proposing a third angle: effectiveness, which is suggested and indeed found to be successful in balancing the tensions rather than forcing schools to choose one or other extreme.

While a standards agenda was not specifically mentioned in the literature reviewed on the Middle East, Gaad (2004) reports that teachers are commonly blamed when a child fails exams. In discussions arranged by UNESCO (2011a) it was noted that students traditionally carry the responsibility if they face difficulties meeting the standards expected in the classroom and repetition is the common response. However they went on to point out that this practice is being rethought in the region. Indeed, it seems that when inclusive education conflicts with another education practice it effectively draws attention to a shortcoming and provides an opportunity and impetus for reform. This was the case in Qatar with identification of the need for provision for those who couldn't pass or take exams in the standard way due to an impairment (Al Attiyah \& Lazarus, 2007) and the rigid teacher methods observed throughout much of the region as noted by Axelsson and Barrett (2009).

### 2.11 CATEGORISING DISABILITY

With mention of inclusive education in policy often drawing focus to particular groups of traditionally marginalised students, an unintentional exclusionary effect can result. In the case of disability, there is a legacy of categorisation of impairment which has been retained from traditional models of segregation and is having the impact of justifying ongoing exclusion in the name of inclusion (Atkins, 2013; Kavale, 2002; Slee, 2013). The practice of categorisation involves diagnosing impairment and disability according to disability labels, severity of disability and type of disability. This diagnosis focuses on the characteristics and symptoms within the student themselves, and the process usually involves doctors, medical specialists and psychologists. These practices inherited from traditional disability
models have been called 'deficit theory' in which differences perceived as negative are hunted down, the 'pathological theory' looking for biological and pathological symptoms, and the 'statistical theory' which recognises a 'normal curve' found in the average population and identifies the extent to which some students deviate from it (Eleweke \& Rodda, 2002; Kearney \& Kane, 2006; Lloyd, 2000; Shakespeare, 1994). A study by Ngcobo and Muthukrishna (2011) was concerned to find these types of thinking alive and well even in schools considered to be practicing inclusion. These theories present the concepts of 'normal' versus 'abnormal', and lead on to the assumption that abnormal is therefore undesirable. Furthermore, there remains an understanding that these abnormalities are innate (Connor \& Gabel, 2013; Sailor \& Burrello, 2012) or "deficiencies within their bodies and mental capacities" (Veck, 2014, p. 6). Diagnosis of this difference is considered scientific and medical and thus defying criticism (Slee, 2013). The disturbing origin of these fields of thought is often found in the eugenics movement, mental testing, and the discourse of 'uneducability' through which it is assumed that some children cannot benefit from schooling (Atkins, 2013; Brantlinger, 1997; Connor \& Gabel, 2013; Stern et al., 2014). Connor (2013) suggests a more sinister notion that by human nature we hunt down disability and difference in our efforts to retain hierarchies and social order.

The negative outcomes of this categorisation and labelling have long been recognised (Connor \& Gabel, 2013; Mitchell, 2010) and include "reduced expectations and self-fulfilling prophecies; considering all members of a category are the same; attachment of negative social stigma; and using labels as excuses for exclusionary practices" (Kearney \& Kane, 2006, p. 210). When disability is understood as being located in the student, there is a tendency to feel absolution from responsibility to meeting needs. Segregation can be justified on the basis of 'protecting' the students from cruel society and inclusion may take place for only those who can prove they can benefit (Vlachou, 2004). A prevailing understanding may persist that these students need special treatment leading on to segregation taking place with the belief that it is in the students' best interest (Dorrance \&

Schädler, 2012; Ruane, 2011; Slee, 2013). Indeed, there are those who believe that inclusive education must be selective and target those more likely to succeed (Rose, 2002) which inevitably results in exclusion, particularly impacting those with more severe impairments (Education Review Office, 2010; Peters, 2007). Others, however, strongly debate this rationale stating that inclusion must take place regardless of severity (Chow et al., 1999; Havey, 1998), as put by Swain and Cook (2001), "by definition, inclusive cannot be selective" (p. 205). Taking the argument further, Ngcobo and Muthukrishna (2011) warn against the other extreme of 'homogenising' children with impairments and failing to recognise their individual experience of disablement, and thus considering 'them' as one group and overlooking things such as curriculum differentiation considered a key strategy for successful inclusion (Marvin, 2002). It has also been pointed out that there is value for individuals in identifying with others sharing a similar impairment and experience, a trend particularly common for people who are deaf (Croft, 2010).

Inclusive education policy can bring with it financial implications. A number of authors have raised concern about how policy can provide incentives for increased categorisation (Graham \& Jahnukainen, 2011; Mitchell, 2010; Slee, 2013). They point out that numbers of students who are disabled seem to be increasing, categories are expanding, and a disproportionate number of minority students are being labelled as disabled. According to Croft (2010), "labelling certain children 'disabled' adds nothing to their lives but stigma' (p. 10). Some consider labelling to be an exclusionary pressure and believe that the spiralling downwards towards exclusion and ongoing unjust effects of policy is inevitable (Allan, 2006). However, others promote alternative perspectives towards disability categories. For example, Slee (2001) suggests that what is sometimes categorised as a disability innate to the student may actually need to be recognised as located in the teaching and the need for more intensity thereof. He asserts the little less acknowledged reality is that for the most part, groups of students are enabled or disabled by the school. Sailor and Burrello (2012) advise that instead of asking whether children have impairments or not, we should be asking what they need in order to achieve success in education.

Lloyd (2000) believes there has been some progress in moving away from categorising and that we should begin replacing this with thinking that looks beyond the construct of 'normal' in education. Veck (2014) agrees with Lloyd in that the identity of normality is defined only in the context of what it is not, or in the presence of difference. Without the existence of difference, normal has no identity. The new thinking therefore moves on from schools where diversity is just tolerated to where it is not only welcomed, but celebrated (Hardy \& Woodcock, 2014; Higgins, MacArthur, \& Kelly, 2009; Rieser, 2012).

Children with impairments being excluded based on categorisation is also evident in literature on the Middle East. With the introduction of special education in the Middle East, categorisation has been part of the package. The traditional disability categories of physical, sensory and intellectual impairment were also expanded to include education disability (Mitchell, 2010). Those students, who were previously not recognised as having impairments, were included in regular education provision. With the new categorisation, attention was drawn to these students, teachers feel incompetent to teach them, and a new exclusion and disablement began (Bazna \& Reid, 2009; Mitchell, 2010; Slee, 2013). In Oman, students who are disabled must have a doctor's report before gaining acceptance into school (Gaad, 2010). Parents in Gulf countries however, have often been seen to delay or avoid altogether the diagnosis of these invisible impairments hoping that they might improve. A form of denial takes place, because, for complex reasons, acceptance would be akin to attributing these impairments to fate which leads into resignation to the inalterability of the impairment (Brown, 2005; Mitchell, 2010). The paradigm of normal and abnormal is argued by Bazna and Reid (2009) to be in conflict with the principles of Islam because it employs the prohibited actions of judging against a norm and locating difficulties within a child.

### 2.12 The Expert Model

The maintenance of the 'expert model' in education policy and practice is considered to inhibit the effectiveness of inclusion. With an emphasis on
specialised professionals trained to work with specific categories of disability, the expert model maintains that students who are disabled have 'special' needs that are in a field beyond the responsibility of the teacher and thus call for a 'special' teacher (Croft, 2010; Pather \& Nxumalo, 2012; Sailor \& Burrello, 2012). According to the expert model, inclusive education is perceived to be merely a transferring of students and their experts from segregated settings into the mainstream school (Pather, 2011; Veck, 2014). However, Slee (2001) holds that this is not inclusion at all, but assimilation, ultimately resulting in marginalisation within the school and classroom (Ferguson, 2008). While Kliewer and Drake (1998) grant that partnership with others (including professionals) should be part of effective inclusive education, there must be a move away from their exclusive management of students' lives, and the concept of privileged professional knowledge (Slee, 2001). Brantlinger (1997) is openly critical of this position of control when she describes experts as being seen as patient and dedicated "with a charitable, we-are-doing-for-them image ... [which] disguises insidious effects on powerless students by euphemisms and silences" (p. 441). Mackenzie (2011) also found this discourse of caring to dominate the language of teaching assistants in her study. In addition, Kliewer and Drake (1998) are critical claiming that professionals fear the idea that inclusive education may provide experiences and opportunities offering more meaning than do segregated settings. Indeed there is general agreement that experts have a vested interest in maintaining their jobs and status, which hinders inclusion (Lynas, 2002; Rouse \& Florian, 1998; Slee, 2013; Swain \& Cook, 2001). Slee (2001) provides constructive encouragement for these experts to gain whatever new skills may be necessary to redirect their expertise towards support for the new democratised style of schooling rather than work against inclusion. The research findings of Lynas (2002) showed that specialist teachers can contribute to inclusive settings in collaborative and positive ways that were found to benefit all children and did not need to detract from the inclusion agenda (Ferguson, 2008).

Citing the examples of Saudi Arabia and Jordan, Amr (2011) expresses a similar concern in that the historical special classes found in the Middle East have
encouraged the exclusionary thinking that a special qualification is needed in order to teach children who are disabled. Amr found that even when students who are disabled were in regular classrooms, the teachers took little responsibility for them considering the presence of a special teacher in the school to absolve them from any obligation. In contrast, Axelsson and Barrett (2009) defend the call for more technically qualified teachers by drawing attention to the high teacher-student ratio often observed in the region. They believe the shortage of specialist teachers is slowing down progress towards inclusive education. Nonetheless when specialists are available, collaboration is needed for their contribution to support the regular teachers and be more meaningful in support towards inclusive education (Hamaidi et al., 2012).

### 2.13 The Continuum of Placements

Another guise for exclusion can be found in the provision of a 'continuum of placements'. A range of educational placement options are sometimes provided for students who are disabled with decisions based on the individual needs of the student. This has been called the 'continuum'. Many believe that the education system still requires this cascade of services to be available and that inclusion should also be just one of the options (Anastasiou \& Kauffman, 2012; Brantlinger, 1997; Chow et al., 1999; Lloyd, 2000; Rose, 2002). They believe there are limits to inclusive education and that some benefit more from alternative options. Those with severe disabilities are again identified as the primary targets of this need for placements other than the general classroom (Education Review Office, 2010). Chow, et al. (1999) go to lengths to clarify that the continuum is concerned with the best interests of the individual, being 'adaptive' and 'humane' rather than looking at students as a whole. They believe that while "inclusion is good; full inclusion may be too much of a good thing" (p. 459) even going so far as to equate the concepts with the difference in treatment needs for cancer patients and plastic surgery patients. Anastasiou and Kauffman (2012) argue that inclusion can be equated with burying our heads in the sand and ignoring that some students who are disabled
need more dedicated and intense education in different placements. They say that equity does not necessarily mean uniformity. Others, however, consider the continuum to disguise exclusion under the "illusion of choice" (Swain \& Cook, 2001, p. 203). Swain and Cook analysed the process of change from special schools to an inclusion programme which involved a continuum. It was found that the exclusion of those remaining in segregated settings was in fact compounded due to the selective process and additional exclusion from some peers. Sailor and Burrello (2012) claim that this relegation to the continuum causes irreparable harm to the students' future prospects by denying them a quality education. It is interesting to note Havey's (1998) reports that USA courts supported the continuum of placements in many of their recorded decisions. McMenamin (2011) reviewed special school provision in New Zealand and concluded that although their position is difficult to justify in a climate where inclusive education is universally accepted, they are part of an education environment still moving towards a fuller understanding and practice of inclusion. An article by Kavale (2002) tracing USA history towards inclusion, notes that the continuum was a historical perspective which no longer lines up with inclusion philosophy. He says that, in the new framework, the general classroom is for all, and importance is placed on the instructional and interaction methods rather than on the location. With inclusion focusing on reforming the whole school climate (Forlin, 2010), the need should no longer remain for different placements.

Inclusion is offered as 'one of the options' in literature in the Middle East, effectively allowing exclusion to continue. Inclusive education policies in the Middle East are being interpreted in many different ways ranging from full segregation to full inclusion (Amr, 2011; Hakim \& Jaganjac, 2006; Weber \& City, 2011). Special classes are often touted as inclusive education (Amr, 2011; Hakim \& Jaganjac, 2006; Weber \& City, 2011). Consistent with the international situation, those with more severe impairments are more often relegated to segregated settings. Sometimes just appearance, and in particular the physical features of Down Syndrome, can be used to determine placement (Gaad, 2004). Segregated
settings are sometimes presented as 'preparatory' and with the aim of later transitioning students into integrated settings (Axelsson \& Barrett, 2009). As Gaad (2004) found in Egypt, for some, just to have an opportunity to receive education in any form can be considered a privilege. However, in a region committed to inclusive education at policy level, Gaad makes it clear in the statement: "Inclusion for some and exclusion for others makes the concept of inclusion meaningless" (p. 320).

### 2.14 RESOURCE DISTRIBUTION

The perceived importance of resources in effective inclusive education inversely results in the lack of or shortages of resources being used to justify exclusion. The implementation of policy for students who are disabled has been found to be strongly linked to the availability of resources. Swain and Cook (2001) noted a strong weighting of concern for resource implications influencing decisions of policy makers. A prevailing belief also exists that in terms of resources, the mainstream school is not yet 'ready' for inclusion (Chow et al., 1999; Rose, 2002), and it seems that the resource demand is indeed high if inclusive education is to be responsibly implemented (Allan, 2006; Martínez-Pujalte, 2008; Polat, 2011; Swain \& Cook, 2001). Allan (2006) also recognised, however, that policy puts teachers and schools in a position of being blamed if they are failing to make the needed provision. Nevertheless, lack of resources still appears to be widely used as an excuse to exclude in the form of non-acceptance of children with additional needs, partial segregation and high drop-out rates (Bines \& Lei, 2011; Pather, 2011; Rieser, 2012; Wiazowski, 2012). Eleweke and Rodda (2002) found that the type of inclusion practiced in many developing countries where resources are in short supply results in students with impairments feeling isolated and frustrated. In England, Australia and New Zealand, it has become evident that inclusive education is being reduced to a battle for resources and a tendency to even discriminate against the enrolment of those requiring them (Ainscow, Booth, et al., 2006; Education Review Office, 2010; Graham \& Jahnukainen, 2011; Kearney \&

Kane, 2006). Slee (2001) and Lloyd (2000), however, view the situation in a different light pointing out that inclusive education has been misconstrued to be an exercise of redistributing resources and the simple transfer of resources from a special education system to the mainstream school. Lloyd (2000) expresses concern that the discourse has strayed far from recognising the central factors of structure, organisation and content of schooling, to a preoccupation with distribution of resources. The failure of policy in terms of resources appears to be a combination of the lack thereof, the loopholes in allowing provision to be contingent on availability of these resources, and the general misrepresentation of inclusion being primarily about resources. Lloyd (2000) concludes that "genuine inclusive education requires complete restructuring of the provision and resources of education to account for and address diversity and difference" (p. 142).

The importance placed on resources is also common to the Middle East inclusive education environment and has been seen to excuse exclusion. A study conducted in Jordan and the UAE confirmed the belief that that there is a relationship between the perception of sufficient resources and more positive teacher attitudes towards inclusive education (Al Zyoudi et al., 2011). Axelsson and Barrett (2009) reported that it is common for a student who is disabled in the Middle East to be illegally denied enrolment with 'lack of resources' given as the reason. While regional discussions on inclusive education identified the need to prioritise funds for specialised equipment to accommodate students with impairments (UNESCO, 2011a), they also resulted in recommendations for reorganisation of education provision employing approaches designed to meet more diverse needs through which the demand for resources may indeed be less urgent.

### 2.15 THE ECONOMICS OF INCLUSION

Similar to, and leading on from the issue of resources is that of the cost of implementing inclusive education. When the expense is considered inhibitive, it becomes another factor contributing to ongoing exclusion. It is generally believed
that policy reform should be directly supported by parallel funding arrangements (Dorrance \& Schädler, 2012). The implication of this is that policy without the required supporting funds is destined for failure. The literature shows little agreement regarding the cost-effectiveness of inclusive education. Many policy documents promote it to be the cost-effective option as compared to segregated education and therefore a wise choice in terms of economic development (Armstrong et al., 2011; Lei \& Myers, 2011; Mitchell, 2010; Peters, 2007). However, this has led parents and some researchers to believe that policies for inclusive education are purely a cost-cutting exercise or the cheap alternative rather than in the best interests of the child (Ballard, 1997; Brantlinger, 1997; Chow et al., 1999; Visser \& Stokes, 2003).

Inclusion is not seen as cost effective by all. It is believed that the cost of accommodating children who are disabled in schools is more than twice the cost of regular education (Chow et al., 1999; Eleweke \& Rodda, 2002) which Florian (1998) considers reckless but Chow, et al. (1999) go further to point out that while initially expensive, it should become cost effective over time. A study conducted in the UK presented the transferring of education from special schools to mainstream schools as a cost neutral exercise (Swain \& Cook, 2001) but others believe that special education is more financially efficient (Visser \& Stokes, 2003). Visser and Stokes observe that this argument has been used as the basis for exclusion or segregation and Eleweke and Rodda (2002) claim that shortage of funds in developing countries is a major obstacle to inclusion. They maintain that no matter how much inclusion is prioritised in policy, when funds are short, students who are disabled are not considered the priority (Hakim \& Jaganjac, 2006) and are even seen as a "waste of scarce funds" (Eleweke \& Rodda, 2002; p. 118) when the 'normal majority' needs have not yet been addressed. Similarly, Lei and Myers (2011) found that donors in international development considered inclusive education a "luxury issue" (p. 7). Nevertheless, if inclusiveness of education improves education effectiveness for all, as claimed, then it should also contribute
to improve the efficiency and cost effectiveness of the whole system (Armstrong et al., 2011).

Discussion of cost effectiveness of inclusive education leads on to scrutinising the underlying understanding of disability and economics, and how it is presented in policy. Is disability seen as a burden or a resource; an expense or an investment (Peters, 2007)? Lei and Myers (2011) and Martínez-Pujalte (2008) suggest that when educated people who are disabled contribute to the labour market, large sums will be saved on social protection. Meanwhile, Kavale (2002) quotes an annual spending of up to 60 billion dollars on education of students who are disabled in the USA and poses the question of whether there has been a return for the 'investment' over the years. In contrast, Peters (2007) challenges the appropriateness of connecting rights to "economic efficiency" (p. 106), equating this to the rationale of the $19^{\text {th }}$ century when workhouses were justified on the basis of "creating productive citizens" (p. 106). Dudley-Marling and Baker (2012) critique the morality of measuring and comparing the cost of educating which he considers to be putting economic value in the place of human rights. Finally, the following quote proposes an alternative angle to viewing the issue whereby the cost is considered a necessary part of our commitment to rights and social justice:

If we are committed to universal education for all students in a world of scarce and limited resources then we must contend with the fact that effort invested in disabled students may alter the distribution (narrowing it) while having little or no impact on the mean outcomes of schools. This formulation has serious implications for the concept of school effectiveness.
... Equality must accept not only that children may consume different resources to reach different goals, but also that they may consume different resources to reach different equally valid goals. (Gerber, 1996, as cited in Lloyd, 2000, p. 142)

Issues surrounding funding inclusive education were also found to potentially contribute to exclusion in the Middle East. Producing future productive citizens
appears to be a key objective of inclusive education for children who are disabled in the Middle East (Axelsson \& Barrett, 2009; Nour, 2005). In a region where a large proportion of the population is made up of young people, quality education has great potential to positively impact development (Amr, 2011; Maroun, Samman, Moujaes, \& Abouchakra, 2008; Roudi, 2001). Nour (2005) uses the terms "investment" and "public pay-off" (p. 2) when discussing services for children who are disabled, yet Axelsson and Barrett (2009) approach the issue more in terms of the benefits for the individual by pointing out that when education excludes students who are disabled, it is directly complicit in lowering their future chances of finding employment. In light of the well documented relationship between disability and poverty (Hakim \& Jaganjac, 2006; Singal, 2011; Slee, 2013), education is lauded as the "exit route" (Singal, 2011, p. 3). However, when identifying the needs for special accommodations in schools for some children who are disabled, arguments again return to the financial limitations, dependence of international donors, and the low priority given to these children in the distribution of funds (Alborz et al., 2011; Axelsson \& Barrett, 2009; Grech, 2009). Furthermore, when donor funds are available, an environment of rivalry between service providers, both government and private, arises resulting in the need to offer the most competitive justification showing broad impact and value for money (Grech, 2009). As such, proposals for inclusive education efforts struggle to compete with other high impact education initiatives (Axelsson \& Barrett, 2009). Another concern raised by Maas (2012) was that when countries are heavily reliant on these funds, policies can be driven by what is fundable rather than local need. Although there are a number of countries in the region who are already economically situated to invest in education innovations (Brown, 2005; Mitchell, 2010), some have noted that they still have an ever increasing demand for resources (Axelsson \& Barrett, 2009). A contributing factor could be the rapid urbanization taking place across the region effectively transferring the dependence traditionally carried by the extended family onto the state (Alborz et al., 2011; Weber \& City, 2011). On the other end of the spectrum are found countries recovering from conflict with education systems being entirely rebuilt. While some may not see this as the right time to be
considering special provision, it has been suggested that, in fact, it is the best time (Alborz et al., 2011). It is much more cost-effective to build accommodations and inclusionary components into schools at the design stage rather than waiting until they are requested later and require much more costly renovations (Rieser, 2012).

### 2.16 Shortage of Empirical Evidence

With inclusive education an ideologically driven policy, the shortage of empirical evidence of its efficacy has been used by the critics to suggest the ongoing need for certain types of exclusion. There is agreement amongst many authors that there is not enough research to accompany the ideology (Aron \& Loprest, 2012; Chow et al., 1999; Kavale, 2002; Rose, 2002) or as Dreyer (2011) puts it, "inclusive education theory has outpaced its practice" (p. 61). Policy without supporting research is less convincing (Wiseman, 2010). Without robust studies, inclusive education is accused of being unscientific (Kliewer \& Drake, 1998) and students themselves have been expected to 'prove' that they can benefit before they are guaranteed a placement (Vlachou, 2004). According to Chow, et al. (1999) education must meaningfully benefit every student. At the same time, Vlachou (2004) cautions against looking only for academic success. She holds that the success of inclusive schools is found in how well they serve all students and is unrelated to individual outcomes. Even widely quoted authors such as Slee (2001) and Ainscow, Booth and Dyson (2006) encourage the need for further studies into the new skills needed and factors promoting inclusive development. However, in recognising the rightsbasis for inclusive education, their call for evidence is intended for improving the practice of inclusion not for justifying it. Such forms of empirical research will not only support policy (Aron \& Loprest, 2012), but also support teachers who believe the mandate but are apprehensive about their role (Kavale, 2002; Rose, 2002).

Lack of documentation of inclusive education in the Middle East competes with literature promoting non-inclusive approaches to fuel ongoing exclusion. It is mentioned time and again that there is a shortage of data, statistics and literature
about education in the Middle East, and that which is available is often unreliable, incomplete, and even contradictory (Amr, 2011; Axelsson \& Barrett, 2009; Gaad, 2010; Mitchell, 2010). A young history of inclusive education in the region further adds to the shortage (Weber \& City, 2011). However, as recommended to policy makers in Iraq, the importance of recording progress cannot be over emphasised (Ansari \& Akhdar, 1998). It serves many purposes including reflection, improvement and even just a sense of affirmation about what has been achieved thus far. Furthermore, documentation of practice allows dissemination between countries which could lead to increased ownership of the inclusive education process in the region. This ownership may be just what is needed to move inclusive education thinking beyond the perception that it is a Western imposed practice (UNESCO, 2011a).

### 2.17 Further Research Opportunities

Some of the literature called for ongoing research in this field of inclusion in policy to encourage political action and change (Connor \& Gabel, 2013). While they believed that critiques of policy remain important, Allan (2006) and Ainscow, et al. (2006) promote the 'deconstruction' of current policy as the preferable method for exposing any underlying exclusionary ideology and identification of aspects which can be built on. This approach to examination of policy foundations and opportunities is considered constructive and part of the "wider struggle to end exclusive discourses and practices ... and the ideology that asserts we are separate and independent" (Ballard, 1997, p. 254). Such a process is not considered easy, and as Kearney and Kane (2006) point out; these exclusionary methods can be "deeply embedded" and "extremely difficult to uncover" (p. 205). Yet both Allan (2006) and Brantlinger (1997) agree with Kearney and Kane in saying that this ideology must be exposed in order for the development of inclusion to move forward.

### 2.18 CONCLUSION

With inclusive education being acknowledged as a growing movement and the signing of the UNCRPD widespread, the development of related national policies has taken place worldwide including in the Middle East. The impact of these policies on education systems has been a recurring theme throughout literature. The literature reviewed in this chapter suggests that the philosophical basis of policy statements creates unique combinations with the philosophical values of the implementers. The results seen in practice have potential to be exclusive and, disturbingly, this has too often been the case. It seems that if there is any exclusive inclination, it tends to prevail, with inclusive values likened to moving against the tide. Exclusionary forces can be found in the underlying philosophy of a policy itself and they can be inscribed into the text. The policy then must be mediated by education systems and teachers who also have unique philosophical values and understandings of disability and inclusion. Where these values are exclusionary, they can lead to misinterpretation or reworking of a policy, or they can be used to compound the exclusive values already embedded in the policy. Indeed, even exclusive factors considered environmental, such as resource and cost, were all found to have an ideological basis located in exclusionary thought. It was, however, encouraging to note that, despite the apparent difficulty of making inclusion a reality, it is still considered by the most prominent authors and compelling writings to be the appropriate direction forward for schools and education systems. Furthermore, with each exclusionary factor raised, there was found in literature an alternative inclusive conceptualisation with potential to eliminate the perceived hindrance. Therefore, education policy needs to be continually examined for exclusive forces, and the values of implementers aligned with inclusive philosophy in order to foster effective practice. With this established, an analysis of national inclusion policies and their impact has potential to identify the ideology at both levels and seek the climate needed for driving the inclusive education movement forward.

## CHAPTER THREE METHODOLOGY

### 3.1 Introduction

This methodology chapter is where the process of the research in this study is introduced, described and justified. Beginning with the research question, the theoretical perspective is then explained. Methods are then presented which attempt to respond to the research question in a manner consistent with the theoretical framework. The methods section is presented sequentially beginning with details of the design followed by the sample, data gathering tools, a review of trustworthiness of the method, the framework of analysis, and an overview of ethical considerations. Each of these sections is introduced first from the theoretical basis where relevant or the 'methods in theory' which is then followed by a description of the 'methods in action' as applied to this study.

### 3.2 Research Questions

The overarching research question is: How do national education policies and access to schooling in participating Middle Eastern countries align with the inclusive education expectations of the United Nations Convention on the Rights of Persons with Disabilities?

In order to answer this overarching question, the following guiding sub-questions were developed.

What opportunities for inclusive education can be found in national education policies? This question focuses on policy texts and identifying if and how inclusive education is prescribed. It leads to an examination of wording, structure, philosophy, and provisions within the various policies.

What type and amount of access to schooling for children who are disabled is taking place? Here it is asked whether inclusive education is being implemented, and if so, to what degree. The focus is on numbers of children participating in school and the ways in which they are supported and accommodated.

What progress is being made towards inclusive education? With the understanding that inclusive education is a process and a journey rather than a state (Hausstätter, 2013), this question results in identification of data on the progress being made towards inclusive education in terms of both policy and practice. It also emphasises the need to look ahead to determine perspectives on the potential progress in coming years.

### 3.3 Theoretical Perspective

A theoretical perspective is comprised of the assumptions held by the researcher, which underpin all stages of the research process. The methods used in the resulting research study will be shaped by and reflect these assumptions (Sale, Lohfeld, \& Brazil, 2002). Therefore identifying the researcher's theoretical perspective is the first step in justifying the methods selected.

### 3.3.1 Social Model

Scattered throughout the research questions are mentions of 'inclusive education' and people with 'disabilities'. This is clearly an assumption related to political reform upon which the entire research project rests. In order to acknowledge this ethical foundation, the 'social model of disability' must be introduced.

A change in thinking has taken place from the medical conceptualisation of disability through which disability is understood to be pathological, to a model where disability is considered socially constructed (Ballard, 1997). As long ago as 1975, a discussion amongst representatives of people who are disabled in the United Kingdom was recorded where it was stated that "disability is something
imposed on top of our impairments by the way we are unnecessarily isolated and excluded from participation in society" (Union of Physically Impaired against Segregation, 1975, p.4). Thus, people who are disabled were recognised as an oppressed group. The term 'social model of disability' was coined by Oliver (1983), and the United Nations Convention on the Rights of Persons with Disabilities (UNCRPD) captures the concept in its preamble: "Recognizing that disability is an evolving concept and that disability results from the interaction between persons with impairments and attitudinal and environmental barriers that hinders their full and effective participation in society on an equal basis with others" (United Nations, 2006a, preamble e). This model, once radical, now underpins most issues related to people who are disabled and as Barnes (2003) points out, the social model has become conventional understanding.

The assumption therefore, is that disability does not exist outside of social structures and indeed, disability is less impairment than it is social oppression (Oliver, 1992). With this understanding, this research project places an important social issue as the focal point (Creswell, 2013). In the case of research about education for children who are disabled, this study is also grounded in the agenda of inclusive education. Inclusive education has been given credit internationally for effectiveness in removing barriers that marginalise, exclude or oppress children who are disabled in education settings (UNESCO, 2008a).

While social model research is usually focused on social oppression, this research attempts to put a positive perspective on the issues. In so doing, rather than seeking to expose oppression or more specifically, exclusionary forces towards children who are disabled in education, this study sets out to analyse and present results from the flipside, which is seeking out inclusiveness in education. While not intending to sugar-coat the marginalisation that is undeniably ongoing worldwide, the researcher believes that building on good practice may present a better case for advocating for change than criticism or highlighting shortcomings. This approach is in line with Article 4 of the UNCPRD which recognises that achieving inclusive
education is a process requiring time, resources and cooperation, rather than just law (United Nations, 2006a).

A research inquiry rooted in the social model necessitates a joining of the struggle against marginalisation and insisting on increasing inclusiveness in society. It places the researcher in the position of seeking to use the tool of research to remove barriers and bring about social and political change. Traditionally research tries to avoid bias and political motivation (Mertens, 2007), but social model research is not traditional research, especially on this point. Research based on the social model intentionally claims a bias as an integral part of what it aims to achieve. Recognising this, Barnes (2003) stresses the importance of being open from the outset in this regard and clarifying the basis for disregard of alternative perspectives.

### 3.3.2 Positivism and Interpretivism

Positivism is the perspective which assumes that there is an objective reality 'out there' to be discovered. It guides research studies involving observation and measurement to test for truths. Interpretivism, however, situates reality in the social context and favours the view that meaning is constructed by those seeking to understand the world around them (Creswell, 2013). Researchers from the positivism perspective strive to be unbiased, but interpretivists recognise and take responsibility for the impact of their own interpretations of the research process (Rossman \& Rallis, 2003). Disability inquiry finds itself struggling to relate to either of these traditional models.

Barnes (2003) has suggested an area of common ground with positivism in that social oppression is a reality 'out there'. But beyond this, there is general agreement among writers in the disability field that the social model's call for political empowerment renders the positivist paradigm incompatible (Barnes, 2003; Oliver, 1992; Stone \& Priestley, 1996). A positivist researcher endeavours to remain politically neutral, detached and objective, which is considered by Stone and

Priestley (1996) to be inappropriate in an environment of social oppression where instead the researcher is ethically obliged to be(come) committed to the movement.

The interpretivist paradigm has been credited with taking people who are disabled seriously (Oliver, 1992). It recognises the impact of context and the social experience. However, "merely monitoring from sympathetic sidelines" (p. 6) is insufficient according to Stone and Priestley (1996). While the interpretivists may recognise the social construction of disability, research approaches stop short of taking this further to result in any action or services (Creswell, 2013; Oliver, 1992). Furthermore, interpretative research continues to be criticised for creating a gap between the researcher as the expert or 'knower' and people who are disabled as the less powerful 'researched' (Oliver, 1992).

In summary, in the context of the social model and with a political agenda favouring inclusive education, both the positivist and interpretivist paradigms fall short. Disability research under either of these has even been blamed for further marginalisation, distorting the experience of disability, alienation and oppression (Creswell, 2013; Oliver, 1992; Stone \& Priestley, 1996; Sullivan, 2009). In order to be true to the ethics of the social model for disability, an alternative model is called for.

### 3.3.3 Transformative research paradigm

An alternative is found in the transformative research paradigm. Also referred to as the participatory, advocacy, or emancipatory paradigm, this model sees reality as something determined by power positions. The underlying belief system grounded in the social model is that impairment can impact access to rights, resources and power. It leads on to the belief that power can determine which 'realities' are given more credibility (Sullivan, 2009). Oliver (1992) suggests that this research model presents itself as part of the historical progression of positivism, interpretivism and then emancipatory/transformative mirroring the models used for understanding
disability which initially situated the problem in individuals, later as an issue of society, and finally of politics (as seen in Figure 3-1).


Disability as an individual problem

Disability as a social problem

Disability as a political problem

Figure 3-1: Research Paradigms and Models for Disability
(Modified from Oliver, 1992, p. 108)

The paradigm was first used by Mike Oliver (1992) in an attempt to make disability research more relevant to those being studied. He called for an end to procedures conducted by experts, and a time for joining the struggle and thus challenging oppression. "The emancipatory paradigm ... is about the facilitating of a politics of the possible by confronting social oppression at whatever level it occurs" (Oliver, 1992, p. 110). This paradigm begins with an understanding, through the social model, of disablement as an important issue to be confronted. Resulting research processes are designed to generate knowledge about factors contributing to oppression and marginalisation. These are processes which are participatory, or empowering and relevant for people who are disabled. Finally, the outcomes are designed for stimulating change (Barnes, 2003; Creswell, 2013; Oliver, 1992; Stone \& Priestley, 1996). It must be noted here that research in and of itself, while part of the overall struggle, may not directly bring about change. It can however, stimulate political debate, and add to the demand for change (Barnes, 2003). A researcher working with the transformative paradigm can be neither a positivist neutral observer nor an interpretivist expert sympathiser, but becomes an active supporter and contributor in the struggle against oppression.

This research study is built on the foundation of the social model of disability and thus recognises the potential in education policies and practices to contribute to the
disablement or enablement of children with impairments. Taking the transformative research stance, the political document of the UNCRPD provides a standard expectation of inclusive education against which reality can be aligned. Findings from such an assessment can contribute to the ongoing political discourse by highlighting where there is policy, practice and progress supporting increasing inclusiveness in education.

### 3.4 Research Design

Research methods are generally categorised under either qualitative or quantitative designs. Qualitative research explores issues and phenomenon as seen in a holistic and natural setting and seeks meaning (Barnes, 1992; Stenbacka, 2001). As the term 'qualitative' suggests, it is useful for examining the quality of the issue and therefore, considers details, processes and the wider context. Qualitative research designs involve collection of data through words and pictures and are valuable for understanding realities in terms of what they mean to others. The strength in these designs is in their potential to build a depth of picture that the researcher could not have independently conceived of, but they are often weak in that the results produced are very individual, processes can be time consuming and results are not generalisable (Fraenkel \& Wallen, 2009; Johnson \& Onwuegbuzie, 2004).

Quantitative research as defined by Fraenkel and Wallen (2009) is an attempt to clarify phenomena through a systematic investigation concerned with facts, numbers and measurement. Quantitative designs are age-old and produce precise outcomes rich in statistics. These designs can be undertaken quickly and while they lack depth of context and may be abstract, they are considered unbiased and credible (Creswell, 2013; Johnson \& Onwuegbuzie, 2004).

The transformative research paradigm with its interest in oppression most often uses qualitative research designs. This is because oppression is a complex issue to capture and calls for a holistic analysis of the social world (Barnes, 1992, 2003;

Stone \& Priestley, 1996). Furthermore, by definition, transformativists or emancipativists are biased towards an important social issue and thus cannot be objective as called for by the quantitative design (Barnes, 1992). However, Stone and Priestley (1996) temper the debate by stating that "it would be misguided to equate emancipatory disability research with any one approach to data collection since both qualitative and quantitative methods can be used in an oppressive or an emancipatory context" (p. 10). Therefore, a mixed method approach is advocated by Lindsay (2003) when discussing approaches to research issues surrounding inclusion as it "produces a wider range of information to allow conclusions to be drawn about effects and their meanings" (p. 9).

Clearly, both methods have their benefits and both have limitations. In response to this, it is becoming increasingly common for research designs to incorporate more than one method in a bid to offset weaknesses and capitalise on strengths (Bryman, 2006; Gray, 2009; Ivankova, Creswell, \& Stick, 2006; Jick, 1979; Johnson \& Onwuegbuzie, 2004). Creswell (2013) believes that modern research is rarely situated in either quantitative or qualitative, but somewhere along a continuum between the two and Johnson and Onwuegbuzie (2004) and Bryman (2006) go so far as to propose 'mixed methods' as a third category of design. Not all agree on this with purists considering the two methods incompatible and pointing out that at the very least, if mixed methods are to be used, it should be clearly understood that the different methods don't capture different aspects of one phenomena, but in reality study completely different phenomena within one research project (Sale et al., 2002). Again, it is Stone and Priestley (1996) who suggest a balanced view by reminding us that regardless of what method or methods are used to collect the data, ultimately a transformative research paradigm can guide the way in which it is collected and analysed. Researchers are encouraged by Johnson and Onwuegbuzie (2004) to mix and match methods with the ultimate goal of increasing the opportunity for best answering their research questions.

In the quest to understand policy environments in the Middle East, there arises a need to investigate the complex multiple fields involved and calls for a holistic research design considering many angles. The research design chosen for this policy review was primarily a qualitative study. Some quantitative data were also collected which reinforced the findings by shedding light on the degree of implementation and progress towards inclusive education. Therefore this study involved a combination of qualitative and quantitative methods being conducted concurrently but with more of an emphasis on qualitative methods.

A design commonly employed to utilise mixed methods is case study research. A case study design involves a bounded context which is explored through multiple data sources (Baxter \& Jack, 2008; Ivankova et al., 2006). Policy theory argues that policy and context are inseparable. To study policy is to study those who developed it and the intricate web of power, resources and struggles involved. While policy is a window into these social fields, it is also through the window of social struggle that policy must be studied (Lingard et al., 2005; Mills, 2008; Singh \& Taylor, 2007). Because policy must be considered within its context (Weaver-Hightower, 2008) this is, according to Baxter and Jack (2008), sufficient justification to warrant a case study. "A case study design should be considered when: ... you want to cover contextual conditions because you believe they are relevant to the phenomenon under study" (Baxter \& Jack, 2008, p. 545). Although it has been said of the transformative paradigm that it is more concerned with the content purpose than the selection of methods (Creswell \& Plano Clark, 2011), Mills, Durepos, and Wiebe (2010) promote case study research as a design that can be relevant to any theoretical perspective.

When more than one case is involved, the research design is then considered a multiple case study (Fraenkel \& Wallen, 2009) which allows analysis not only within but also across contexts (Baxter \& Jack, 2008). A study constructed of multiple cases potentially strengthens theory by availing itself to wider and more
varied examination of an issue. This led Mills et al. (2010) to determine that they are more powerful than single-case designs.

Stake (1995) suggests that case studies may have different interests according to the needs of the research questions. One of these is the intrinsic interest where there is curiosity about a case for the sake of the case alone, understanding it from within rather than in using it to understand a wider situation. It is defined by Baxter and Jack (2008) to be a study designed to increase understanding of a case due to a particular interest in that case rather than a general phenomenon or a representation of other cases.

To answer the research questions a set of tools needed to be developed that could examine national policies and practice in the Middle East. Each participating country in the Middle East was considered a case with a bounded context made up of national and local policy, and local practice of education for children who are disabled. The phenomenon under study in each case was the status of inclusive education. With three countries participating, the study became a multiple case study because each different country comprised a complete case. The case studies were not intended for comparison, generalisation or representation. The research questions would be answered through analysis of the details revealed about each individual participating country. Therefore, an intrinsic approach was used and meant that each case was of stand-alone interest rather than selected with the intent of extrapolating results to the wider situation in the country or region.

### 3.5 RESEARCH SAMPLE

### 3.5.1 Population

The Middle East was selected as the location for this study with the intention of informing policy, particularly for education in Iraq. This focus arose because the researcher resided there and was interested in the context of policy to support inclusive education in the region (Chesterton, 2010). The participating countries
within the Middle East were identified using the method of convenience sampling whereby settings are chosen "that are conveniently available and willing to participate in the study" (Onwuegbuzie \& Collins, 2007, p. 286).

In considering the number of countries in the Middle East region to include in the study, it was found that a similar German research study involved 16 states within one country (Sozialverband Deutschland, 2009) and another study involving 10 countries in the European Union had been carried out using the same approach (European Association of Service Providers for Persons with Disabilities, 2009). Involving all the Middle Eastern countries was not considered feasible within the confines of this study and it was decided through the process of the research proposal to narrow the selection down to three countries.

There is not a standard agreement on which countries make up the region of the Middle East. Traditionally it is considered to be made up of about 18 countries and according to the Encyclopædia Britannica (Middle East, 2014) it encompasses the southern and eastern shores of the Mediterranean Sea down through the Arabian Peninsula and as far east as Iran. The United Nations, while often mentioning the Middle East or the Arab States in reports, officially recognises the region as Western Asia (United Nations, 2011b). The World Bank considers the Middle East and North Africa as one region referred to as MENA and thus also including Algeria, Djibouti, Morocco, and Tunisia (The World Bank, 2014). For the purposes of this study, the Middle East encompasses the 17 countries as indicated in Table 3-1.

Table 3-1: Countries in the Middle East

(Middle East, 2014; National Geographic; The World Bank, 2014; United Nations, 2011b)

With results particularly intended to influence Iraqi policy making, Iraq was selected by default. Two levels of filter were used to select the other two countries for participation. The first filter had the criteria of 1) language and 2) ease of access from Iraq for the researcher. Language was considered important as the questionnaires and interviews would be translated into Arabic for use in Iraq so for the purposes of consistency, it made sense for other selected countries to also be Arabic speaking. Furthermore, any results or reports could also be translated into Arabic and distributed to all participating countries. Access to other countries from

Iraq was considered as important since it would enable the possibility of physical follow-up if required and also increase the opportunity for future educational exchanges or cooperation between participating countries. In Table 3-2 it can be seen that six countries met the criteria of having direct flights available and being predominantly Arabic speaking. On the recommendation of the ethics committee, it was decided that Syria should be removed from the list due to the ongoing violence and political situation at the time of the study.

Table 3-2: Participating country selection

|  | Country | Language | Arabic speaking | Direct flight availability | Selected |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 1 | Bahrain | Arabic | Y | Y | $\checkmark$ |
| 2 | Cyprus | Greek, Turkish |  |  |  |
| 3 | Egypt | Arabic | Y | Y | $\checkmark$ |
| 4 | Iran | Persian |  | Y |  |
| 5 | Iraq | Arabic, Kurdish, Assyrian | Y | - | Default |
| 6 | Israel | Hebrew, Arabic | Y |  |  |
| 7 | Jordan | Arabic | Y | Y | $\checkmark$ |
| 8 | Kuwait | Arabic | Y |  |  |
| 9 | Lebanon | Arabic | Y | Y | $\checkmark$ |
| 10 | Oman | Arabic | Y |  |  |
| 11 | Palestine | Arabic | Y |  |  |
| 12 | Qatar | Arabic | Y |  |  |
| 13 | Saudi Arabia | Arabic | Y |  |  |
| 14 | Syria | Arabic | Y | Y | ( $\checkmark$ ) |
| 15 | Turkey | Turkish |  |  |  |
| 16 | United Arab Emirates | Arabic | Y | Y | $\checkmark$ |
| 17 | Yemen | Arabic | Y |  |  |

A second level of filter was designed to distinguish the countries from each other by identifying their differences (Table 3-3).

Table 3-3: Diversity criteria

|  | $\begin{aligned} & \text { E } \\ & \text { O} \\ & \text { B00 } \\ & \text { By } \end{aligned}$ | $\begin{aligned} & \text { H } \\ & \text { H0 } \\ & \text { O} \\ & 0 \\ & 0 \\ & 0 \end{aligned}$ |  |  | E 0 0 0 U In |  |  |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Bahrain | Amirs |  | $\checkmark$ |  | $\begin{gathered} \text { High } \\ \text { income } \end{gathered}$ | 1919 | 1,262,000 | 760.0 |
| Egypt |  | $\checkmark$ |  | $\checkmark$ | Lower middle income | $\begin{gathered} \mathrm{BC} \\ 19^{\text {th }} \\ \text { century } \end{gathered}$ | 81,121,000 | 995,450.0 |
| Iraq (default) |  | $\checkmark$ |  | $\checkmark$ | Lower middle income | 1921 | 31,672,000 | 434,320.0 |
| Jordan | King |  | $\checkmark$ |  | Upper middle income | 1920 S | 6,187,000 | 88,780.0 |
| Lebanon |  | $\checkmark$ | $\checkmark$ |  | Upper middle income |  | 4,228,000 | 10,230.0 |
| UAE | Amirs |  | $\checkmark$ |  | $\begin{aligned} & \text { High } \\ & \text { income } \end{aligned}$ | 1960 s | 7,512,000 | 83,600.0 |

This filter would identify countries that were most dissimilar from each other by having the most points of difference. Dissimilarity was believed to be useful in providing a wider range of results and richer data. After initial attempts at contacting countries elicited only one response, this second level of filter was applied (Figure 3-2). Through this process, three countries, including Iraq, were selected to serve as individual cases to be studied.


Figure 3-2: Filters for Selecting Participating Countries

The final sample of three countries, Bahrain, Iraq and Jordan represents $17 \%$ of the countries in the Middle East. However, in saying this, it is not intended that results be generalised to the wider Middle East. While national level results represent the situation of each country as a whole, further data collection would need to take place in order to have an indication of the situation of the Middle East as a whole. Local level results are also only indicators and also cannot be generalised.

### 3.5.2 Participants

With its focus on barriers to participation, a social model of disability thinking suggests that research and the unequal power relationship between the researcher and the researched can serve to further marginalise people who are disabled (Stone \& Priestley, 1996). In designing research on issues surrounding disability in line with the social model, the growing call for inclusive research must be considered (Walmsley, 2001, 2004). The call is for a move away from experts making decisions for a medically defined group, to research whereby those for whom it is conducted are active participants (Christensen \& James, 2000; Croft, 2010). Also called participatory research or collaboration research, the basis is that research is conducted 'with' rather than 'on' (Creswell, 2013) and for some it is taken further to a call for control (Barnes, 2003). Such a position has been resonated in the catch phrase "nothing about us without us" (Harrison, Johnson, Hiller, \& Strong, 2001, p. 63). This could mean that a study on inclusive education for children who are disabled should actively involve children who are disabled themselves, thus requiring the researcher to find ways of meaningfully empowering them. However, with no promise of follow up programmes or services after the inclusive research, Stalker (1998) considers those who are disabled vulnerable to false expectations; in addition, research without direct benefit is said to be unethical with participants who may have a lower capacity to consent (Dye, Hendy, Hare, \& Burton, 2004). Nind (2011) expresses disappointment that inclusive approaches have been rarely used for research on inclusive education, but Barnes (2003) claims that even when it has taken place, there have been little resulting political outcomes. "The researcher must be judged by the practical relevance of her/his research to the lives
of research participants. In line with the social model, relevance means the identification and removal of disabling social and physical barriers" (Stone \& Priestley, 1996, p. 6). Barton (1998) also calls for relevance and in addition, outcomes which are transformative.

Fraser (2004) puts forward an alternative response to the previously mentioned perception shift from a medical model to a social model suggesting that it actually requires less focus on individuals and their disabilities, and more on the behaviour of society. "It is not disabled people who need to be examined but able-bodied society; it is not a case of educating disabled and able-bodied people for integration, but of fighting institutional disablism" (Oliver, 1992, p. 112). Sullivan (2009) also points out that disability studies have changed from once studying people and their impairments to analysing disabling society.

When aligning social model theory and policy theory it is apparent that there is great potential for policy to contribute to the enablement or disablement of people with impairments. Policies are considered by Mousley, Rice and Tregenza (1993) to reflect the perceptions of people and culture. It could be said that in light of the research questions, policy is the subject and thus, to be inclusive research, it should directly involve policy-makers and other such informants to ensure their voice is represented. In accordance with the social model of disability, policy-makers and professionals working in the field of inclusive education were considered to be some of the most influential in charting the course of inclusive education and thus impacting the degree to which education is accessible and enabling for children with impairments. Therefore, the approach selected for this study was to assess the inclusiveness of education policy by gathering data through 'key informants' in the field who would report on their understanding of the situation and provide their interpretation of documentation, practice and possibilities.

In each country, key informants were identified to provide insight, information, comments, ratings and evaluation of the inclusive education situation. Initial
contact with the participating countries served to identify suitably qualified informants to provide information and documentation, answer questionnaires, and be interviewed. Organisations working with people who are disabled were the first point of contact. Four key organisations were identified which are well represented in the Middle East region. The process followed was to seek out international organisations with presence or membership across the largest number of countries in the Middle East, to attempt contact with all the local member branches or organisations, then to follow through with contact made until participants were nominated and agreed to participate. The organisations deemed to have wide authentic representation across the field were Handicap International, Inclusion International, Mobility International, and Rehabilitation International. These organisations nominated further local organisations, who directly nominated key informants. The involvement of the organisations was desirable due to their local knowledge and involvement, but to avoid any conflicts of interest, it was preferable that the participants nominated were not on their membership. When five key people had been identified from each country, contact continued directly with these individuals via email and phone. They were sent the appropriate questionnaire or interview along with an information sheet and consent form (see Appendix E, Appendix F, Appendix G, Appendix H, and Appendix I).

Key informants were all individuals professionally involved in the field of education and with education of children who are disabled. Some were government officials; others were leaders in the field with access to policy and statistics. All were educational professionals or academics. Two such people were nominated from each country. Due to the nature of the data to be collected (described later in section 3.6.2) key informants were sought who represented two levels of authority: national/regional and local. Three school principals were also identified to complete a questionnaire. Figure 3-3 displays the process followed to identify key informants as a result of which the following key informants were identified for each case (country):

- One key informant able to represent either a national or regional perspective on inclusive education.
- One key informant able to represent a local level perspective on inclusive education.
- Three school principals.


Figure 3-3: Process of identifying key informants

### 3.6 DATA GATHERING

### 3.6.1 Replication

A multiple case study calls for data to be gathered from multiple sources within a bonded context (Baxter \& Jack, 2008; Ivankova et al., 2006). A set of tools with such a role must be comprehensive and robust. Replication of an existing toolkit can be used as an extension of a previous work. It involves testing then rejecting, modifying or verifying a research method that has been previously used (La Sorte, 1972). Fraenkel and Wallen (2009) suggest that using tools that have already been
developed is the preferred approach primarily because of the time and skill involved in developing new tools. Replication however, can serve a greater goal than just the needs of the researcher. Indeed, according to La Sorte (1972) two or more sets of findings from the same set of tools offer the opportunity of new conclusions and verification of the method and the theory.

The three guiding research questions provide three different dimensions through which to consider inclusive education in each case study (Table 3-4). These are 1) Education Policy and Legislation, 2) Practice of Inclusive Education, and 3) Progression towards Inclusive Education.

Table 3-4: The research dimensions aligned with the guiding research questions

| Guiding research questions | Research Dimensions |
| :--- | :--- |
| What opportunities for inclusive education can <br> be found in national education policies? | Policy <br> - Education Policy and Legislation |
| What type and amount of access to schooling <br> for children who are disabled is taking place? | Practice <br> - Practice of Inclusive Education |
| What progress is being made towards inclusive <br> education? | Progress <br> - Progression towards Inclusive Education |

Rather than designing a new set of tools, some that had previously been developed to answer similar questions were identified. This was a study based in Europe which lent itself to replication on an international level (Zentrum für Planung und Evaluation, 2009).

A project called 'Pathways to Inclusion' (P2i) was developed by a consortium of experts from eleven European partner organisations (Dorrance \& Schädler, 2012; European Association of Service Providers for Persons with Disabilities, 2009). The project sought to produce an overview of inclusive education in education policies in 10 European countries. The toolkit for the project was designed by a research group at the University of Siegen (2011). Development followed a process of drafting by a group from the University of Siegen considered the lead partner,
revision by the consortium, trialling in three countries to produce a second and then a final draft (Schädler, Rohrmann, \& Franzkowiak, 2009). The final draft was implemented in all 10 partner countries and the results disseminated at a conference in September 2012 (European Association of Service Providers for Persons with Disabilities, 2012a). The consortium is described in the report as a partnership consisting of representatives from 10 states of the European Union (Austria, Belgium, Finland, France, Germany, Hungary, Ireland, The Netherlands, Portugal and Slovenia), two universities were involved (Fontys-OSO: The Netherlands, University of Siegen: Germany) and eight other service providers (Dorrance \& Schädler, 2012). These efforts were a project led by the European Association of Service Providers for Persons with Disabilities (EASPD) and funded by the European Commission Lifelong Learning Programme (Comenius) of Directorate General for Education and Culture. The Pathways to Inclusion project developed questionnaires and interviews to comprise the toolkit that was for use along with an 'inclusion barometer'. Originally developed in Germany (Sozialverband Deutschland, 2009) as the Inclusion Barometer (Bildungsbarometer Inklusion) and found effective in mobilising change, the Pathways to Inclusion Toolkit (P2i Toolkit) they utilised is based on an international framework so required little adaptation. There are potential future benefits in keeping the P2i Toolkit standardised. Replicating a toolkit found effective in other countries, while not only increasing reliability and validity, also affords the opportunity of a platform for future wider sharing of experiences between the Middle East and Europe.

The value of this replication is primarily for verification on the level of the theoretical approach. The Pathways to Inclusion project developed a toolkit for countries to use in their monitoring process in relation to Article 24 of the United Nations Convention on the Rights of Persons with Disabilities (European Association of Service Providers for Persons with Disabilities, 2009). The UNCRPD is said to have some innovative features and opportunities included in the monitoring framework beyond the typical monitoring approaches (Hernandez,

2008; Lewis, 2010). One of these is peer review, or reverse reporting which involves external monitoring, fact finding and inspections (Stein \& Lord, 2010; United Nations, 2006c). Monitoring is even encouraged to combine state and nonstate reporting reviewed by a neutral third party. Through these methods, monitoring moves beyond 'self-reporting' to involve external regulation and a deeper level of exchange. The P2i Toolkit has been successfully trialled in Europe to facilitate such a monitoring approach (Dorrance \& Schädler, 2012) and is proposed to be trialled in some West African countries (Schädler, personal communication, September 30, 2011). Application of the toolkit in the Middle East would further contribute to the theory and shared experience of the toolkit towards it becoming an internationally effective and relevant monitoring tool for Article 24 of the convention. Indeed the developers encourage documentation of wider experiences with the P2i Toolkit due to its value as a tool for ongoing monitoring of the United Nations convention (Schädler, personal communication, October 5, 2011). Therefore, replication of this toolkit without too much significant modification ensured this research could contribute to the experience bank.

### 3.6.2 P2i Toolkit

Under transformative theory, there is not a preferred method for gathering data; what is important is the spirit by which the data gathering is approached then analysed (Creswell \& Plano Clark, 2011; Stone \& Priestley, 1996). When interested in a certain aspect of a case study, survey research can be a tool with targeted questions designed to investigate and seek out trends in the population (Mills et al., 2010). Questions are most commonly asked through questionnaires or guided interviews. Questionnaires are generally found to involve a form which participants complete and return. Further questions or probing questions are not usually involved. Interviews, on the other hand, allow direct interaction and can be a rich source of information (Mills et al., 2010).

Questionnaires and interviews were the tools that had been developed to make up the P2i Toolkit that is being replicated and the researcher was confident that they
would provide the array of data necessary for a comprehensive analysis of the situation of each country. The P2i Toolkit consists of six data gathering tools including questionnaires and interviews. The original P2i project developed 14 Indicators to frame the toolkit (Dorrance \& Schädler, 2012). Indicators were deducted primarily from the rights to education laid out in Article 24, and also from Articles 4, 8 and 33 (see Table 3-5).

Table 3-5: Indicators derived from the UNCRPD

| $\#$ | Indicator | Source in UNCRPD |
| :---: | :--- | :--- |
| 1 | ...inclusive education on preschool, primary <br> school and secondary level | Article 24, section 2a |
| 2 | ...free primary inclusive education | Article 24, section 2a,b |
| 3 | ...equal access to regular schools in the <br> community | Article 24, section 2b |
| 4 | ...equal access to tertiary education | Article 24, section 5 |
| 5 | ..participation in decision making on inclusive <br> education | Article 7, section 3 |
| 6 | ...assessment procedures supportive of inclusive <br> education | Article 24, section 1b |
| 7 | ...accommodation of individual access and <br> learning requirements (architectural) | Article 24, section 2c, d,e |
| 8 | ...accommodation of individual access and <br> learning requirements (personal/technical) | Article 24, section 2c, d,e |
| 9 | ...accommodation of educational measures | Article 24, section 2c, d,e |
| 10 | ...facilitation of learning of Braille, sign language <br> and other forms of communication and <br> orientation | Article 24, section 3 |
| 11 | ...training of teachers and staff and employment <br> of qualified teachers | Article 24, section 4 |
| 12 | ...monitoring of inclusive education | Article 33, section 2 |
| 13 | ...activities of professional associations and <br> measures for awareness raising of governments | Article 8 |
| 14 | ...perspectives on progression of inclusive <br> education | Article 4, section 2 |

These were structured as questionnaires and interviews designed to lead to a rating that has been called a 'Barometer Assessment' of the status of inclusive education in each country. The questionnaires and interviews are included in full English and Arabic format in Appendix L-T. The following table (Table 3-6) provides an overview of the questionnaires and interviews contained in the P2i Toolkit and indicates which dimension they relate to, whether their focus is national, regional or local level, who the respondents are, and what method of completion was used.

Table 3-6: Overview of all Questionnaires and Interviews in the P2i Toolkit

|  | Dimension |  |  | Level |  | Respondent |  |  |  | Method of completion |  |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Tools | $\begin{aligned} & \text { 总 } \\ & \stackrel{0}{2} \\ & \hline \end{aligned}$ | $\begin{aligned} & \ddot{0} \\ & \ddot{\ddot{y y}} \\ & \text { H. } \end{aligned}$ |  |  | $\begin{aligned} & \text { ت్ర } \\ & \text { O- } \end{aligned}$ |  |  |  |  |  | 荘 |  |
| Legislation Questionnaire A | $\checkmark$ |  | $\checkmark$ |  |  | $\checkmark$ |  |  |  | $\checkmark$ |  |  |
| Policy Questionnaire B1 | $\checkmark$ |  | $\checkmark$ | $\checkmark$ |  |  | $\checkmark$ |  |  |  | $\checkmark$ |  |
| Policy Questionnaire B2 | $\checkmark$ |  | $\checkmark$ | $\checkmark$ |  |  | $\checkmark$ |  |  |  | $\checkmark$ |  |
| Policy Questionnaire B3 | $\checkmark$ |  | $\checkmark$ |  | $\checkmark$ |  |  | $\checkmark$ |  |  | $\checkmark$ |  |
| National Education <br> Landscape Questionnaire C1 |  | $\checkmark$ |  | $\checkmark$ |  |  | $\checkmark$ |  |  |  | $\checkmark$ |  |
| National Education Landscape Questionnaire C2 |  |  | $\checkmark$ | $\checkmark$ |  |  | $\checkmark$ |  |  |  | $\checkmark$ |  |
| School Questionnaire D |  | $\checkmark$ | $\checkmark$ |  | $\checkmark$ |  |  |  | $\checkmark$ |  | $\checkmark$ |  |
| Local Education Landscape Interview E |  | $\checkmark$ | $\checkmark$ |  | $\checkmark$ |  |  | $\checkmark$ |  |  |  | $\checkmark$ |
| Interview F |  | $\checkmark$ | $\checkmark$ |  | $\checkmark$ |  |  | $\checkmark$ |  |  |  | $\checkmark$ |

### 3.6.3 Legislation Questionnaire A

This tool is a checklist eliciting information about statutory legislation (see Appendix L). It is completed by the researcher and used to systematically review policy and legislation documents. The documents for each country were obtained through an internet search or provided by the key informants and included the following:

- Constitution
- Disability Law
- Disability Strategy
- Education Law
- Education Strategy
- Inclusive Education Law
- Inclusive Education Strategy

Eighteen questions required a yes/no answer supported by references and comments to support or clarify the response given. Following is a sample question from this questionnaire.

Legislation Questionnaire A Question 7
By statutory legislation, it is assured that the architectural
$\square$-Yes conditions are accommodated to individual's requirements $\square$ - No References: Comments:

### 3.6.4 Policy Questionnaire B

Policy Questionnaire B is made up of three questionnaires. Questionnaire B1 is completed by national level key informants to assess national policy (see Appendix M). Questionnaire B2 (see Appendix N) was used to replace B1 in the case of Iraq where the focus was on a regional level rather than national and is completed by the regional level key informant. This focus was chosen for Iraq and specifically the Kurdish region of Iraq. The Kurdish region has unique legislation, policy, and an autonomous Ministry of Education to the extent that curriculum and the structure of education are all determined at the regional level (more detail is given in Chapter 4, section 4.3). A third questionnaire, Policy Questionnaire B3 (see Appendix O), was completed by local level key informants to elicit information about local level policy. All three versions of the questionnaire were similar with questions varying slightly according to each policy level. Responses were given using a six step Likert scale with one being negatively connoted and six positively (Trochim, 2000). The sample below shows question 5 and how it was worded differently in each different questionnaire.

Policy Questionnaire B1 National level 5.By legislation, persons with disabilities are to receive the support required, within the general education system, to facilitate their effective education

Policy Questionnaire B2 Regional level
5.By regional legislation, persons with disabilities are to receive the support required, within the general education system, to facilitate their effective education

## Policy Questionnaire B3 Local level

5.Appropriate classroom conditions (size, teacher and therapeutical support, equipment and assistive technologies) can be made available in inclusive settings according to the children's individual needs

### 3.6.5 National Education Landscape Questionnaire C

This tool consists of two checklists that are designed to elicit information about the national education landscape and are both completed by the national level key
informant. The first questionnaire (see Appendix P) focuses on the current situation (practice dimension) and the other (see Appendix Q) progression towards inclusion (progress dimension). The checklists use a four-point rating scale for the responses with various wording according to the type of question but with one always negatively connoted and four positive. The two questionnaires are similar but worded slightly differently according to whether the focus is the practice or progress dimension as seen in the following sample of question 14.


Key informants completing the questionnaire were also encouraged to provide references or comments to support or clarify the rating they give.

### 3.6.6 School Questionnaire D

A questionnaire is used as a survey tool for completion by principals of schools (see Appendix R). Responses to questions provided details of the school, statistics surrounding the inclusion of pupils who are disabled, and the conditions of the school. Question format includes multiple-choice, yes/no, numerical, rating, and open questions allowing for a range of different types of data and a total of 27 questions. The following sample shows some of the questions in the questionnaire.
14. Are you aware of inquiries in terms of the admission of persons with disabilities that have been rejected during the past five years?
[ ]a Yes []b No
19. The essential personal and material prerequisites need to be met to realise inclusion. What are the most urgent necessities for change in your organization with regard to the inclusion of persons with disabilities?
25. How do you value the political commitment of the most important policy-makers in your area to implement an inclusive education as a regular system?
Rather low [ ]1 [ ]2 [ ]3 [ ]4 Rather high

### 3.6.7 Local Education Landscape Interview E

This tool is a semi-structured interview conducted with a local informant (see Appendix S). It is made up of seven main topic questions with sub-questions or prompts to guide the interviewer. Most of the questions are open questions using 'What/How/Which/Who' structure. A structured introduction is also included. The following sample includes two sample questions from the interview.
5. Which agencies/organizations in this district are most relevant for developing inclusive education in your field? How do you cooperate with them?
7. Do you think it is realistic for your region that in 10 years $80-90 \%$ of all pupils with special needs are taught in regular schools?

### 3.6.8 Typical Learning Career Interview F

With quite a different approach to all the other tools, interview F for use with the local key informant is used to present the situation of three different pupils which the education system may come across (see Appendix T). In the interview, hypothetical students are introduced and the interviewee is asked to describe what the expected typical learning career for each student might look like in their area. The following sample is one of the sample students in the interview.

Mary: 5 years old, Down-Syndrome. She has severe cognitive impairments and needs support in many activities in daily life.

### 3.6.9 Modification

With the P2i Toolkit based on an international framework, replication could take place with only slight adaptations for application in the Middle Eastern context. The Indicators derived from the United Nations Convention on Disability (United Nations, 2006a) remained unchanged as they serve as an international point of reference. Related questions were only modified as deemed necessary to increase clarity during the process of translation from English to Arabic. An example of this is replacing "community schools" with "schools in their area".

### 3.6.10 Translation

The P2i Toolkit consisting of six tools was translated from English to Arabic by a qualified translator in Iraq. This was then reviewed by a process of 'back translation' where documents were re-translated back into English by a different translator to ensure that the meaning has been maintained (Brislin, 1970). Brislin found that this process assisted in ensuring that the translated version was equivalent to the original. Also recommended by Brislin are two other measures that were taken to validate the translation. These were ensuring the translator was familiar with the type of content and pretesting the translated copy both for grammar and meaning with a monolingual checker. A four-step procedure presented by Brislin can be seen below (Figure 3-4).

(Modified from Brislin, 1970, p. 213)

Figure 3-4: Four step translation checking procedure
A translator also worked with the researcher throughout the data collection process to facilitate ongoing contact with key informants and then during analysis to compile and review the data.

### 3.7 Trustworthiness

Trustworthiness of the research tool is traditionally composed of validity and reliability. Validity is concerned with ensuring that the tools used measure what they set out to measure, and reliability is about the consistency of the results (Fraenkel \& Wallen, 2009). Within a transformative research paradigm, the researcher is openly biased towards a particular ideology. This runs up against the objectivity and neutrality generally expected from traditional research methodologies and places it beyond the common rules and boundaries that contribute to trustworthiness (Lather, 1986). Just using the term 'bias' immediately connotes a deviation from validity. Lincoln, Lynham, and Guba (2011) suggest that
under this alternative paradigm, validity must be totally reconceived. They say that "validity is found in the ability of the knowledge to become transformative" (Lincoln et al., 2011, p. 114). What also needs to be considered in this research is that political motivation can pose a danger to the authenticity of the data. This is because the enthusiasms and biases of the researcher, although acknowledged, run the risk of interfering in the collection and analysis of the evidence (Lenzo, 1995). Because of the potential political and policy actions that the results aim to influence, it could be argued that ensuring authenticity of the results is even more critical. Transformative researchers, in a bid to maintain equal credibility for their results, have attempted to develop systematic approaches to establish trustworthiness of data (Denzin \& Lincoln, 2005).

One such approach, construct validity, questions whether the tools measure the theoretical concept adequately and has been put forward as a method of validation useful for both transformative research and mixed methods (Dellinger \& Leech, 2007; Lather, 1986). To determine this, the toolkit can be reviewed in terms of its foundation, its history, and the consequences of the data.

To ensure the reliability of the resulting data, triangulation is the most widely recommended method (Lather, 1986; Lenzo, 1995). Using more than one method to gather data is described by Denzin (2006) as methodological triangulation. Triangulation draws on the metaphor from navigation where more than one reference point is used to locate an object (Jick, 1979). According to O'Donoghue and Punch (2003), this is a way in which data from different sources is crosschecked to search for regularities and irregularities. Triangulation in case study research is promoted by Baxter and Jack (2008) as it allows for viewing and exploring the phenomena from many angles. Lather (1986) believes that triangulation can act as a defence against researcher bias. Sale, Lohfeld and Brazil (2002) warn however, that results from qualitative methods cannot be triangulated with those from quantitative because they examine different phenomena or at least different dimensions. They say that the data can only be used for complementary
purposes. Indeed, it is clear that the value of triangulation in the case of complex social phenomenon is in how it adds depth and breadth, and adds to the completeness of the investigation (Mills et al., 2010). Triangulation offers a broadening of understanding of a phenomenon rather than merely confirmation of a single explanation.

Three aspects of the P2i Toolkit contribute to its trustworthiness in terms of construct validity. These are the widespread acceptance of the theoretical concept (foundation), the decision to use a previously tested toolkit (history), and the outcomes of its use (consequences).

There is little remaining debate surrounding the appropriateness of the rights basis of 'inclusive education'. The UNCRPD is considered the most current set of international standards for ensuring access to human rights for people who are disabled. Access to education is one of these standards and Article 24 lays out best practice through the approach termed inclusive education (United Nations, 2006a). The toolkit that was developed for the P2i study considers the UNCRPD to be the normative basis for inclusive education from which they derived 14 detailed Indicators (Dorrance \& Schädler, 2012). Table 3-5 showed the source articles in the UNCRPD from which each Indicator was developed. These Indicators were then used by the developers to frame the questionnaires and interviews. This approach contributes significantly to construct validity as the concept of inclusive education and the resulting Indicators have been recognised and standardised on a global level and the original articles are also used for reporting against by countries that have ratified the convention.

The validity of the questions used is increased when it is noted how broad the input was into its development and testing. The European project group listed 23 members from 10 European countries with representation from universities and service providers who were involved in drafting, reviewing and testing the original

P2i Toolkit. Replicating such a toolkit also puts this research in the unique position of confidence.

Another factor critical to construct validity is the consequences of the results. This is particularly significant when validity is reconceptualised under the transformative paradigm to be necessarily influential towards change. The positive outcomes which the use of the P2i Toolkit prompted in Germany are a strong indicator of its validity (Sozialverband Deutschland, 2009). It has purportedly highlighted insufficiencies, sparked political debate, and brought the issues under the spotlight of the media. The study conducted in Europe also verified the usability of the P2i Toolkit, claiming that it lent itself to being used on a regular basis (Dorrance \& Schädler, 2012). While it is too soon to determine the wider impact in Europe, the conference held at the conclusion of the study (13th - 14th September 2012 Budapest, Hungary) resulted in a collective manifesto including recommendations for stakeholders, policy-makers and politicians, and organisations (European Association of Service Providers for Persons with Disabilities, 2012b).

Reliability of the findings in this study was increased with the data lending itself to triangulation. The opinions and comments of the two different key informants (national/regional and local), the three school principals and the policy documents were able to be compared to increase the reliability of the results. As part of the analysis process additional documents were also used to cross-check the claims of the key informants. These additional documents included government reports, statistics, analyses, and other research studies related to education and the inclusion of students who are disabled (see Step 4 of the analysis, section 3.8.4).

### 3.8 Analysis

Analysis is primarily a process of generating meaning from the data collected. Data must first be deconstructed, scrutinised and reorganised (Mills et al., 2010). After
this follows an exercise of converging and integrating the data from the various sources in an attempt to answer the research questions (Baxter \& Jack, 2008). Analysis of a mixed method transformative research study must be conscious of two important factors. The first is that the process of triangulation must be cautious to avoid accentuating any weaknesses and should capitalise on the strengths of the methods used (Johnson \& Onwuegbuzie, 2004; Onwuegbuzie \& Teddlie, 2003). To do this, Onwuegbuzie and Teddlie propose a framework of analysis composed of seven distinct steps as listed in the first column of Table 3-7.

Table 3-7: Framework of Analysis

| Step | Definition | Applied to this study |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| 1. Data reduction | Reducing dimensionality of data | Responses reduced from <br> data gathering tools <br> (rating scales, yes/no, <br> numerical, comments, <br> response choice) |
| 2. Data display | Pictorially describing the data | Pattern matching |
| 3. Data transformation | Converting qualitative data into <br> numerical codes and quantitative <br> data into narrative | Data coding (convert all <br> data to 4-point scale) |
| 4. Data correlation | Correlating data | Triangulation within data <br> groups |
| 5. Data consolidating | Combining data into new data <br> groups | Data set coding <br> (barometer) |
| 6. Data comparison | Comparing data within data | Data set strength <br> identification |
| 7. Data integration | Integrating all data | Indicator based report |

(Modified from Onwuegbuzie \& Teddlie, 2003, p. 375)

Secondly, according to the transformative paradigm the intention of the analysis is to produce politically useable results (Barnes, 2003; Barton, 1998). While some say that caution must be taken to ensure that all intentions are overt and research is not used as a cover for promoting a political agenda (Brunskell-Evans, Mcdonald, Moore, \& Slee, 2012), Barnes (2003) believes that the integrity of the research is maintained if political aims are clearly stated right from the start. Therefore, consistent with the deliberate motivation of transformative research, the design of
the analysis and the way in which the results are presented need "to be intertwined with politics and a political agenda" (Creswell, 2013, p. 9).

The P2i Toolkit used in this study as stated by the developer was not designed to "produce scientifically objective knowledge" (Zentrum für Planung und Evaluation, 2009, p. 1), but rather politically significant information. Analysis has the goal of promoting the processes of implementing inclusive education. The results were collated and analysed in a manner which is relevant to policy-makers in that 1) they link directly to Indicators derived from the UNCRPD that should be represented in policy, and 2) they are framed in terms of recommendations or identifications of good practice. This presents the opportunity for policy-makers to expand or replicate good practice, acting directly on recommendations, or initiating political debate around the issues raised and in line with the Indicators.

Analysis of the data followed the framework (previously described in Table 3-7) which was proposed by Onwuegbuzie and Teddlie (2003) for mixed method studies. The third column of the same table (Table 3-7) sets out how the steps in the framework were put into practice and the following sections provide further supporting theory and details of how each step in this analysis took place.

### 3.8.1 Data reduction (Step 1)

Stake (1995) suggests that case studies with an intrinsic interest in each case for their own sake, call for the analysis approach termed 'direct interpretation'. This involves considering each piece of data, "trying to pull it apart and put it back together more meaningfully" (Stake, 1995, p. 75). It is the complexity of the data that is of interest in understanding each case rather than an aggregation of multiple instances of similar data. Yin (2009) also points out that this is the stage when the clutter of the data can be reduced as the theoretical perspective guides as to which data is of interest and which can be ignored.

Data from all various sources which included reported statistics, responses to questionnaires and interviews and comments were all considered carefully to identify their meaning in accordance with the Indicators. This required a 'pulling apart' and deconstruction of sets of data into individual pieces ready for analysis. Detailed packets of data were reduced to rating scales, selected comments, yes/no responses, numerical, and multiple-choice.

### 3.8.2 Data display (Step 2)

With complex data, a method of organisation is called for. 'Pattern Matching' is an approach advocated by Yin (2009) to bring order to a large amount of unpacked data. As seen in Figure 3-5, this requires a process of aligning the empirical pattern as found through data collection with a predetermined theoretical pattern and identifying how closely they align. This can reveal the degree of success in implementing a planned strategy (Trochim, 1985). In pattern matching it is possible to maintain the detail and richness of the data, yet organise it in a way so as to increase the opportunity for interpreting meaning.


Figure 3-5: Pattern Matching

The P2i Toolkit used in this study produced a wealth of data. Direct interpretation of the data obtained was not done randomly or without context. The 'pattern matching' strategy as suggested by Yin (2009) and Trochim (1985) was used to compare the real (what is happening, the findings in this study) with the ideal (what should be happening, the Indicators derived from the UNCRPD). The UNCRPD provides a fully developed normative basis for the rights of inclusive education. Article 24 of the UNCRPD was considered the theoretical 'pattern' or ideal against which the data from participating countries would be compared. The
original developers of the P2i Toolkit specified 14 Indicators which they believed to accurately represent the intentions of the UNCRPD in terms of inclusive education for children who are disabled (Dorrance \& Schädler, 2012). Appendix A shows which section of the UNCRPD each Indicator was derived from. Table 3-8 unpacks the Indicators in line with the three guiding research questions from the perspectives of policy, practice and progress effectively creating three groups of similar Indicators. The ' $x$ ' specifies where an Indicator was not relevant to that particular dimension and guiding research question.

Table 3-8: Expanded Indicators

| \# | Policy prefix | Practice prefix | Progress prefix | Indicator suffix |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 1 | There is consistency of legislation and prescriptions on... | Practice of... | Development of... | ...inclusive education on preschool, primary school and secondary level |
| 2 | Legislation ensures... | Practice of... | $x$ | ...free primary inclusive education |
| 3 | Legislation ensures... | Practice of... | Development of... | ...equal access to regular schools in the community |
| 4 | Legislation ensures... | Practice of... | Development of... | ...equal access to tertiary education |
| 5 | Legislation ensures... | Practice of... | Development of... | ...participation in decision making on inclusive education |
| 6 | Legislation ensures... | Practice of... | Development of... | ...assessment procedures supportive of inclusive education |
| 7 | Legislation ensures... | Practice of... | Development of... | ...accommodation of individual access and learning requirements (architectural) |
| 8 | Legislation ensures... | Practice of... | Development of... | ...accommodation of individual access and learning requirements (personal/technical) |
| 9 | Legislation ensures... | Practice of... | Development of... | ...accommodation of educational measures |
| 10 | Legislation ensures... | Practice of... | Development of... | ...facilitation of learning of Braille, sign language and other forms of communication and orientation |
| 11 | Legislation ensures... | Practice of... | Development of... | ...training of teachers and staff and employment of qualified teachers |
| 12 | Legislation ensures... | Practice of... | Development of... | ...monitoring of inclusive education |
| 13 | Legislation ensures... | Practice of... | Development of... | ...activities of professional associations and measures for awareness raising of governments |
| 14 | $x$ | $x$ | Development of... | ...perspectives on progression of inclusive education |

Each question in each questionnaire and interview was designed to elicit data in line with a particular Indicator. Therefore it was possible to develop a table showing the position within the 'pattern' of each piece of reduced data or each questionnaire or interview response (Table 3-9).

Table 3-9: Pattern Matching with the Indicators

Key: | A=Legislation Questionnaire |  |
| ---: | :--- |
|  | B=Policy Questionnaire |
|  | C=National Education Landscape Questionnaire |
|  | D=School Questionnaire |
|  | E=Local Education Landscape Interview |
|  | F=Typical Learning Career Interview |

| \# | Indicator | Policy | Practice | Progress |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 1 | ...inclusive education on preschool, primary school and secondary level | $\begin{gathered} \text { A.1 } \\ \text { B1.1 B2.1, } \\ \text { B3.1 } \\ \text { B1.2, B2.2 } \\ \text { B3.3, B3.9 } \end{gathered}$ | $\begin{gathered} \text { C1.1, C1.2, C1.3 } \\ \text { D2,4,5,6,8,17 } \\ \text { E.3 } \\ \text { F.2,3,4 } \end{gathered}$ | $\begin{gathered} \text { C2.1,2,3 } \\ \text { C2.4 } \\ \text { D. } 7,17 \\ \text { E.2 } \\ \text { F.2,3,4,7 } \end{gathered}$ |
| 2 | ...free primary inclusive education | $\begin{gathered} \text { A. } 2 \\ \text { B1.3, B2. } \end{gathered}$ | C1.4 |  |
| 3 | ...equal access to regular schools in the community | $\begin{gathered} \text { A.3, A. } 6 \\ \text { B3.9 } \\ \text { B3.12 } \\ \hline \end{gathered}$ | $\begin{gathered} \text { C1.7 } \\ \text { D14,15,16 } \\ \text { F.1,5 } \end{gathered}$ | $\begin{aligned} & \hline \text { C2.7 } \\ & \text { D. } 16 \\ & \text { F.1,7 } \end{aligned}$ |
| 4 | ...equal access to tertiary education | $\begin{gathered} \text { A. } 17 \\ \text { B3. } 11 \end{gathered}$ | $\begin{gathered} \text { C1.18 } \\ \text { D.21,22 } \\ \text { E. } 4 \\ \text { F6 } \end{gathered}$ | $\begin{gathered} \text { C2.17,18 } \\ \text { F. } 6,7 \end{gathered}$ |
| 5 | ...participation in decision making on inclusive education | A. 4 | C1.5 | C2.5 |
| 6 | ...assessment procedures supportive of inclusive education | $\begin{gathered} \text { A. } 5 \\ \text { B1.8, B2.8 } \\ \text { B1.9, B2.9 } \\ \text { B3.4, B3.6, } \\ \text { B3.8, B3.12 } \end{gathered}$ | C1.6 | C2.6 |
| 7 | ...accommodation of individual access and learning requirements (architectural) | $\begin{gathered} \text { A.7, A. } 9 \\ \text { B1.4, B2.4 } \\ \text { B3.2 } \\ \text { B3.5 } \\ \hline \end{gathered}$ | $\begin{aligned} & \text { C1.8,10 } \\ & \text { D.18b,c } \end{aligned}$ | $\begin{gathered} \text { C2.8,10 } \\ \text { F. } 7 \end{gathered}$ |
| 8 | ...accommodation of individual access and learning requirements (personal/technical) | $\begin{gathered} \text { A.8, A.10, } \\ \text { A. } 11 \\ \text { B1.5, B2.5 } \\ \text { B3.5 } \\ \hline \end{gathered}$ | $\begin{gathered} \text { C1.9,11,12 } \\ \text { D.11,12,18a } \end{gathered}$ | $\begin{gathered} \text { C2.9,11,12 } \\ \text { D. } 19 \\ \text { F. } 7 \end{gathered}$ |
| 9 | ...accommodation of educational measures | $\begin{gathered} \text { A.12 } \\ \text { B1.6, B2.6 } \\ \text { B1.7, B2.7 } \\ \text { B3.7 } \\ \hline \end{gathered}$ | $\begin{gathered} \hline \text { C1.13 } \\ \text { D.9,10 } \end{gathered}$ | $\begin{gathered} \mathrm{C} 2.13 \\ \text { F. } 7 \end{gathered}$ |
| 10 | ...facilitation of learning of Braille, sign language and other | A.13, A. 14 | C1.14,15 | C2.14,15 |

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| Chapter 3: Methodology |  |  |  |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| \# | Indicator | Policy | Practice | Progress |
| forms of communication and orientation |  |  |  |  |
| 11 | ...training of teachers and staff and employment of qualified teachers | $\begin{gathered} \text { A.15, A. } 16 \\ \text { B1.10, B2.10 } \\ \text { B3.14 } \end{gathered}$ | C1.16,17 | C2.16 |
| 12 | ...monitoring of inclusive education | $\begin{gathered} \text { A. } 18 \\ \text { B3. } 13 \end{gathered}$ | C1.19 | C2.19 |
| 13 | ...activities of professional associations and measures for awareness raising of governments | $\begin{gathered} \text { B3.15, B3.3, } \\ \text { B3.10 } \end{gathered}$ | $\begin{aligned} & \hline \text { D. } 20 \\ & \text { E. } 5,6 \end{aligned}$ | $\begin{gathered} \hline \text { C2.20,21 } \\ \text { D. } 25 \\ \text { E.5,6 } \end{gathered}$ |
| 14 | ...perspectives on progression of inclusive education | x | x | $\begin{gathered} \text { C2.22 } \\ \text { B1.11, B2.11, B3.16 } \\ \text { D. } 26 \\ \text { E. } 7 \\ \hline \end{gathered}$ |

In this table, each piece of data is labelled using the question number as found in each questionnaire or interview. For example, question one in the Legislation Questionnaire (A) aligns with the first Indicator and the policy dimension, and question one in the first version of the National Education Landscape Questionnaire (C1.1) also aligns with Indicator number one but under the practice dimension (A. 1 is question 1 from Questionnaire A, and C1.1 is question 1 from Questionnaire C 1 ).

### 3.8.3 Data transformation (Step 3)

Rating scales are often used in coordinating responses and organising data. They involve a number of categories that can make results more meaningful. Ordinal scales are where there is an order to the data categories which indicate some sort of ranking, but not necessarily at equal intervals (Fraenkel \& Wallen, 2009). Although it has been pointed out that there can be outlying responses due to participant fatigue or rating of popular response categories (Liu, Wu, \& Zumbo, 2010), in general, ordinal scales are said to offer powerful results and reveal trends (Agresti, 2010).

In order to categorise data collected from questionnaires, interviews and documentation, a scale called the Inclusion Barometer, as designed for the P2i research (Dorrance \& Schädler, 2012), is used both to analyse and to present results. The Inclusion Barometer, originally developed for a study in Germany (Sozialverband Deutschland, 2009), is a four-point ordinal rating scale or a colour coding system used to rate the data against the Indicators found within the pattern (see Table 3-10). The four colours, the graphic or the rating number indicate the extent to which inclusive education as called for by the UNCRPD is supported or hindered with red representing the least supportive and dark green the most.

Table 3-10: Inclusion Barometer
Inclusion Barometer

Some of the data collected in this study directly corresponded with the Inclusion Barometer scale and other data had to be critically interpreted (see Appendix W) to determine the degree to which it hindered or supported implementation of the goals of the United Nations Convention. Data requiring interpretation included comments and responses to interview questions. Codes were assigned by the researcher according the numbering indicated in Table 3-10. To increase the dependability of this data transformation, double coding of the data groups took
place in that the data groups were recoded after a period of time to compare results (Baxter \& Jack, 2008).

### 3.8.4 Data correlation (Step 4)

The data groups created through the pattern matching approach resulted in groups of data representing different data sources but all related to the same Indicator. These data groups can be seen above in Table 3-9. At this point in analysis, the data groups are augmented with analysis of additional documentation. The additional documents sourced fell under the following categories:

- UNICEF annual reports
- United Nations Committee on the Rights of the Child, Country reports
- Millennium Development Goal Progress reports
- National Reports on the Development of Education
- Human rights reports
- UNCRPD reports
- Journal articles relevant to inclusive education
- Situation and Education reviews
- Research studies about education, disability, or inclusive education

Most of these documents were all publically available online through the publishers' websites (e.g. UNICEF reports are available through each UNICEF country website). Literature searches were performed using the 'Google Scholar' database to find relevant journal articles and research studies. A range of search terms were used to identify studies and articles specific to the three participating countries and the Middle East region and related to the following topics:

- Inclusive education
- Special education
- Children who are disabled
- Education for all
- Disability
- Human rights
- Education rights

Having more than one point of data in the data groups provided the opportunity for triangulation. Use of the Inclusion Barometer colour coding allowed ease in
comparison and triangulation of results. Through triangulation, data was reviewed for convergence, and any divergence allowed for further investigation.

### 3.8.5 Data consolidating (Step 5)

The next step in analysis involved combining the results of triangulation of data groups to determine an overall barometer rating for each data group. In this way, there would be one rating showing the degree of alignment to each individual Indicator. Because the rating scales were ordinal and thus the rankings could not be considered as equal intervals, the process of combining ratings followed a set of criteria rather than a calculation. The criteria developed for a group of ratings to be consolidated into a single rating is set out in Appendix B. Descriptive explanations are given in the findings to account for the ratings given. Figure 3-6 and Figure 3-7 give examples of how the criteria were used to consolidate a set of ratings into one overall rating.

Example 1: Indicator 1 data group, Progress Dimension


Figure 3-6: Example of the process for consolidating data for Indicator 1, progress dimension

Example 2: Indicator 13 Data group, Progress Dimension


C2=National Education Landscape Questionnaire D=School Questionnaire

Figure 3-7: Example of the process for consolidating data for Indicator 13, progress dimension

### 3.8.6 Data comparison (Step 6)

A further angle of analysis applied to the data was cross-relating it with a list of 'inclusiveness' strengths. While not exhaustive, a list of factors (the first column in Table 3-11) represents what was identified in the literature review (Chapter 2, sections 2.6-2.16) to be potential threats to the implementation of policy for inclusive education. These factors have been inverted and reconceptualised as factors potentially associated with successful implementation of inclusive education and the inclusiveness of education policy (the second column in Table 3-11). These factors are reviewed in detail in the literature review (Chapter 2). The data comparison step of analysis involved noting the links between the strengths identified through the barometer rating and the strengths reconceptualised from the literature review.

Table 3-11: Strengths in 'Inclusiveness of Education'

| Threats to inclusiveness of policy <br> (Chapter 2 Literature Review) | Reconceptualisation <br> of threats and strengths |
| :--- | :--- |
| 2.6 Philosophy embedded in policy documents | Inclusive philosophy |
| 2.7 The written document | Inclusive rhetoric |
| 2.8 Attitudes of teachers | Inclusive attitudes/behaviour |
| 2.9 Conflicting rights | Rights to inclusion |
| 2.10 Standards agenda | Rethinking effectiveness |
| 2.11 Categorising disability | Celebration of difference |
| 2.12 The expert model | Partnership |
| 2.13 The continuum of placements | Whole school for inclusion |
| 2.14 Resource distribution | Resource allocation |
| 2.15 The economics of inclusion | Funding allocation |
| 2.16 Shortage of Empirical evidence | Documentation of inclusive practice |

### 3.8.7 Data integration (Step 7)

The entire process of analysis was repeated for each of the three cases (countries) participating in this study. Finally, the barometer readings and narrative descriptions justifying and clarifying ratings given form a report on the findings, and the inclusiveness strengths identified develop into a discussion noting the implications for the development of the inclusiveness of education.

### 3.9 Ethical Considerations

Ethics refers to the moral principles and values which guide how an individual acts. Central to ethics is careful consideration of the rights of participants and not treating them as a means to an end (Howe \& Moses, 1999; Rossman \& Rallis, 2003). Researchers operating from the transformative paradigm are driven by the social model to extend this consideration beyond individuals to socially defined groups, and in particular, people who are disabled. Recognising the possibility that the process of research can oppress and disempower, transformative researchers attempt to not only minimise harm, but to actively use their research process to empower social groups (Mertens, 2007). Therefore, research procedures must be carefully reviewed in line with the rights-based agenda to ensure that the methods are not rendering participants or beneficiaries vulnerable to further oppression by
abuse of power positions. Ethical principles have been encoded into rules and guidelines such as the Massey University Code Of Ethical Conduct For Research, Teaching And Evaluations Involving Human Participants (Massey University Human Ethics Committee, 2010).

This research has been reviewed and approved by the Massey University Human Ethics Committee Southern B, Application 12/25 (Appendix C). The principles of the Massey University guidelines are referred to in the following section along with explanations of how they were addressed in the design of this study (Massey University Human Ethics Committee, 2010).

### 3.9.1 Respect for persons

The principle of respect for persons outlined in the Massey Human Ethics Code is concerned with individuals having the right to be respected for the beliefs that they hold, for the decisions that they make, and to be afforded privacy and dignity in the research process.

In this study, participation was optional and time was allowed for identifying new participants should some withdraw during the course of the data collection. All questions dealt with general issues about which the participants had knowledge. However, participants were fully aware that they could withdraw at any time should they feel any discomfort or for any other reason.

### 3.9.2 Minimisation of harm to participants, researchers, institutions and groups

Avoiding any unnecessary harm is paramount in the process of data gathering. This refers to all types of harm including physical, psychological, social and economic. The principle recognises that research may call from some risks, but that these must be justifiable, made clear and taken with informed consent.

In light of the agenda of the study it was identified that groups or individuals who participate through interviews or questionnaires could find themselves vulnerable to embarrassment or criticism, particularly if they provide negative information about the status of education in their country (Massey University Human Ethics Committee, 2010). Beyrer and Kass (2002) express concern that the fear of government disapproval in countries with oppressive political backdrops can compromise the integrity of the data. In contrast, Mauthner, Birch, Jessop, and Miller (2002) warn that "not to speak about, or for 'others' encourages silences and gaps, which marginalise and exclude, while cementing the privilege of those with more powerful voices" (p. 41). Therefore, the ethical challenge here is to find a way to achieve the intentions of the research while still treating the participants well.

The potential negative political result which participants could contribute to through provision of information has been coined 'naming and shaming' or Pulitzer's maxim.

There is not a crime, there is not a dodge, there is not a trick, there is not a swindle, there is not a vice, which does not live by secrecy. Get these things out in the open, describe them, attack them, ridicule them in the press, and sooner or later public opinion will sweep them away. (Pulitzer, 1978, as cited in Pawson, 2002, p. 211)
The results of this study are intended to be relevant for each individual country and for encouraging their ongoing improvement of inclusive education at the level of policy and implementation in line with the UNCRPD. Transparency of results has been suggested to result in "positive competition" (Commission Of The European Communities, 2008, p. 7). According to Stein and Lord (2010), during the negotiation of the convention it was mentioned that "carrots and sticks" or "incentives for compliance" (p. 706) would aid effective implementation. Indeed by signing the convention, there is a legal obligation towards implementation by state parties. Furthermore, ratification of the optional protocol allows petition to a committee by independent groups in those countries showing that it is intended that countries be open to public scrutiny (United Nations, 2006b). The UNCRPD,
however, does recognise that many of the expectations in the document involve financial costs so rather than immediate compliance, a 'progressive realisation' is called for (United Nations, 2006a, Article 4, section 2). Therefore identification of perceived low implementation does not necessarily signify substandard implementation, but merely indicates the current stage of progression and helps to identify the next step. Indeed it should be clarified that no country yet completely meets the desired standards and the intention of monitoring is to identify meaningful ways to promote the ongoing implementation process. Through the use of the 'open method of coordination' used in the original P2i Project (Gornitzka, 2005) which is a process of voluntary cooperation and shared indicators, it is possible to produce information which can enable learning and problem solving and avoid 'naming and shaming' altogether. Indeed, a study conducted by HafnerBurton (2008) found that countries exposed by human rights spotlights did not always reform, but often did nothing or even in some cases increased the repression.

Therefore, in this study it was made clear from the outset and through information sheets that the intention of the study is not criticism of any country through comparison or identification of falling below standards. "The process of identification and recognition of the relevant difficulties then provides a framework within which more appropriate and targeted policies can be devised" (United Nations, 2006b, p. 3).

The focus in this study on noticing strengths rather than spotlighting shortcomings, acts as a control against negative public attention. The value of this approach is in promoting ongoing improvement through commending countries on their progress. Even still, the findings presented are not directly linked with countries in this study. Data collected is presented in case reports without naming the correlating country. Cases are named X, Y, and Z instead of by the country they represent. While it is clear which three countries participated overall, is not stated which country is represented by each letter or each piece of data. Key informants
were aware of this so that they could feel more at ease to provide relevant information. Interview transcripts were returned to participants for review and where negative comments were deemed useful for inclusion in the results, additional contact was made with the participant to gain their consent for inclusion of that individual response. However, informants also had the option offered on the consent form to provide information anonymously without even acknowledgement of their position. Information or responses which could potentially identify the participants are not included in this report and will not be used in any other resulting publications. The original P2i Toolkit involved a rating whereby each country is given a colour-code to show its level of overall inclusiveness (European Association of Service Providers for Persons with Disabilities, 2009). This was modified to only give ratings within each case study comparing different aspects of the results against the Indicators (the UNCRPD) and focusing on comparison within countries, but an overall blanket country-level rating with its inter-country comparison potential is not used.

### 3.9.3 Informed and voluntary consent

This principle calls for researchers to provide detailed information to participants in a format and language that ensures its accessibility followed by an equally clear process of giving consent. In short, participation must be voluntary and based on a full understanding of what the participating involves.

When contacted, full written details of the study were provided to potential participants in information sheets along with individual written consent forms. Both forms were translated into Arabic using the same rigorous translation process applied to the questionnaires. All participants were adults capable of consenting. Full details and contact information of the researcher were provided to each participant and they were encouraged to make contact if they had any questions or concerns. The researcher took responsibility to oversee all information provided to the participants and used just one translator when needed to ensure the messages were consistent.

### 3.9.4 Respect for privacy and confidentiality

Active measures are called for to ensure the protection of privacy and confidentiality as far as possible. This refers to identification of the participant and the information they provide.

Participants are not identified by name in this report, but only by general position and the country which they represent if they consented. Some chose to remain entirely anonymous, especially if their position was unique and would immediately identify them.

All data and scanned consent forms were electronic and not printed. Sound recordings of the interviews were also in electronic form. The computer used in storage and management of the data and consent forms belonged to the researcher. Password protection prevented unauthorised access to any of the documents or files. Only the researcher knew the password. The researcher's university email address was used for receiving completed questionnaires and all communication. Because a translator was used in both written and spoken correspondences, a translator confidentiality agreement was signed ensuring that no information about participations would be communicated outside of the study and that all documents would be kept in the possession of the researcher. The Arabic translator had access to the data for the purposes of translation and transcription, but only in the presence of the researcher. Data collected in the course of the study will be transferred to a password protected online archive facility at the conclusion of the project, with the password known only to the researcher and the supervisor. It will be retained for a period of 5 years after which point it will be disposed of (deleted) by the supervisor.

### 3.9.5 The avoidance of unnecessary deception

While recognising that covert research is sometimes justified, the understanding here is that in general, deception goes against the principle of informed consent and should be avoided.

All data gathering tools were transparent with no deception or underlying intentions. Participants were aware of all the intentions of the study.

### 3.9.6 Avoidance of conflict of interest

In general, researchers should avoid placing themselves in a role as a researcher which conflicts with their other activities. Examples of conflicts of interest are where a participant is a student, employee, or client of the researcher or where the researcher has a financial interest in the research outcomes (Massey University Human Ethics Committee, 2010). Such conflicts could affect a researcher's freedom and objectivity or could create inappropriate power relationships with participants if they perceive themselves as dependent on the researcher in another context.

Although the researcher had many contacts in the region, all participants were identified through official channels as someone in a position of authority to provide the relevant information. As a result, the researcher was not in any power relationship with the participants.

### 3.9.7 Social and cultural sensitivity

Research approaches should be respectful and accountable to the cultural and social groups involved. This includes sensitivity to values, protocols, and interests of participating groups and considers maximising potential benefits to the participants and the groups they represent.

It was recognised that there are implications of the researcher being from a different culture than that of the participants. Conducting interviews and questionnaires with people from other cultures can raise issues in terms of protocol, sensitivity in questioning, respect, and language nuances. Processes in gaining consent, providing clear information and opportunity to withdraw from the study must be carried out in culturally sensitive ways. Even selection of the
participants may involve cultural protocol in determining who is appropriate to represent the issues of the study. Although the questionnaires and interviews were mostly conducted in Arabic, there were many other cultures and languages represented in Middle East countries. The researcher had to be prepared for the possibility that some participants may be nominated from cultures other than the dominant culture in the selected countries, and participants from one country may represent more than one culture. People who are disabled could be considered another social group represented in this project. While the study did not deal directly with people who are disabled as participants, it was important that sensitivity be used in representing issues related to them.

The researcher had been living in the Middle East since 2003 during which time she had been living and working in full integration with the local community. This advantage in cultural sensitivity skills developed during this time was contributed to the carrying out of the project. An Arabic translator acted as an assistant in the research process, for written translation, spoken translation during the interviews, contact with participants, translation of responses and transcription of the interviews. The Arabic translator was also able to act as a cultural advisor for general issues and for sensitive use of language. For more specific cultural issues after the participating countries were identified, advice was sought from the contacted organisations in the countries selected. These organisations also assisted in identifying participants who were culturally appropriate or according to protocol. A representative of the Arab Forum for People with Disabilities reviewed the data gathering tools and was consulted on the research procedures. Two additional supervisors, researchers with experience in the Middle East, were identified to provide specific guidance to the researcher should it be needed.

### 3.9.8 Justice

This principle is about considering the potential benefits of the research in light of the burden of participation imposed. It is concerned with ensuring that the participating population are likely to reap the benefits of the research and it avoids
drawing on participants who have been overburdened, are less likely to benefit, or are vulnerable in other ways.

The results of this project can provide countries with important information about the inclusiveness of their education policies and may increase political will towards policy and practice of inclusive education. This could positively benefit participants as they are working in the field of education of children who are disabled and thus has potential to benefit children and young people who are disabled in the participating countries.

## CHAPTER FOUR FINDINGS: THREE COUNTRIES

### 4.1 Introduction

Chapters four to seven present the findings as collected through the tools and interpreted though the analysis. Both the P2i Toolkit and process of analysis are as described in the Chapter three. The outcomes are considered 'findings' rather than 'results' due to their largely qualitative nature (Burnard, 2004).

Overarching research question:
How do national education policies and access to schooling in participating Middle Eastern countries align with the inclusive education expectations of the United Nations Convention on the Rights of Persons with Disabilities?

The findings in line with this question are distributed between four chapters as follows.

Chapter four introduces the three participating Middle Eastern countries; Bahrain, Iraq and Jordan. It outlines contextual background information. Although not comprehensive, this chapter contains demographic details of each country, and overviews of the contexts of disability, education system, education for children who are disabled, and human rights. Chapter five includes the findings from the perspective of policy and according to the first guiding research question: What opportunities for inclusive education can be found in national education policies? The findings in Chapter six are in regards to the practice of inclusive education and are consistent with the second guiding research question: What type and amount of access to schooling for children who are disabled is taking place? And finally, from the perspective of progress towards inclusive education, findings for the last question are found in Chapter seven: What progress is being made towards inclusive education?

This manner of organisation of the findings is similar to that proposed by Taylor (1997). In line with the transformative research paradigm laid out in the methodology (Chapter 3, section 3.3.3), she asserts that education policy analysis should not only be interested in the 'what' and 'why', but also in 'what can be done about it'. Therefore, the literature itself should not be separate from the political struggle against oppression in which it is situated. Firstly, she explains the need to take into account the broader context within which the policy sits. This is followed by the analysis of the text, then completed with analysis of consequences, or meaning and interpretation, which is the section best positioned to be of use to those in "the pursuit of social justice" (Taylor, 1997, p. 33). The following table (Table 4-1) aligns Chapters four to seven with this framework and also with the research questions and the dimensions they are set in.

Table 4-1: Organisation of the findings

| Chapters | Chapter 4 | Chapter 5 | Chapter 6 | Chapter 7 |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Dimensions |  | Policy | Practice | Progress |
| Research <br> Questions |  | Guiding | Guiding | Guiding Question 3 |
| Taylor <br> framework <br> (Taylor, 1997) | Context | Texts | Consequences |  |

Chapters five, six and seven are organised around the 'Indicators' which are described in detail in Chapter 3, section 3.8.2. As a point of reference, the table of Indicators is included below (Table 4-2). Hereafter, use of the term 'Indicator' will refer to this list.

Table 4-2: Indicators

| $\#$ | Indicator |
| :--- | :--- |
| 1 | ...consistency of legislation and prescriptions on inclusive education on preschool, primary <br> school and secondary level |
| 2 | ...free primary inclusive education |
| 3 | ...equal access to regular schools in the community |
| 4 | ...equal access to tertiary education |
| 5 | ...participation in decision making on inclusive education |
| 6 | ...assessment procedures supportive of inclusive education |
| 7 | ...accommodation of individual access and learning requirements (architectural) |
| 8 | ...accommodation of individual access and learning requirements (personal/technical) |
| 9 | ...accommodation of educational measures |
| 10 | oracilitation of learning of Braille, sign language and other forms of communication and <br> 11 |
| 12 | ...training of teachers and staff and employment of qualified teachers |
| 13 | ...activities of proflusive education |
| 14 | ...perspectives on progressional associations and measures for awareness raising of governments |

As part of obtaining ethical approval for this study, it was decided that every effort should be made to protect the identity of the key informants (see information sheet, Appendix E, F and G). In the following sections of this chapter, the participating countries are introduced. In Chapter five, when referring to publically available documents, the country being discussed may be apparent. However, when opinions and comments obtained from key informants are reported or discussed, countries will not be identified. In some cases 'Country X', 'Country Y' and 'Country $Z$ ' will be used in place of country names, but depending on the type and sensitivity of the data, there are times when even the code of the country will not be used and instead language such as 'one country' and 'two of the countries' will be used. When literature is cited that identifies a country, the symbol '*' will indicate that the citation has been omitted. Furthermore, in line with the theoretical foundations and purposes of this study, comparison of countries is avoided. As such, there are times throughout the findings where data is presented devoid of country labels, neither name nor code. Where it is necessary to link data to country codes, data tables are presented in a manner that does not invite or overtly focus on comparison.

### 4.2 THE Kingdom Of BAHRAIN


(UN Statistics Division, 2013a)

Made up of an archipelago of islands, reefs and islets, the small Kingdom of Bahrain is centred on two of the main islands. Primarily arid desert plain, Bahrain's land size is gradually increasing due to land reclamation. As a result, however, the coastal and marine environments in the area are under threat and there are challenges due to rising sea levels. Bahrain is located 28 kilometres off the coast of Qatar and linked on the east to Saudi Arabia by a causeway. The population of only 1,195,020 (Central Informatics Organisation) is primarily concentrated in and around the capital of Manama on Bahrain Island. One third of this population is made up of foreign workers (Brown, 2005; Central Intelligence Agency, 2013). Although the first gulf state to discover oil in 1932, oil revenue only makes up about 11\% of Gross Domestic Product (GDP) (Central Intelligence Agency, 2013) finding Bahrain forced to diversify into areas such as manufacturing, offshore banking, and tourism. Bahrain now hosts many multinational firms and Islamic financial institutions and is considered by The World Bank (2013) to be an affluent country.

After more than 200 years of governance by a ruling family, in 2002 Bahrain became a kingdom with a constitutional monarchy administrating five governorates and municipalities. With democracy and a strong social welfare system, Bahrain boasted political stability. However the protests of 2011 exposed wide spread dissatisfaction with the ruling minority. This was followed by a clamp down on opposition, deaths and numerous arrests which have left the political landscape unstable (Central Intelligence Agency, 2013).

Islam is the state religion in Bahrain. The majority of citizens identify with Shia Islam even though the ruling family is from the Sunni minority. Known to be one of the earliest areas to convert to Islam, Bahrainis follow the lead of their neighbour Saudi Arabia in favouring traditional society (Brown, 2005). This has been reportedly maintained despite their commitment to modernisation and new technology (Brown, 2005). Arabic is the official language, although it is understood that English is the primary language used in business.

Under the direction of its Ministry of Education, Bahrain endeavours to provide education to all school aged children and to continue to improve the quality of the education provided in line with the needs of the students and the needs of the country (Kingdom of Bahrain, 2008). Education is provided free of charge through public schools (Ministry of Education, 2013a). This includes provision of textbooks and, where necessary, transportation. Arabic is the language of instruction and girls and boys are taught separately. Nurseries and kindergartens for the pre-school ages are run by the private sector under Ministry of Education supervision. A wider parallel system of private schools for all levels attended primarily for the large expatriate community is licensed and supervised by the Ministry of Education and caters for about $20 \%$ of school aged children. This supervision includes approval of the curriculum and mandating some subjects. The education landscape and demand in Bahrain continues to evolve under the influence of factors such as population growth, changing economy, rural to urban shift and technological advances. The Minister of Education in 2008 announced major progress in ICT in
education (Kingdom of Bahrain, 2008) and according to the Millennium Development Goal report of 2010, universal primary education for both girls and boys was achieved as long ago as 2000 (Central Informatics Organisation, 2010). Bahrain's vision for education is that of a world-class education system (Ministry of Education, 2013a).

According to Gaad (2010) 1\% of Bahrainis are disabled. Director-General of the Capital Municipality Eng. Shaikh Mohammed bin Ahmed Al Khalifa is reported by the Bahrain News Agency to have praised people who are disabled as pillars of society ("Capital Municipality \& Al Amal Institute for Special Education Mark National \& Accession Days," 2012). The Ministry of Education website (Ministry of Education, 2013a) and national education reports as long ago as 2008 (Kingdom of Bahrain, 2008) assure that children who are disabled are provided for within the public system. Their statistics report $10 \%$ of the school population as having some type of physical or learning difficulty (Central Informatics Organisation, 2011). 1986 saw the development of a committee to consider the needs and introduce remedial classes. In 1992 integration of students with learning difficulties began which expanded to all schools by 2006. Those with more severe needs are identified and provided for through special institutes administered by a special education directorate in the Ministry of Education. A new strategy for special education needs is being drafted with implementation to begin in late 2014 (Ministry of Education, 2013b). There are also reports of some schools involved in pilot schemes to include all categories of learners in regular classrooms (Gaad, 2010; Ministry of Social Development, 2013).

The Ministry of Education website claims the national, Arab and religious identity to be "based on tolerance and communication between all human beings in order to foster aspects of cooperation and solidarity with all people of the world" (Ministry of Education, 2013a). The Bahrain News Agency also quotes His Royal Highness Prime Minister Prince Khalifa bin Salman Al Khalifa's daughter Shaikha Lulwa bint Khalifa bin Salman Al Khalifa to have characterised the Bahraini people as holding
"noble values of solidarity and fidelity" and "deep-rooted values of cohesion and fraternity" ("Daughter of HRH Premier Visits UCO Parents Care Centre," 2012, para 3). Being a United Nations member state since 1971, Bahrain ranked 48th globally on the Human Development Report in 2012 which places it just a few points short of featuring in the top group of "very high human development" but heads up the group of "high human development" (Malik, 2013, p. 144). Bahrain is praised for its achievements in life expectancy and gender equality and the previously mentioned achievement of universal primary education. Signatory to most human rights conventions and with a strong constitutional commitment to equality, Bahrain is well positioned for achieving inclusive education goals.

### 4.3 The Republic of IraQ


(UN Statistics Division, 2013b)

Affectionately referred to as the 'cradle of civilisation' is an area of 435,244 square kilometres known since 1958 as the Republic of Iraq. The Tigris and Euphrates rivers run through the centre of the land giving it a second title 'Belad al-Rafedain' (land of two rivers). Composed of the eastern part of the Syrian desert, the Mesopotamian alluvial plan, and the rugged mountainous north including the Zagros mountain range, Iraq is homeland to Arabs, Kurds, Turkmen and Assyrians (Woods, 2013). Recent population estimates come out at about 32.5 million and the two official languages are Arabic and Kurdish (Central Intelligence Agency, 2013). Eighth century Iraq was the cultural hub of the Arab world (Woods, 2013) and as recently as 1990 Iraq was famed for the best education in the region (Santisteban, 2005). However, decades of continuous war, sanctions, displacement of populations, and isolation from the world have left Iraq with a severely damaged infrastructure, a struggling democracy and ongoing insecurity and disorder (Alborz et al., 2011). Once a country where differences in language, culture, sect and religion existed by side, Iraq is now infamous for the continued sectarian violence, political instability and the insurgency that characterises its cities (Alborz, 2013).

Although this shows no signs of abating, the human rights report (UNAMI Human Rights Office/OHCHR, 2013) did make the distinction of the Kurdish region of Iraq as being predominantly peaceful and removed from the violence.

The 2005 Iraqi constitution established Kurdistan as a federal region of Iraq and as such, it is the area of Iraq that this study focuses on ("Iraqi Constitution," 2005). The Kurdish autonomous region represents one of the four parts of what is considered the larger Kurdistan geographically distributed across parts of Syria, Turkey, Iran and Iraq. Known for its wealth of natural resources and for agriculture, Kurdistan is also a regional tourism destination with the cool and grandeur of the mountains, springs and waterfalls hosting a growing number of resorts that offer respite from the hot dry summers of the Arab plains (Vernez, Culbertson, \& Constant, 2014).

Formerly a Kingdom, Iraq was later ruled by an oppressive regime and dictator for 35 years. Now classified as a parliamentary democracy, Iraq is struggling to establish itself and curb corruption (Katzman, 2012). The Kurdistan Region with its own parliament and ministries is facing similar challenges in instituting democratic processes. They have, however, succeeded in attracting investment and developing their infrastructure and a notable building boom has been taking place (Ministry of Planning, 2013). Although constitutionally an Islamic country ("Iraqi Constitution," 2005), Muslim, both Shiite and Sunni, Yazidis, Chaldean and Assyrian Christians, Shabaks, Sabeans, Baha'is, and Kakai all call Iraq home with their religious freedom protected in legislation. Religious festivals from all of Iraq's major religions feature on the calendar of public holidays. However, the modern phenomenon of sectarian violence, divisive strategies employed by insurgents, and militant attacks and on religious minorities are on the increase (Katzman, 2012; Woods, 2013).

Public education through all the stages, including tertiary, is provided free of charge and attempts to cater for all (UNDP, 2013; Vernez et al., 2014). Not
constrained by the same obstacles as the larger Iraq, the stability of Kurdistan allowed them to independently institute major educational reform. Central to the reform beginning in 2007 was an extension of the compulsory years from 6 to 9 , modernisation of the curriculum and a requirement for teachers to hold Bachelor's degrees (Vernez et al., 2014). The education ladder is now composed of kindergarten, basic education and secondary education. The vision of education is centred on equipping citizens for democracy, economic development and social justice (Ministry of Planning, 2013). Unprecedented increases in the young population compounded by urbanisation (Eklund, 2011; Roudi, 2001), migration and displacement (UNICEF, 2013), however, find the schools struggling with classrooms filled beyond capacity and forced to implement a double-shift and sometimes a multiple-shift system (Vernez et al., 2014). Nevertheless, aspiring to international standards, gender parity reached $94 \%$ in 2011, primary school completion goals are very close to $100 \%$, and efforts to reduce illiteracy are showing fruit with a city in the Kurdistan region boasting the highest literacy rate nationally of 94\% (UNDP, 2013).

Recent research on disability in Iraq reports a prevalence rate of $14.2 \%$ amongst children 4-18 years old (Alborz et al., 2013). This is said to be on the increase with the continued impact of war and violence (Alborz et al., 2013; UNAMI Human Rights Office/OHCHR, 2013; Vernez et al., 2014). Children who are disabled in Iraq are considered more vulnerable than others in terms of education, human rights, health and self-esteem (Al-Obaidi \& Budosan, 2011; Alborz, 2013; UNAMI Human Rights Office/OHCHR, 2013).

Iraq's human rights record is grim with long lists of abuses and problems although much of it can be attributed to the lack of security and ongoing instability (Katzman, 2012; UNAMI Human Rights Office/OHCHR, 2013). The human development ranking was only 131 out of 187 countries worldwide (Malik, 2013). The situation of the Kurdish region, on the contrary, is reported to be continuously improving and is even presented separately in reports (UNAMI Human Rights

Office/OHCHR, 2013). Perhaps the long history of abuse of rights against the Kurds positions them well to hold human rights in high regard (Ministry of Planning, 2013).

### 4.4 THE HASHEMITE KINGDOM OF JORDAN


(UN Statistics Division, 2013c)

Home to some of the earliest human settlements, the 90,000 square kilometres of the Hashemite Kingdom of Jordan has long been a crossroads of civilisations (AlZoabi, 2001; Jabery, Khateeb, \& Zumberg, 2012; Pascale, 2012). With Arabic language common to all and Sunni Islam the religion, Jordan is inhabited primarily by Jordanians, Palestinians and Bedouins. The site of cities familiar in ancient texts, the Dead Sea and the stone city of Petra, and a wealth of archaeological remains all draw modern tourists to the region (AbuJaber, 2013). Aside from almost 26 kilometres of coast along the Gulf of Aqaba, Jordan is currently locked between some of the most unstable countries in the region (Pascale, 2012). Unlike many other wealthy Arab nations, Jordan has limited natural resources so its economy is primarily supported by tourism, overseas remittances and foreign aid. Challenges to the economy include the shortage of renewable water sources and the growing population seeking employment. Jordan's economy has suffered further due to the unrest in the region (Jabery et al., 2012).

Jordan has only been independent since 1946 and is a constitutional monarchy with a parliament and king holding significant legislative and executive powers.

With a long history of efforts in peace making in the region include the signing of a peace treaty with Israel, participation in the Middle East peace process, supporting the coalition in ousting the Ba'ath Party in Iraq, and the taking in of Iraqi refugees; Jordan recognises its strategic position alongside the need for self-preservation and economic stability (Education Policy and Data Center, 2012). As such, it is one of the most politically liberal countries in the Middle East (AbuJaber, 2013). As a safe haven in a troubled region, there have been considerable numbers of refugees enter Jordan most of whom are Iraqi and Palestinian. This has served to attract foreign aid to the country (Turmusani, 1999), and Jordan has been praised for its policies in granting citizenship to Palestinians (AbuJaber, 2013).

The education system in Jordan has seen major growth in recent years. Including three cycles; kindergarten, basic education and secondary education; the education system in Jordan is managed by the Ministry of Education and is comprised primarily of government run schools. According to the USAID Education Profile in 2007, almost every school aged child attends school at age 6 (Education Policy and Data Center, 2012) and the literacy rate was reported by Jabery et al. (2012) to have reached $91.3 \%$ by 2012. Gender equality is evident and there is no regional disparity with attendance high in even the rural areas (Education Policy and Data Center, 2012). Primary completion rates of $30 \%$ as recorded in 1950 have reached 98\% according to Education Policy and Data Center (2012). This growth has been accompanied by major reforms of curriculum, teacher preparation, and according to Jabery et al. (2012), national standards are in process. Jordan is praised not only for these achievements, but is also lauded as having an education system which other countries could learn from with its success in sustaining the growth (Education Policy and Data Center, 2012).

With no formal definitions of disability (Al Khatib, 2007) and no central data collecting agency (Jabery et al., 2012), accurate statistics of disability in Jordan are hard to come by. Unofficial government and NGO estimates put the number of people living with impairments in Jordan at 200,000 or about 4\% (Pascale, 2012; Turmusani, 1999). Discrimination against people who are disabled is considered rife and restrictions are found in nearly all aspects of life (Al-Zoubi \& Rahman, 2011; Pascale, 2012; Turmusani, 1999). However, Turmisani (1999) goes on to acknowledge that attitudes are gradually improving, in particular towards those with sensory impairment and mild physical impairments.

In the early 1990's a special education department was established in the Ministry of Education. Since 2007 many report the initiation and fast pace of development of special education programmes for students who are disabled (e.g., Al-Zoubi \& Rahman, 2011; Al Khatib, 2007; Ismail, Al-Zoubi, Rahman, \& Al-Shabatat, 2009). Ismail et al. (2009) consider the developments to be primarily quantitative involving the establishment of special schools, centres and resource rooms. The interest in inclusive education has been exclusively targeting those with learning difficulties. The economic situation of Jordan means that progress continues to be hindered by obstacles such as funding, access, services, structures, awareness, and training (Al Khatib, 2007; Turmusani, 1999).

The legislative environment in Jordan in regards to the rights of people who are disabled is underpinned by the Law on Disabled People Rights (No. 31 of 2007). This repealed all previous laws and sits alongside the National Strategy which was developed as a result of the King's decree. The Higher Council for Disabled People's Affairs was established through Article 6 of the Law and is tasked with implementing the National Strategy, developing regulations for implementation of the law, and recommending modifications to the law if necessary. The Council also has the authority to represent the country of Jordan on issues related to people who are disabled.

## CHAPTER FIVE FINDINGS: POLICY

### 5.1 INTRODUCTION

This chapter presents findings in line with the first guiding research question.
What opportunities for inclusive education can be found in national education policies?

In order to analyse the status of policy for inclusive education in the three participating countries, two tools were used. The first, Legislation Questionnaire A (Appendix L), was completed by the researcher and used as a guide to review policy documents. The second tool, Policy Questionnaire B, was composed of three questionnaires. The first two obtained the perspective of the national or regional key informants on the status of legislation. Policy Questionnaire B1 (Appendix M) was used if the country was being reviewed from the national level and Policy Questionnaire B2 (Appendix N) if from a regional perspective. The third Policy Questionnaire B3 (Appendix O) narrowed the questions down to the level of local policy. It should be noted that this chapter reports findings on Indicators 1-13. Indicator 14 was not relevant to issues of policy and is reported on in Chapter seven. The findings in this chapter are divided into two sections in keeping with the two tools. The first section presents an overview of the outcomes of the Legislation Questionnaire and includes a more detailed review of the legislative environment found in the three countries. The second findings section shows the results from the Policy Questionnaires.

Additional documentation was used to triangulate the findings, seeking convergence or divergence and to contribute to a fuller understanding of the findings. These documents include reports, articles, reviews and studies related to each country. The results of triangulation in the form of the Inclusion Barometer rating as described in the Methodology (Chapter 3, section 3.8) are presented
according to each country at the end of this chapter. The Inclusion Barometer rating positions each country along a four-point scale in terms of inclusiveness. Although the findings in this chapter are from publically available documents, it is not the intention of this chapter to compare the policy environments of the three cases, rather, the narrative presentations of the findings are designed to give only an overview of the policy environments. To reduce the comparative tendency of the descriptions, countries are not directly used in the narratives or in relation to the resulting barometer ratings. The symbol ${ }^{* * \prime}$ ' is placed after sensitive references to indicate that they are hidden in this manuscript.

### 5.2 Findings: Legislation Questionnaire A

The Legislation Questionnaire was used to assess seven types of national policy documents from each country along with their commitment to international documents. For each country, seven policy documents were reviewed along with their international commitment, so the questionnaire was repeated eight times. The following policy and legislative documents were reviewed.

| Constitution |
| :--- |
| Disability Law |
| Disability Strategy |
| Education Law |
| Education Strategy |
| Inclusive Education/Special Education law |
| Inclusive Education/Special Education Strategy |

The questionnaire was comprised of 18 questions, each of which invited a yes or no response with 'yes' indicating a favourable policy for inclusive education and 'no' unfavourable. The numbering of the questions was not directly aligned with the numbering of the Indicators. The following table (Table 5-1) provides an overview of how the questions in the Legislation Questionnaire corresponded to the Indicators.

Table 5-1: Correspondence between Legislative Questionnaire A and the Indicators Policy

| \# | Indicators | Legislation Questionnaire, question number: |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 1 | ...consistency of legislation and prescriptions on inclusive education on preschool, primary school and secondary level | A. 1 |
| 2 | ...free primary inclusive education | A. 2 |
| 3 | ...equal access to regular schools in the community | A.3, A. 6 |
| 4 | ...equal access to tertiary education | A. 17 |
| 5 | ...participation in decision making on inclusive education | A. 4 |
| 6 | ...assessment procedures supportive of inclusive education | A. 5 |
| 7 | ...accommodation of individual access and learning requirements (architectural) | A.7, A. 9 |
| 8 | ...accommodation of individual access and learning requirements (personal/technical) | A.8, A.10, A. 11 |
| 9 | ...accommodation of educational measures | A. 12 |
| 10 | ...facilitation of learning of Braille, sign language and other forms of communication and orientation | A.13, A. 14 |
| 11 | ...training of teachers and staff and employment of qualified teachers | A.15, A. 16 |
| 12 | ...monitoring of inclusive education | A. 18 |
| 13 | ...activities of professional associations and measures for awareness raising of governments | x |
| 14 | ...perspectives on progression of inclusive education | X |

The following table (Table 5-2) presents the Legislation Questionnaire analysis of policy documents from all three participating countries. The original 'yes/no' ratings from the questionnaire were converted according to step 3 of the analysis framework (see Chapter 3, section 3.8.3) to align ratings with those used in the barometer rating scale (see Appendix W for details of the rating transformation criterion). The 18 questions are listed on the left with the black squares indicating the rating given for each of the three countries.

Table 5-2: Legislative Questionnaire A ratings of three countries

|  |  | $\square$ = rating for one country |  |  |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  | Legislative Questionnaire A Questions | Hindering | $\begin{gathered} \text { Partly } \\ \text { hindering } \end{gathered}$ | Partly supportive | Supportive |
| 1 | Right to Inclusive education |  |  |  | $\square \square \square$ |
| 2 | Free of cost |  |  | $\square$ | $\square$ |
| 3 | Access to Secondary education |  | $\square$ | $\square$ |  |
| 4 | Participation in decision-making |  | $\square \square \square$ |  |  |
| 5 | Categorisation and assessment |  | $\square \square$ |  |  |
| 6 | Access to Community schools |  | $\square$ | $\square \square$ |  |
| 7 | Accessibility |  | $\square$ | $\square$ |  |
| 8 | Accommodation in Learning process |  | $\square \square$ | $\square$ |  |
| 9 | Classroom sizes |  | $\square \square \square$ |  |  |
| 10 | Adaptive technology |  |  | $\square$ | $\square \square$ |
| 11 | Functional support |  | $\square$ | $\square$ |  |
| 12 | Educational support |  |  | $\square \square$ | $\square$ |
| 13 | Braille and Sign language |  | $\square \square \square$ |  |  |
| 14 | Augmentative or alternative communication |  | $\square \square \square$ |  |  |
| 15 | Training of staff |  | ■■ |  |  |
| 16 | Employing staff |  | $\square \square$ | $\square$ |  |
|  | Access to Tertiary education |  | $\square \square \square$ |  |  |
|  | Monitoring |  | $\square \square$ | $\square$ |  |

It can be seen in this table that all three countries were rated 'supportive' in terms of legislation guaranteeing the right to inclusive education (question 1), and either 'supportive' or 'partly supportive' in granting this education free of charge (question 2). Question 10 and 12 also resulted in positive ratings for all three countries. These strengths will be discussed further in Chapter eight. The following segments of this section give narrative overviews of the international commitment of the participating countries and summaries of each type of document reviewed by the Legislation Questionnaire.

### 5.2.1 International Commitment

All three participating countries are United Nations member states and signatories to the United Nations Convention on the Rights of Persons with Disabilities (United Nations, 2013b). Signing a convention, while not legally binding,
demonstrates the intention of a government to examine their commitment and consider ratifying. Ratification or accession reflects the country's agreement for the terms and conditions of the convention to become a legal obligation. One of the countries was part of a group of 81 countries to sign the convention on its very first day. Another country took five years and much campaigning by disabled activists and organisations of disabled people until the government reached a decision*. After so much deliberating, they decided to go directly to ratification without any reservations or declarations. As such, all three participating countries have ratified the United Nations Convention on the Rights of Persons with Disabilities (UNCRPD).

The UNCRPD itself claims no new rights, only a broadening of the existing rights to recognise the unique experience of disability (Lang et al., 2011). Therefore, UNCRPD joins eight other legally binding core conventions and covenants which are built on the foundation of the Universal Declaration of Human Rights of 1948 to expand and detail the rights as they relate to different people and different aspects of human experience (United Nations, 2014).

- International Convention on the Protection of the Rights of All Migrant Workers and Members of their Families.
- Convention on the Rights of the Child.
- International Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Racial Discrimination.
- Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination against Women.
- Convention against Torture and Other Cruel, Inhuman or Degrading Treatment or Punishment.
- International Covenant on Civil and Political Rights.
- International Covenant on Economic, Social and Cultural Rights.
- International Convention for the Protection of All Persons from Enforced Disappearance.

The commitment of the countries participating in this study in relation to these core rights documents is broad. They only lack commitment to the International Convention on the Protection of the Rights of All Migrant Workers and Members of their Families, and the International Convention for the Protection of All Persons from Enforced Disappearance with the exception of one of the participating
countries who has acceded to the latter. The dates of ratification by the three participating countries to these documents can be found in Appendix U .

A number of other international and United Nations documents leading up to the UNCRPD set the stage for the social model of disability and for inclusive education. These include those listed below in Table 5-3. Although they are not legally binding, by virtue of being United Nations member states, all three countries are politically and morally committed to them.

Table 5-3: Commitment to other international documents leading up to inclusive education

| United Nations Documents | Commitment |
| :---: | :---: |
| Convention against Discrimination in Education. Paris, 14 December 1960 | Iraq-28/06/1977 Jordan - 06/04/1976 |
| Declaration on the Rights of Disabled Persons 9 December 1975 | Resolution adopted by the General assembly |
| Declaration on the Rights of Disabled Persons 1975 | Proclaimed by general assembly resolution |
| Sundberg Declaration on Actions and Strategies for Education, Prevention and Integration <br> Malaga (Spain), 2-7 November 1981 | Adopted by the UNESCO World Conference on Actions and Strategies for Education, Prevention and Integration |
| World Programme of Action Concerning Disabled Persons 3 December 1982 | Adopted by the general assembly |
| Tallinn Guidelines for Action on Human Resources Development in the Field of Disability 8 December 198 | Adopted by the general assembly as an annex to Implementation of the World Programme of Action concerning Disabled Persons and the United Nations Decade of Disabled Persons |
| World Declaration on Education for all Jomtien, Thailand, 1-9 March 1990 | Adopted by the World Conference on Education for <br> All. Meeting Basic Learning Needs |
| United Nations standard rules on the equalization of opportunities for persons with disabilities 20 December 1993 | Adopted by the United Nations General Assembly |
| Salamanca Statement and Framework for Action on Special Needs Education Salamanca, Spain, 7-10 June 1994 | Adopted by the World Congress on Special Needs Education |
| The Dakar Framework for Action Dakar, Senegal, 26-28 April 2000 | Adopted by the World Education Forum |
| EFA Flagship on the Right to Education for Persons with Disabilities 2001 | UN body and stakeholders partnership |

### 5.2.2 Constitution

The constitutions of all three countries guarantee equality before the law for all their citizens. Each prohibits a number of forms of discrimination with one country mentioning three and another as many as twelve. None of the three constitutions list people who have impairments as a group at risk of discrimination, nor do they explicitly mention the right to equity specifically for people who are disabled. The forms of discrimination outlawed in the constitutions are as follows:

- Origin
- Language
- Race
- Religion
- Gender
- Ethnicity
- Nationality
- Colour
- Sect
- Belief
- Opinion
- Economic Status
- Social Status

Equal opportunities to all public rights are guaranteed by all three constitutions; two of the documents mention social security specifically for people who are disabled, and another, healthcare. One constitution is particularly comprehensive and specifies rehabilitation and reintegration for people who are disabled as a constitutional right, recognises the right of parents to provide special care for a child who is disabled, and requires the state to provide housing and care if needed. Aspects of education that are covered in the constitutions include the following:

- Ensuring access
- Combating illiteracy
- Providing free education for some stages
- Specifying the stages of education that are compulsory

None of the three constitutions, however, specifies the right to education explicitly for those who are disabled. This is something that some countries around the world
have enshrined in their constitutions as the highest law (World Policy Analysis Center, 2013).

### 5.2.3 Disability Law

Two of the participating countries had a law dedicated to disability issues. One country had a disability orientated labour law. The laws are dated 2006, 2007 and 2011. All three laws provide a definition of disability and one even included a definition of inclusion.

Inclusion: Provision of programmes, plans and policies leading to disabled people fully placed in inclusive settings in all aspects of life without any segregation and on an equal footing with others. *

When assessed in line with the Indicators, it was found that the two laws exclusive to disability covered the following issues:

- Right to education
- Access to secondary education
- Assessment
- Community schools
- Accessibility
- Support Staff
- Technology
- Functional assistance
- Educational measures
- Braille/sign language
- Training of staff
- Employment of staff
- Monitoring
- Access to tertiary education


### 5.2.4 Disability Strategy

Two of the participating countries had strategy documents specifically for disability and the other country had disability incorporated as a sub-category to 'vulnerable groups' in their general development strategy document. Two of the strategy documents covered the period of 2012-2016 and the other 2010-2015.

All three strategies mentioned the intention for children who are disabled to be included in public schools. One of them defined inclusive education using the key words 'flexible', 'accommodate', 'diverse abilities', and it also expressed that the focus extended beyond only children who are disabled to other groups at risk of marginalisation*. Furthermore, in the same document there was mention of aligning strategies with the UNCRPD and with modern trends, and extending the provision of inclusive education to children who have been traditionally more vulnerable to exclusion such as children with severe impairments, hearing impairment and autism. Other significant words found in the documents were 'empowering', 'equity' and 'partnerships'*.

These documents, in addition to outlining the basic right to inclusive education, specified the provisions and accommodations necessary to ensure the success of the strategy. These included issues of the extent of inclusive education such as coverage beyond pilot programmes to all areas and to all schools, including early childhood education, and provision of transportation so all can benefit. Relationships with parents were mentioned along with the importance of partnership and the coordination of efforts with other stakeholders and government ministries. Skilled staff were considered an important part of all strategies. There was some recognition of needs for whole school improvement, but primarily the focus was on targeting the individual needs of students who are disabled. Provision of resources, facilities, reviewing curriculum and adaptive technology was also mentioned.

One of the strategies gave details about periodic evaluation of services, a monitoring committee and on-going development based on evidence. Another strategy put emphasis on developing the administration structures deemed necessary for ensuring appropriate education opportunities for children who are disabled.

### 5.2.5 Education Law

General Education legislation of the three participating countries set out their goals and framework for the provision of education. All three laws contained articles specifying a) equal rights to education, b) that education is compulsory and c) free, and that d) the Ministry of Education is responsible for staffing, provision of teaching and learning materials, appropriate buildings and curriculum.

Two of the laws gave particular mention of children who are disabled:
The Ministry should establish classes and schools which guarantee care for a) slow learners, deaf, and blind, b) gifted and talented*.

Provide a variety of educational opportunities based on the different individual needs of students taking consideration of gifted and talented students and enriching their experiences and taking care of slow learners and those with special needs, following up their progress and including those who are able to be in the education system*.

### 5.2.6 Education Strategy

All three countries had a national or regional strategy for the development and improvement of education. One covered a three year duration, another four years, and the other up to ten years. Only one of the strategies indicated the support of international agencies in development of the strategy (US Agency for International Development and the Canadian International Development Agency). The other two appear to be exclusively the result of efforts by the Ministry of Education and the Ministry of Planning. They do mention consideration and conformity to international standards such as the Millennium Development Goals (UN General Assembly, 2000), drawing on experience from other countries and alignment with other national plans and strategies, national law and the constitution.

Two of the strategies specifically mention children who are disabled and ensuring their access to education. One planned for diagnostic testing, specialised programmes and resources and the other referred to following the progress of children who are disabled and the educational integration of some of them. All
three strategies placed strong emphasis on ensuring that education is for all. General improvement of school quality was also central to all three strategies as was curriculum improvement, and modernisation. Terminology in regards to general education improvements which is supportive of inclusive education was found throughout the Education Strategy documents. Some of this is noted below:

Education for all terminology:
Universal access
Education opportunities for all
Educational opportunities for every citizen
Quality of education terminology:
Improve the quality of education
Excellence
Curriculum improvement terminology:
Updating
Development
Full review
Revamp
Renewal
Quality improvement
Modernisation terminology:
International standards/norms
Compete with global community
Align with contemporary best practice

The review of the three Education Strategies using the Legislation Questionnaire A resulted in the findings displayed in Table 5-4. This table displays the 'yes/no' responses to the 18 questions from the Legislation Questionnaire A.

Table 5-4: Assessment of National Education Strategies for three countries

|  |  | $\square=$ response from one country |  |
| :--- | :--- | :---: | :---: |
| Legislative Questionnaire A Questions | Supportive for inclusive education? |  |  |
|  | No | Yes |  |
| 1 | Inclusive education |  | $\square$ |
| 2 | Free of cost |  | $\square$ |
| 3 | Secondary education |  |  |
| 4 | Participation in decision-making | $\square$ |  |
| 5 | Categorisation and assessment | $\square$ | $\square$ |


| 6 | Community schools | $\square \square$ | $\square$ |
| :---: | :--- | :---: | :---: |
| 7 | Accessibility | $\square$ | $\square \square$ |
| 8 | Learning process | $\square \square$ | $\square$ |
| 9 | Classroom sizes | $\square \square$ | $\square$ |
| 10 | Adaptive technology | $\square \square$ | $\square \square$ |
| 11 | Functional support | $\square \square \square$ | $\square$ |
| 12 | Educational support | $\square \square$ | $\square \square$ |
| 13 | Braille and Sign language | $\square$ | $\square \square \square$ |
| 14 | Augmentative or alternative communication | $\square$ |  |
| 15 | Training staff | $\square \square$ | $\square \square \square$ |
| 16 | Employing staff |  |  |
| 17 | Tertiary education | $\square$ |  |
| 18 | Monitoring | $\square$ |  |

It can be seen that seven of the review questions had completely positive responses across all three countries in the education strategies. It must be noted that negative review (or 'no' response) does not always mean that the issue was presented negatively in the education strategy or necessarily hindering to the progression of inclusive education. It most often indicated that the issue was not mentioned or not covered adequately.

### 5.2.7 Inclusive Education Law

The rules and law regulating provision of education specifically to children who are disabled in one of the countries were primarily focused on the administration of special institutes although they did mention guidelines for assessing students for integration into the regular classroom*. The legislation of another of the countries included strong statements about equal opportunities, resourcing and appropriate programmes*. The other country did not have specific law in this regard.

### 5.2.8 Inclusive Education Strategy

Only one country had a dedicated strategy document for education of children who are disabled. The key informant who provided access to this strategy mentioned
that the Ministry of Education hesitates to call it an inclusive education strategy because, while working progressively towards that, there are still other models being practiced and the strategy does not expect inclusion of all types of impairments in first stages of implementation. Detailing the Ministry of Education priorities for education of students who are disabled, there is mention of strategies which align with many of the Indicators (Table 5-5).

Table 5-5: Strategy aligned with the Indicators

|  | Indicator | Strategy |
| :--- | :--- | :---: |
| 1 | Right to inclusive education | $\checkmark$ |
| 2 | Free primary inclusive education |  |
| 3 | Equal access to community schools |  |
| 4 | Equal access to tertiary education | $\checkmark$ |
| 5 | Participation in decision making | $\checkmark$ |
| 6 | Assessment procedures | $\checkmark$ |
| 7 | Architectural conditions | $\checkmark$ |
| 8 | Staff and technology to support the learning process |  |
| 9 | Accommodation of educational measures |  |
| 10 | Facilitation of other forms communication |  |
| 11 | Qualified teachers |  |
| 12 | Monitoring |  |
| 13 | Awareness |  |
| 14 | Progression |  |

### 5.3 Findings: Policy Questionnaire B

This tool was made up of three different questionnaires. Policy Questionnaire B1 and Policy Questionnaire B2 are each made up of 11 questions addressing policy commitment to inclusive education at the national or regional level. Policy Questionnaire B3 has 16 questions and a focus on local level policy. Table 5-6 shows which questions from the three questionnaires relate to which Indicators.

Table 5-6: Correspondence between Policy Questionnaires B1, B2 and B3 and the Indicators - Policy

| \# | Indicator | Question numbers |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 1 | Right to inclusive education | $\begin{gathered} \text { B1.1 B2.1, B3.1 } \\ \text { B1.2, B2.2 } \\ \text { B3.3, B3.9 } \end{gathered}$ |
| 2 | Free primary inclusive education | B1.3, B2.3 |
| 3 | Equal access to community schools | $\begin{gathered} \hline \text { B3.9 } \\ \text { B3.12 } \end{gathered}$ |
| 4 | Equal access to tertiary education | B3.11 |
| 5 | Participation in decision making | x |
| 6 | Assessment procedures | B1.8, B2.8 B1.9, B2.9 B3.4, B3.6, B3.8, B3.12 |
| 7 | Architectural conditions | $\begin{gathered} \text { B1.4, B2.4 } \\ \text { B3.2 } \\ \text { B3.5 } \\ \hline \end{gathered}$ |
| 8 | Staff and technology to support the learning process | $\begin{gathered} \text { B1.5, B2.5 } \\ \text { B3.5 } \\ \hline \end{gathered}$ |
| 9 | Accommodation of educational measures | $\begin{gathered} \hline \text { B1.6, B2.6 } \\ \text { B1.7, B2.7 } \\ \text { B3.7 } \end{gathered}$ |
| 10 | Facilitation of other forms communication | x |
| 11 | Qualified teachers | $\begin{gathered} \hline \text { B1.10, B2.10 } \\ \text { B3.14 } \\ \hline \end{gathered}$ |
| 12 | Monitoring | B3.13 |
| 13 | Awareness | B3.15 B3.3, B3.10 |
| 14 | Progression | x |

Findings from the first and second Policy Questionnaires (B1 and B2) are presented together as they are essentially the same and key informants used only one or the other depending on whether they represented the national or regional level. The only difference between these two questionnaires is the wording of the questions with B2 using the word 'regional' in the place of 'national'. Key informants from the national or regional level were asked to rate how well different issues were reflected in policy and legislation. Their responses were in the form of a rating from one to six with six being the most positive. As part of the process of analysis, these ratings were transformed to a four-point scale in order to conform to the Inclusion Barometer rating scale within which all findings are compiled. The following table displays these four-point scale ratings assigned through Policy Questionnaire

B1/B2 (Table 5-7). The left column lists the questions from the questionnaire, although it excludes question 11 as it pertains to the dimension of progress and as such is covered in Chapter 7. Ratings given by the key informants are presented visually with each country rating represented by a black square.

Table 5-7: Policy Questionnaires B1 and B2 ratings of three countries

|  | ■ rating for one country |  |  |  |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  | Policy Questionnaire B1 and B2 questions | Hindering | $\begin{gathered} \text { Partly } \\ \text { hindering } \end{gathered}$ | Partly supportive | Supportive |
| 1 | Effective policy for inclusive education |  | $\square$ | $\square \square$ |  |
| 2 | Effective legislation for inclusive education |  | $\square$ | $\square \square$ |  |
| 3 | Legislation for free inclusive education |  | ■■ |  |  |
| 4 | Legislation for reasonable accommodation |  | ■■■ |  |  |
| 5 | Legislation for general support required |  | $\square \square$ | $\square$ |  |
| 6 | Legislation for individualised support | $\square$ | $\square \square$ |  |  |
| 7 | Legislation for accommodation of education measures | $\square$ | $\square \square$ |  |  |
| 8 | Categorisation procedures support inclusive education |  | $\square$ | $\square \square$ |  |
| 9 | School evaluation procedures support inclusive education | $\square$ | $\square$ | $\square$ |  |
| 10 | Legislation regarding training teachers in inclusive education |  | $\square \square$ | $\square$ |  |

It can be seen in this table that, while no country was rated 'supportive' on any question, three questions showed two 'partly supportive' ratings which will be picked up on in the Discussion chapter (Chapter 8). Table 5-8 follows the same format as the previous table. It displays the ratings of key informants at the local level in response to Policy Questionnaire B3. Responses have again been converted to conform to the barometer rating scale (Chapter 3, section 3.8.3). The questionnaire contained 16 questions, 15 of which are displayed. Question 16 is related to progress and is dealt with in Chapter 7. The barometer rating structure showing 'hindering' through to 'supportive' is again used to assess how well each topic is reflected in local policy. Because the questionnaire was used for three
participating countries, the table displays three sets of results per question with each country represented by a black square.

Table 5-8: Policy Questionnaire B3 ratings of three countries

|  |  |  | ■ = rating for one country |  |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  | Policy Questionnaire B3 questions <br> - rated as to how well the issues are reflected in local policy | Hindering | $\begin{gathered} \text { Partly } \\ \text { hindering } \end{gathered}$ | $\begin{gathered} \text { Partly } \\ \text { supportive } \end{gathered}$ | Supportive |
| 1 | Effective policy for inclusive education |  | $\square \square$ | $\square$ |  |
| 2 | Systematic approach towards barrier-free |  | $\square \square$ | $\square$ |  |
| 3 | Key actors support inclusive education |  | $\square$ | $\square \square$ |  |
| 4 | Categorisation procedures support inclusive education. |  | $\square$ | $\square$ |  |
| 5 | Appropriate classroom conditions |  | $\square \square$ |  |  |
| 6 | School evaluation procedures support inclusive education |  | ■■■ |  |  |
| 7 | Educational assistance beyond school |  | $\square$ | $\square$ |  |
| 8 | Systematic learning evaluation |  | $\square \square$ |  |  |
| 9 | Planned and supported transition |  | $\square$ | $\square$ |  |
| 10 | Cooperation between sectors |  |  | $\square$ |  |
| 11 | Transition to vocational training | $\square$ | $\square$ | $\square$ |  |
| 12 | No restriction on severe/complex disabilities | $\square$ | $\square$ |  |  |
| 13 | Examples of good local practice |  | $\square$ | $\square \square$ |  |
| 14 | 'On the job' teacher training |  | $\square$ | $\square$ |  |
| 15 | Provider organisations support inclusive education |  | $\square \square$ | $\square$ |  |

Note: The key respondent from one country chose not to rate some of the questions citing lack of knowledge

It can be seen in this table that although there were no questions that received a positive rating from all three countries, there were three questions that had two positive ratings; question 3,10 and 13 . These positive ratings will be considered further in the discussion chapter.

### 5.4 INCLUSION BAROMETER RATINGS

The questions from the Policy Questionnaires were used for triangulation with the researcher's review of legislation through the Legislation Questionnaire. Additional documentation (reports, articles, reviews and studies) was also used to confirm or refute the ratings as part of the analysis and determination of the overall barometer rating. The resulting barometer ratings are displayed country by country. They rank each country on the consistency of legislation in relation to each Indicator of inclusive education derived from the UNCRPD. Through this, it is attempted to answer the first research question; what opportunities for inclusive education can be found in national education policies?

Table 5-9 and Table 5-10 provide examples of how the process of analysis as described in the Methodology (Chapter 3, section 3.8) was applied to one data group to result in a barometer rating. The tables follow through the first five steps of the framework of analysis.

Table 5-9: Example of the analysis framework applied to the findings of Indicator 3, Country X

| Indicator 3 | Legislation ensures equal access to regular schools in the community |  |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Step 1, 2 and 3 |  |  |  |
| Data display (pattern matching - data group) | Data reduction (responses reduced from data gathering tools) |  | Data transformation (convert all data to 4-point scale) |
| $\begin{gathered} \text { A.3, A.6, B3.9, } \\ \text { B3.12 } \end{gathered}$ | Findings from Tool A | A. $3=3 / 4$, A. $6=3 / 4$ | 3 (partly supportive) |
|  | Findings from Tool B3 | B3.12=3/6, B3.9 $=3 / 6$ | 2 (partly hindering) |

Step 4 Data correlation (Triangulation within data groups)
Findings from additional documentation Convergent (no correction of rating needed)

## Step 5 Data consolidation (data group coding)

| Rating criteria applied (Appendix B) | Rating assigned | Barometer |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |

Table 5-10: Example of the analysis framework applied to the findings of Indicator 6, Country X


The barometer ratings in Table 5-11, Table 5-12 and Table 5-13 represent the findings of the data analysis for the policy dimension of the study with the Indicators shown beside each rating. The barometers illustrate the ratings both pictorially and with a colour coding. The two negative ratings are 'hindering for progressive implementation' of inclusive education and 'partly hindering for progressive implementation'; the positive ratings are 'partly supportive for progressive implementation' and 'supportive for progressive implementation' of inclusive education. These ratings are the same as those used in the Pathways to Inclusion (P2i) Toolkit that is being replicated (Zentrum für Planung und Evaluation, 2009).

### 5.4.1 Country X

Table 5-11: Policy Barometer rating - Country X


For this country the strengths that were noted were related to the right and access to community school, staff and technological support for inclusion and in awareness activities. These points will be picked up in the discussion.

### 5.4.2 Country Y

Table 5-12: Policy Barometer Rating - Country Y



| Hindering for progressive implementation |
| :--- |
| Partly hindering for progressive implementation |
| Partly supportive for progressive implementation |
| Supportive for progressive implementation |

It can be seen in this table that policy for this country was rated supportive for inclusive education against four indicators. The rating of Indicator 2, free access to primary school, was rated the most supportive. These will be discussed further in Chapter eight.

### 5.4.3 Country Z

Table 5-13: Policy Barometer Rating - Country Z

|  | Indicators |
| :---: | :---: |
| Staff and <br> technology to <br> support the <br> learning process | Rating |


13 Awareness

| Hindering for progressive implementation |
| :--- |
| Partly hindering for progressive implementation |
| Partly supportive for progressive implementation |
| Supportive for progressive implementation |

Policy in this country was rated supportive of inclusive education in four areas. These were related to the right and access to inclusive education in community schools, accommodation of education measures and in awareness. These will be picked up on in the discussion chapter (Chapter 8).

# CHAPTER SIX FINDINGS: PRACTICE 

### 6.1 InTRODUCTION

Because the impact of policy lies in its implementation, the second guiding research question directs the study towards seeking evidence of inclusive education in line with the United Nations Convention on the Rights of Persons with Disabilities (UNCRPD).

What type and amount of access to schooling for children who are disabled is taking place?

Findings were drawn from two of the questionnaires and two of the interviews; the National Education Landscape Questionnaires C1 (Appendix P) completed by a national or regional level key informant from each country, the School Questionnaire (Appendix R) completed by the school principals, and the Local Education Landscape Interview (Appendix S) and Typical Learning Career Interview (Appendix T) both conducted with the local level key informant for each country. The responses to the questions in the questionnaires and interviews provide raw data for organisation into 13 data groups. Table 6-1 outlines the data groups as they correspond to the Indicators.

Table 6-1: Correspondence between questionnaires and interviews and the Indicators - practice

|  | C1=National Education Landscape Questionnaire <br> D=School Questionnaire <br> $\mathrm{E}=$ Local Education Landscape Interview <br> $\mathrm{F}=$ Typical Learning Career Interview |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| \# | Indicator | Question numbers |
| 1 | Right to inclusive education | $\begin{gathered} \hline \text { C1.1, C1.2, C1.3 } \\ \text { D2,4,5,6,8,17 } \\ \text { E.3 } \\ \text { F.2,3,4 } \end{gathered}$ |
| 2 | Free primary inclusive education | C1.4 |
| 3 | Equal access to community schools | $\begin{gathered} \text { C1.7 } \\ \text { D14,15,16 } \\ \text { F.1,5 } \end{gathered}$ |
| 4 | Equal access to tertiary education | $\begin{gathered} \text { C1.18 } \\ \text { D. } 21,22 \\ \text { E. } 4 \\ \text { F6 } \\ \hline \end{gathered}$ |
| 5 | Participation in decision making | C1.5 |
| 6 | Assessment procedures | C1.6 |
| 7 | Architectural conditions | $\begin{aligned} & \text { C1.8,10 } \\ & \text { D.18b,c } \end{aligned}$ |
| 8 | Staff and technology to support the learning process | $\begin{gathered} \text { C1.9,11,12 } \\ \text { D.11,12,18a } \\ \hline \end{gathered}$ |
| 9 | Accommodation of educational measures | $\begin{gathered} \hline \text { C1.13 } \\ \text { D. } 9,10 \\ \hline \end{gathered}$ |
| 10 | Facilitation of other forms communication | C1.14,15 |
| 11 | Qualified teachers | C1.16,17 |
| 12 | Monitoring | C1.19 |
| 13 | Awareness | $\begin{aligned} & \text { D. } 20 \\ & \text { E. } 5,6 \\ & \hline \end{aligned}$ |
| 14 | Progression | x |

It should be noted that Indicator 14 shows no data group in Table 6-1. This is because this chapter reports the findings from the dimension of practice, but Indicator 14 is related only to the dimension of progress and as such will be reported on in Chapter seven. Each data group contained a variety of response types some of which were rating scales, statistics, multiple-choice comments and direct answers. Table 6-2 provides a more detailed example of a data group.

Table 6-2: Example of a data group

| Indicator 9 | Data collected from each country |
| :--- | :--- |
| Practice of | • National Education Landscape Questionnaire C1 question 13 (1-4 rating - |
| accommodation of national level key informant) <br> educational • School Questionnaire D question 9 (yes/no response - school principals x 3) <br> measures • School Questionnaire D question 10 (numerical - school principals x 3) <br>  • Any additional comments or references provided by the key informants |  |

Every data group is supplemented by additional documentation for use in triangulation of the findings. These documents are considered part of the data and include reports, articles, reviews and studies related to each country.

Analysis followed a framework of seven steps, with a rating being assigned to each data group after the first five steps for each country. The rating shows how supportive their practice was for the progressive implementation of inclusive education for children who are disabled (see Methodology Chapter 3, section 3.9). The steps include rating each piece of raw data according to the four-point scale, triangulating these ratings with additional documentation to confirm the rating or note any divergence, followed by applying a set of criteria to combine the ratings into one rating presented as a barometer reading.

In order to protect the identity of the key informants who contributed to this study, countries are not identified by name in this chapter. The three countries have been assigned a code, 'Country X', 'Country Y' and 'Country Z', which will be used if necessary. However, most of the time when discussing ratings, opinions and comments from key informants, language such as 'one country' and 'two of the countries' will be used. Furthermore, in line with the theoretical foundations and purposes of this study, comparison of countries is avoided. As such, there are times throughout the findings where data is presented devoid of country labels, neither name nor code. When literature is cited that could identify a country, the symbol '*" will indicate that the citation has been omitted from the manuscript, but included in the reference list.

### 6.2 Findings

With the National Education Landscape Questionnaire central to most of the data groups, the following table (Table 6-3) summarises the responses to the 19 questions. It shows where the ratings of the three countries were positioned according to the four-point scale with 1 representing the 'hindering' to implementation of inclusive education and 4 'supportive'.

Table 6-3: National Education Landscape Questionnaire C1 ratings of three countries

|  |  | $\square$ = rating for one country |  |  |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  | National Education Landscape Questionnaire C1 questions | Hindering | Partly hindering | Partly supportive | Supportive |
| 1 | Practice at preschool level | $\square \square$ |  |  |  |
| 2 | Practice at primary level |  | $\square$ | $\square$ |  |
| 3 | Practice at secondary level | $\square$ | $\square$ |  |  |
| 4a | Direct costs | $\square$ |  |  | $\square \square$ |
| 4b | Indirect costs | $\square$ | $\square$ |  | $\square$ |
| 5 | Participation in decision making |  | $\square \square$ |  |  |
| 6 | Assessment procedures | - | $\square$ | $\square$ |  |
| 7 | Equal access to community schools |  | $\square$ | $\square$ |  |
| 8 | Architectural conditions |  | $\square \square$ | $\square$ |  |
| 9 | Support staff | $\square$ | $\square \square$ |  |  |
| 10 | Classroom sizes | $\square$ | $\square$ |  |  |
| 11 | Technology | $\square$ | $\square$ | $\square$ |  |
| 12 | Functional assistance and care |  | $\square$ | $\square$ |  |
| 13 | Educational measures |  | $\square \square$ |  |  |
| 14 | Braille and sign language | $\square$ | $\square$ | $\square$ |  |
| 15 | Augmentative communication | $\square$ | $\square \square$ |  |  |
| 16 | Training of staff | $\square$ | $\square$ |  |  |
| 17 | Employment of staff | $\square$ | $\square$ |  |  |
| 18 | Equal access to tertiary education | $\square$ | $\square$ | $\square$ |  |
| 19 | Monitoring | $\square$ | $\square$ | $\square$ |  |

It can be seen for example, that based on the responses to question 7 'equal access to community schools', key informants from two countries considered the practice in their country to be somewhat hindering to inclusive education which can be understood as a fairly low rating, and the responses from one country represented a higher rating (partly supportive) suggesting more support for inclusive education.

### 6.2.1 Practice of inclusive education on preschool, primary school and secondary level (Indicator 1)

This Indicator focuses simply on the right to be included in school, or more clearly, to be not excluded on the basis of impairment. With three very different levels of schooling covered in one Indicator, three parallel questions from the National Education Landscape Questionnaire were used for gathering data. These questions ask the key informant from each country to provide statistics along with their assessment of the situation. Also, from the School Interview D, responses from nine school principals (three from each country) to six questions provide some basic statistics from their education institute including the type of school and the form (if any) inclusive education takes. Question 3 from the Local Education Landscape Interview brings in the perspective of transition between the levels as described by a local informant from each country, as also do questions 2, 3 and 4 from the Typical Learning Career Interview. With such a broad Indicator, many questions are used to provide coverage of the issue (Table 6-4).

Table 6-4: Questions for Indicator 1, Practice

| Levels | Tool | Question \# | Respondents |
| :---: | :--- | :---: | :--- |
| Preschool | National Education <br> Landscape <br> Questionnaire C1 | 1 | National/Regional key informant |
|  | National Education <br> Landscape <br> Questionnaire C1 | 2 | National/Regional key informant |
| Secondary | Typical Learning Career <br> Interview F | Landscape <br> Questionnaire C1 | 2 |
|  | Typical Learning Career <br> Interview F | 4 | Local level key informant |
| Transition | Local Education <br> Landscape Interview E | 3 | National/Regional key informant |
|  | Typical Learning Career <br> Interview F | 3 | Local level key informant level key informant |
|  | School Questionnaire | $2,4,5,6,8,17$ | School Principal |

The questions from the National Education Landscape Questionnaire are formulated according the emphasis of 'not in school' or 'not included'.

Sample question 2:
Children with disabilities or SEN not in regular primary schools .\%
[Emphasis added].

This form of questioning, with the focus on those not enrolled more commonly referred to as 'out-of-school', is believed by UNESCO (2009b) to be an effective way to identify marginalisation and recognise the reality of practice. This measurement also allows for more accurate action planning and policy formation. They point out that in order to plan to reach the Millennium Development Goal of universal education (UN General Assembly, 2000), a country must know the who and the how many of the population of out-of-school children. The recommendation is that where there is no data collection on out-of-school children, it should become a matter of national policy to develop a mechanism for obtaining this data (UNESCO, 2009b).

The key informant from only one of the countries was able to provide statistics on out-of-school children with impairments (as displayed in Figure 6-1).


Figure 6-1: School enrollment for children who are disabled in one country

The key informant stressed that these were only general figures and not verified. According to UNESCO (2009b) the Education For All reporting process also confirmed that, while many countries have sophisticated statistics about their education provision, data on out-of-school children who are disabled is generally not routinely collected.

One of the respondents explained that in their country, while education is considered compulsory, it is not actively enforced. They said that providing education to all, in practice is interpreted to mean that it is offered as a potential opportunity for all. Under this understanding, the Ministry of Education is responsible for, and collects data on only those who choose to access education. It is also suggested by UNESCO (2009b) that from a political perspective, data on out-of-school children may be less desirable as it can serve to represent the government programmes as less effective or provide a more pessimistic 'glass-halfempty' take on their efforts.

The key informant for one country provided figures of the students with impairments accessing school and claimed that they represented about $10 \%$ of the school population. They further claimed that there are very few children who would be considered out-of-school during the primary and compulsory school ages as there are strict legal consequences for non-enrolment in their country. While most children may go to school, the informant clarified that this does not mean that all these students are supported as required or are participating in programmes suitable to their educational needs. It only indicates that the parents are sending their children to school and they are being accepted for enrolment. The following table (Table 6-5) displays the statistics they provided for the academic year 2012/2013.

Table 6-5: Ministry of Education SEN statistics for academic year 2012/2013

| Students with impairments <br>  <br> of the total school enrolment <br> of |  |
| :--- | :---: | :--- |
| Primary | $9.09 \%$ |
| Intermediate | $5.23 \%$ |
| Secondary | $3.07 \%$ |
| Total | $6.66 \%$ |

Question 4 of the School Questionnaire D asked school principals to report the total number of students enrolled in their school and question 6 asked how many of this total were students with impairments. The responses reveal that between $1 \%$ and $3 \%$ of the school populations reported on were children who are disabled.

When asked what form inclusive education for students who are disabled takes, principals from eight schools responded by selecting from multiple-choice options. Their selections are displayed in the following table (Table 6-6).

Table 6-6: Responses to question 8 of the School Questionnaire

| Question 8: In which form do you practice inclusive education of <br> persons with disabilities in your school? (multiple answers <br> possible) | No. of Responses |
| :--- | :---: |
| The respective persons are part of the study group without further support | 4 |
| The respective persons are part of the study group with support | 5 |
| Group or class of integration | 1 |

As seen in the following table (Table 6-7), in additional documentation it was noted that in one country there was a lower rate of progression on to secondary school for students who are disabled when compared to that of the general population.

Table 6-7: Progression from primary to secondary school in one country

|  | Disabled population | General population |
| :--- | :---: | :---: |
| Only complete primary school | $37.5 \%$ | $30.6 \%$ |
| Progress onto secondary <br> school | $11.8 \%$ | $23.7 \%$ |
| $*$ |  |  |

Private education institutions generally had a low representation in the data and were explained by a key informant as having the freedom to refuse admission to
anyone and as being "business and profit driven [where] special needs are a burden". In terms of preschool level inclusive education, respondents to the Typical Learning Career Interview from two of the countries pointed out that early childhood care/education was primarily the responsibility of the Ministry of Social Affairs (or equivalent) or offered by private centres and therefore not somewhere that inclusive education was generally considered. This was further confirmed by documentation*.

The findings obtained through questionnaires and interviews suggest that, while none of the countries reviewed can yet claim practices fully supportive of progressive implementation of inclusive education across all three levels, each country has taken some opportunities and showed promise and support of inclusive education to some degree and in some way in public education.

### 6.2.2 Practice of free primary inclusive education (Indicator 2)

This Indicator refers to primary education for all being free of cost to the families. This can include direct fees and also indirect costs such as purchasing text books, uniforms, stationary, or costs related to individual needs such as access, transportation, communication, and adaptive devices. One question was used to collect data for this Indicator as shown in the following table (Table 6-8).

Table 6-8: Question for Indicator 2, Practice

| Tool | Question \# | Respondent |
| :--- | :---: | :--- |
| National Education Landscape <br> Questionnaire C1 | 4 | National/Regional key informant |

In the following sample it can be seen how the question for this Indicator was divided into two parts in order to consider both types of costs.

In practice, inclusive education of children with SEN in primary schools is, for their parents, related with:
-direct costs

-indirect costs
$\begin{array}{llllll} & & 1 & 2 & 3 & 4 \\ \text { Very high } & \bigcirc & 0 & & \\ \bigcirc & & \bigcirc & \text { None }\end{array}$

According to the responses gathered and confirmed through documentation, public education is free of direct cost in all three countries as a constitutional right. The following clauses from the three constitutions attest to the fact.

Education is compulsory and free in the early stages as specified and provided by law.*

Free education in all its stages is a right for all Iraqis. *
Elementary education shall be compulsory for Jordanians and free of charge in Government schools.*

It was in terms of indirect costs where findings differed. The response from one of the countries was that they cover indirect costs of all students and fund all specialised resources, technical aides, accessibility requirements and any other resource assessed as necessary. Responses from the other two countries were that they didn't cover these costs, but in their comments and interviews it was clear that they aspire to this but do not currently have the finances allocated for these requirements in their respective Ministries of Education. They explained that meeting indirect costs therefore becomes a very individualised process varying widely in success dependant on the presence of a competent advocate or fundraiser and the goodwill of those who might provide funding. According to their claims, the cost of some students' needs have been met by schools directly, by local education budgets, for some other students through organisations, or benevolent individuals, and for many others remain unmet. They say that unfortunately, the lack of the needed resources has often been cited as the direct cause of non-attendance in school.

All informants clarified that private education comes at a high cost and two informants suggested that while public education is free of cost, private education is preferable for those who can afford it. They shared the opinion that parents who really knew what they wanted for their children were usually those who could afford it and would use the private system to, as an informant said, "buy in resources and support for their children"*.

### 6.2.3 Practice of equal access to regular schools in the community (Indicator 3)

The terminology 'regular schools in the community' refers to those schools in the neighbourhood where children live and which they would attend if they did not have impairments. The alternative to this would be enrolling a student who is disabled in another school, either a segregated school, or even a regular school, but other than the school in the geographical location of their home and community which other children in their family or their neighbours might attend. While another school may be selected because it is more accessible, has a support teacher available, has resources available, has a more supportive principal, or has a cluster of students who are disabled attending; this type of alternative placement deviates from what the UNCRPD considers ideal inclusion (United Nations, 2006a). Table 6-9 lists the questions from the National Education Landscape Questionnaire C1, the School Questionnaire and the Typical Learning Career Interview which were used to collect data against this Indicator.

Table 6-9: Questions for Indicator 3, Practice

| Tool | Question \# | Respondent |
| :--- | :---: | :--- |
| National Education Landscape <br> Questionnaire C1 | 7 | National/Regional key informant |
| School Questionnaire D | $\mathbf{1 4 , 1 5 , 1 6}$ | School Principal |
| Typical Learning Career Interview F | $\mathbf{1 , 5}$ | Local level key informant |

The following table (Table 6-10) collates the responses from school principals to questions 14 and 15 of the School Questionnaire D.

Table 6-10: Responses to questions 14 and 15 of the School Questionnaire

| Regarding admission inquiries of persons with disabilities that have been rejected |
| :--- |
| during the past five years: <br> Have there been any? |
| 6 'yes' responses |$\quad 1$ 'no' response | How many? |
| :--- |
| How, $3,5-15,5,3-10,7$ |
| Reasons for rejection? |
| curriculum <br> physical access <br> support <br> needs of rest of class <br> principal <br> finances <br> nature of disability <br> staff skills <br> resources |

One key informant stated that;
SEN [Special Education Needs] students do not have access to all public schools since not all schools have the appropriate programs to support their needs. It all depends on the requirements of the students.*

However, they did not consider this to pose a difficulty as they pointed out that transportation was provided for all students.

### 6.2.4 Practice of equal access to tertiary education (Indicator 4)

'Tertiary education' is used in this Indicator to refer to general higher education institutions (universities, colleges), vocational training, adult education and lifelong learning. As this Indicator relates to inclusive education, it specifically means those higher education institutes which are accessed by the general population as opposed to programmes developed especially or exclusively for people who are disabled. A range of questions from four different questionnaires and interviews were used to gain coverage of this question. The questions contributing to the data group for this Indicator are listed below in Table 6-11.

Table 6-11: Questions for Indicator 4, Practice

| Tool | Question \# | Respondent |
| :--- | :---: | :--- |
| National Education Landscape <br> Questionnaire C1 | 18 | National/Regional key informant |
| School Questionnaire D | 21,22 | School Principal |
| Local Education Landscape Interview E | 4 | Local level key informant |
| Typical Learning Career Interview F | 6 | Local level key informant |
|  |  |  |
| Karen Chesterton Khayat | 159 |  |

The following table (Table 6-12) summarises responses from eight principals of schools to the School Questionnaire D, question 21.

Table 6-12: Responses to question 21 of the School Questionnaire
Question 21: Does the transition into successive schools, esp into vocational trainings, differ comparing graduates with disabilities and non-disabled ones?

Number of responses

| No | 1 |
| :--- | :--- |
| Only for a few | 5 |
| question not applicable to the situation of this school | 2 |

It can be seen that there was only one response suggesting equal access to tertiary education for students who are disabled. Although one of the respondents to the question from the National Education Landscape Questionnaire felt that there was some supportive practice of ensuring equal access to for people who are disabled to vocational and lifelong learning, positive reports were isolated to that one country. Two informants discussed transition questions in the interviews (Local Education Landscape Interview E and Typical Learning Career Interview F) during which they identified the shortfalls in the quality of primary and secondary education as factors negatively impacting access to tertiary education for students who are disabled.

Some of the comments of respondents:
According to law, yes (there is equal access to tertiary education), but because they do not receive a complete education at the primary and secondary levels, very few reach this level.*

The biggest issue with partial inclusion [is that the] graduation certificate doesn't carry the same weight. It is not held in any regard in any higher education institute. So much effort is put in up to secondary, then there is nowhere for them to go.*

### 6.2.5 Practice of participation in decision making on inclusive education (Indicator 5)

The UNCRPD requires state parties to ensure that children who are disabled are provided with the support needed in order to express their views about whatever affects them. Their views should be considered equal to the view of a child without a disability. Question 5 in the National Education Landscape Questionnaire asks a
national or regional level key informant how a parental preference for inclusive education is responded to (Table 6-13).

Table 6-13: Questions for Indicator 5, Practice

| Tool | Question \# | Respondent |
| :--- | :---: | :---: |
| National Education Landscape <br> Questionnaire C 1 | 5 | National/Regional key informant |

All three key informants responded that if a parent articulates a preference for inclusive education in their country it is 'sometimes' followed. From the comments key informants gave to support their responses, it was understood that inclusive education strategies in two of the participating countries could be directly linked to advocacy efforts by parents for the rights of their children with a disabilities access to public education. In one of the countries there was not a government inclusion strategy, instead, according to the key informant, almost all of the inclusive education activities are a direct result of individual efforts of parents approaching their local school and requesting the enrolment of their child. While this is a big claim, they clarified that what is implied is that schools are not generally accepting the responsibility of including children who are disabled, so it only really happens for those parents who don't accept the rejection and take the issue further. Some of the comments included the following:

The system to support students who are disabled or who have SEN [special educational needs] often works against the interests and aspirations of families.*

Parents often do not have good information about what they can expect from schools and have limited choices about the best schools and care for their child.*

Recently there has been a lot of advocacy from parents, to ask for their child's right in public education.*

### 6.2.6 Practice of assessment procedures supportive of inclusive education (Indicator 6)

This Indicator reflects the principle found in the UNCRPD that inclusive education is directed at developing the personality, talents, creativity and abilities of students
who are disabled to their "fullest potential" (United Nations, 2006a, Article 24, section 1b). The implication is that to be supportive of inclusive education, procedures used in assessing special education needs should be focused on potential rather than deficit (Hernandez, 2008). One question from the National Education Landscape Questionnaire C 1 (question 6) aligned with this Indicator (see Table 6-14).

Table 6-14: Questions for Indicator 6, Practice

| Tool | Question \# | Respondent |
| :--- | :---: | :---: |
| National Education Landscape <br> Questionnaire C1 | 6 | National/Regional key informant |

National or regional informants were asked to rate how true the following statement was for their country: 'The practiced procedures of assessment of special educational needs support inclusive education". The opinions of the key informants differed, with each giving a different rating, only one of which was in any way supportive for progressive realisation of inclusive education.

Assessment procedures of the participating countries as explained in the supporting comments from the key informants were primarily, and in some cases, exclusively, medical. Some included cooperation with the Ministry of Health, required doctors' reports or intelligence tests. Other comments are summarised below:

This level of assessment is where the placement decision was made and it would be determined whether the child was a candidate for inclusion or not and if so, which 'type of inclusion'.*

A child is initialled enrolled but the assessment process is used to identify the necessary supports to be put in place. The complaint with that approach has been if the necessary supports are delayed or not procured, the school is expected to continue regardless.*

The student enrols in the school based on the approval of the directorate of education.*

### 6.2.7 Practice of accommodation of individual access and learning requirements (architectural) (Indicator 7)

Within reason, the UNCRPD outlines that the needs individuals have are to be accommodated for within the school and classroom. This expectation is broken down into three Indicators with this first Indicator considering the architectural aspects and class size. Architectural aspects can include general design of schools as barrier free or accessible environments, or renovation to incorporate accessible features according to the requirements of the school population. Class size refers to the typical number of students in each classroom in an understanding that the fewer the students, the more time a classroom teacher has to respond to individual requirements (Hernandez, 2008). Four questions address this Indicator with two considering architectural arrangements and two class size (Table 6-15).

Table 6-15: Questions for Indicator 7, Practice

| Aspect | Tool | Question \# | Respondents |
| :---: | :--- | :---: | :--- |
| Architectural | National Education <br> Landscape <br> Questionnaire C1 | 8 | National/Regional key informant |
|  | School Questionnaire D | 18 b | School Principal |
|  | National Education <br> Landscape <br> Questionnaire C1 | 10 | National/Regional key informant |
|  | School Questionnaire D | 18 c | School Principal |

Table 6-16 displays the ratings from all three countries in line with the questions from both questionnaires. The responses are displayed using a four-point rating scale with 1 representing 'hindering' for the progressive realisation of inclusive education, 2 representing 'partly hindering', 3 representing 'partly supportive, and 4 'supportive'.

Table 6-16: Responses to questions from the National Education Landscape
Questionnaire and the School Questionnaire

|  | $\square$ = rating for one country |  |  |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Questions from the National Education Landscape Questionnaire C1 | Hindering | Partly hindering | Partly supportive | Supportive |
| 8. In practice architectural conditions in schools are accommodated to individual requirements of persons with SEN |  | $\square \square$ | $\square$ |  |
| 10. In practice classroom sizes are accommodated to individual requirements |  | - |  |  |
| Questions from the School Questionnaire |  |  |  |  |
| 18b. How do you evaluate the current situation of the inclusion of persons with disabilities in your school in terms of the spatial conditions? |  | $\square \square \square$ |  |  |
| 18c. How do you evaluate the current situation of the inclusion of persons with disabilities in your school in terms of the organisational conditions of the school? |  | $\square \square$ | $\square$ |  |

Informants from two countries articulated the same government response to accessibility in claiming that all new school buildings have accessibility features incorporated at design level and older school buildings are renovated as and when required to meet individual student needs. As stated by one key informant, occasionally instead of renovating, students with physical access needs are clustered in a school which is already accessible and transportation is provided. School principals from one country made the following comments:

We requested some modifications, but we are still waiting for them.*

## Our school is not suitable in both size and design.*

In one country it was noted in the comments that there is a discrepancy between class sizes in urban environments and rural. The key informant said that it was difficult to give an overall rating because urban class sizes were significantly larger. While the government intent and commitment was in place to reduce class size, they went on to claim that the reality of a rapidly growing young population and an education infrastructure attempting to keep pace, means that classrooms were often operating above capacity out of the obligation to provide access to education for all. In one of the countries, the key informant noted that due to ongoing
violence in the region, refugees and internally displaced populations further burden efforts to manage class sizes. Although recognised as not ideal, the immediate right to education was considered to take precedence, while efforts to improve the quality (including class size reduction) of the education provided were ongoing.

### 6.2.8 Practice of accommodation of individual access and learning requirements (personal/technical) (Indicator 8)

In order to support access and learning, it is helpful and often necessary to have appropriate staff available, to have adaptive technology, and, in cases where needed, to provide functional assistance and care. The results against this Indicator reflect these three groups of accommodations. Three different questions are asked in the National Education Landscape Questionnaire C 1 and three more in the School Questionnaire D shed further light on the provision of staff and resources (see Table 6-17).

Table 6-17: Questions for Indicator 8, Practice

| Aspect | Tool | Question \# | Respondents |
| :---: | :--- | :---: | :--- |
| Staff | National Education Landscape <br> Questionnaire C1 | 9 | National/Regional key <br> informant |
|  | School Questionnaire D | 18 a | School Principal |
| Technology | National Education Landscape <br> Questionnaire C | 11 | National/Regional key <br> informant |
|  | School Questionnaire D | 11,12 | School Principal |
| Functional <br> assistance and <br> care | National Education Landscape <br> Questionnaire C 1 | 12 | National/Regional key <br> informant |

While the national/regional level informants did not consider the staff support provided to be adequate, reports from school principals in two countries gave contrasting ratings of 'suitable', 'good', 'very good’, and 'satisfactory'. Findings suggest that support staff were available to support individual learning requirements in all three countries. However, there was a wide variance in the role and responsibilities assigned to these staff. Where these staff were situated lends understanding to the type of support they provide, whether 'partial inclusion classroom', 'resource rooms' or 'regular classroom'.

Findings in terms of the provision of adaptive technology were that either it was provided comprehensively or that it wasn't provided at all. One country was claimed to fund and to provide whatever is deemed necessary. Another country recognised that while these resources would be useful, it does not provide them. Responses gathered from school principals regarding whether or not their school supplies personnel or material resources to promote inclusion found six out of eight schools responding in the positive.

Functional assistance and care was claimed by the key informant of one country to be provided to a limited degree. According to the other key informants, their countries understood that students who require this type of assistance should be candidates for care through the programmes of the Ministry of Social Development (or equivalent) who often provide institutional care facilities for students with complex needs.

### 6.2.9 Practice of accommodation of educational measures (Indicator 9)

The educational accommodations that this Indicator refers to are those related to the curriculum, teaching, instruction, and testing. It is expected that there be flexibility in these areas to accommodate any impairments and to ensure that each student has equal opportunity to access, process and demonstrate learning. Three questions from the two questionnaires addressed this Indicator (see Table 6-18). One question reviewed general accommodation of education measures as assessed by key informants and the other two questions focused on curriculum differentiation in the classroom.

Table 6-18: Questions for Indicator 9, Practice

| Tool | Question \# | Respondent |
| :--- | :---: | :---: |
| National Education Landscape Questionnaire C1 | 13 | National/Regional key <br> informant |
| School Questionnaire D | 9,10 | School Principals |

Findings from two of the countries suggested that practices relating to accommodation of educational measures were actually somewhat hindering to
inclusive education; all of the national or regional level key informants gave a two out of four rating on practice which is considered 'partly hindering for progressive implementation of inclusive education'. Although one of them suggested they have differentiation of curriculum taking place for some children in the classroom, both informants from the other countries agreed that it was not taking place. These key informants confirmed that differentiation, or educational accommodation in their two countries was only formally taking place in settings where students were separated from other students either in special classrooms or in pull-out programmes. In the comments supporting their questionnaire responses, key informants gave added mention to the exception of blind students for whom accommodations of some sort were afforded to ensure that Braille or dictation was used in test settings. One informant stated that "all blind children are integrated"* and another said that "all blind students can participate in exams using dictation"*.

Somewhat of a contrast were the findings of the School Questionnaire D where half of the principals reported differentiation being offered in their schools and most of these were from one country. Interesting to note was that there was another country from which all the responses of school principals showed an absence of differentiation and there was only one country from which the responses were divided.

### 6.2.10 Practice of facilitation of learning of Braille, sign language and other forms of communication and orientation (Indicator 10)

Alternative forms of communication can be critical for ensuring education is accessible and inclusive for students with communication impairments, and visual or hearing impairments (Lord \& Brown, 2011). The UNCRPD recognises that there is a deaf community with a "linguistic identity" (United Nations, 2006a, Article 24, section 3 b). It acknowledges that there are appropriate communication methods for those who are blind and deaf-blind, and it recognises the importance of Braille along with other modes of communication. As seen in Table 6-19, two questions from the National Education Landscape Questionnaire C1 were used to deal with
this Indicator. The first question focused on Braille and sign language, and the second covered the issues of other augmentative and alternative communication forms.

Table 6-19: Questions for Indicator 10, Practice

| Tool | Question \# | Issue | Respondent |
| :--- | :---: | :--- | :--- |
| National Education Landscape <br> Questionnaire C1 | 14 | Braille and sign <br> language | National/Regional <br> key informant |
| National Education Landscape <br> Questionnaire C1 | 15 | Other augmentative <br> and alternative <br> communication forms | National/Regional <br> key informant |

According to the report of a key informant, one of the countries had a programme operating whereby the national curriculum is all available in Braille and translation devices are used so that:

Students with visual impairment/blind are supported in the public education system... through the collaboration of a specialised institute for the blind.*

In another country, a key informant commented:
Sign language receives more attention than Braille.*
This finding was further reinforced by comments focusing on the teaching of deaf students throughout the data from that country. Other than these examples, according to the claims of the key informants, the education of blind students and of deaf students is primarily considered the responsibility of the Ministry of Social Affairs (or equivalent) through specialised institutions or schools.

Education for blind or deaf students is administered by the Ministry of Social ....*

Responsibility for providing education for deaf or blind children is with the ... [Ministry of Social ...].*

The provision of education for children through the Ministry of Social Development (or equivalent) was mentioned by one informant to take the form of segregated education institutes. While these may be overseen by the Ministry of Education and the same curriculum used, as long as these institutes exist, inclusive education for their students is not considered a current priority. This was particularly evident
when a key informant gave a low rating for questions regarding Braille and sign language but commented that it was not a concern for inclusive education as the 'other' Ministry was, in their opinion, adequately providing for these students.

### 6.2.11 Practice of training of teachers and staff and employment of qualified teachers (Indicator 11)

Through this Indicator it is recognised that inclusive education largely stands or falls on the shoulders of qualified teachers prepared and placed strategically to support students who are disabled in realising their rights (Farrell, 2000). The National Education Landscape Questionnaire C1 provides data for this Indicator (see Table 6-20). The questionnaire asks first if the training of teachers is orientated to the requirements of inclusive education (question 16). It then asks if qualified staff are employed strategically in order to contribute to effective inclusive education (question 17).

Table 6-20: Questions for Indicator 11, Practice

| Tool | Question \# | Issue | Respondent |
| :--- | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| National Education <br> Landscape Questionnaire C1 | 16 | Training | National/Regional key informant |
| National Education <br> Landscape Questionnaire C1 | 17 | Employment | National/Regional key informant |

Through the responses to these questions, it could be understood that the nature of the training which teachers receive in the three participating countries was not considered to be aligned with the requirements of inclusive education. Although in reviewing additional documentation there was some evidence of inclusive education philosophy in some of the courses taught, generally, training for teachers in formal institutes and universities was oriented towards preparing special teachers for resource rooms, pull-out programmes, and special schools*. Isolated efforts of short training courses or training for inclusive education pilot programmes were found to be taking place*. The key informant from one of the countries stated that although university level training is available, there are not enough graduates to meet the demand in schools necessitating the recruitment of qualified staff from other countries in the region. Another key informant noted that
their government was taking a different approach and sometimes placing unqualified staff in support roles when qualified teachers were insufficient. Overall, there was recognition by key informants from all three countries that this Indicator identifies an area in need of attention.

### 6.2.12 Practice of monitoring of inclusive education (Indicator 12)

One of the strong emphases of the UNCRPD is that of monitoring. Through this Indicator, evidence is sought on the practice of monitoring the implementation of the UNCRPD and, in particular, monitoring of the inclusive education expectations found in Article 24. The National Education Landscape Questionnaire C1 asks the national or regional level key informant to rate the system of national data collection and monitoring of progress used in their country (see Table 6-21).

Table 6-21: Questions for Indicator 12, Practice

| Tool | Question \# | Respondent |
| :--- | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| National Education Landscape Questionnaire C 1 | 19 | National/Regional key informant |

The four-point rating scale is used to determine how positive the systems were in the opinion of the informant. One country reported positively on their data collection and monitoring process. They did, however, add the clarifying comment that the data collected was not particularly scientifically collected or analysed. The report from one of the other countries expressed the concern that the Middle East region is known for the wealth of data that is collected from schools, but also equally well known for the duplication, lack of coordination or feedback, and analysis and reporting that is rarely useful, interpretable or relevant for basing policies on. This concern was also echoed in additional documentation* with one of the reports suggesting that statistics were particularly scarce when it came to remote or rural areas*. Overall, the finding was that there was data collection and monitoring taking place, but that the results were not yet effectively achieving the goal to "promote, protect and monitor the implementation of the present convention" (United Nations, 2006a, Article 33).

### 6.2.13 Practice of activities of professional associations and measures for awareness raising of governments (Indicator 13)

Article 8 of the UNCRPD emphasises the importance of promoting awareness and positive perceptions of people who are disabled. The School Questionnaire broached this topic through school principals considering the awareness of their school and positive cooperation for inclusion with various other professionals and organisations. Findings from the Local Education Landscape Interviews with local key informants also added to the picture of the degree of awareness and political attention given to the issues of inclusive education in their area (see Table 6-22).

Table 6-22: Questions for Indicator 13, Practice

| Tool | Question \# | Respondent |
| :--- | :---: | :---: |
| School Questionnaire D | 20 | School Principals |
| Local Education Landscape Interview E | 5,6 | Local level key informants |

The following table (Table 6-23) displays the number of responses indicating any degree of cooperation with various groups and organisations. Eight school principals responded. A rating scale offered response options of 1 to 4 with 1 representing no degree of cooperation and 4 , intense cooperation. This table does not display the rating, only if there was any cooperation at all.

Table 6-23: Responses to question 20 of the School Questionnaire

| Does your school cooperate with regard to the inclusion of persons <br> with disabilities with: | Cooperation <br> reported |
| :--- | :---: |
| Organisations of early intervention | 4 |
| Day care facilities for children | 3 |
| Services of the disabled care | 3 |
| Services of the Youth welfare | 5 |
| The public health department | 4 |
| The youth welfare office | 4 |
| The social welfare office | 3 |
| The education authority | 4 |
| The Employment Agency | 5 |
| Paediatricians | 6 |
| Working groups/self-help groups about inclusive education | 3 |
| Counselling services for persons with disabilities and their relatives | 2 |
| Specialist counselling about integration at school | 1 |
| Vocational schools | 4 |

### 6.3 Inclusion Barometer Ratings

The National Education Landscape Questionnaire C1 and the School Questionnaire D provided the questions central for formulating a response to the research question from the dimension of practice; what type and amount of access to schooling for children who are disabled is taking place? Each response consisted of a rating of practice as compared to what expected practice should look like according to Indicators derived from the UNCRPD. Interview questions from the Local Education Landscape Interview E and the Typical Learning Career Interview F along with additional documentation reviewed (reports, articles, reviews and studies) were used for triangulation and, if needed, adjustment of ratings. Through this triangulation and implementing the analysis framework described in the Methodology (Chapter 3, section 3.8), an overall rating was given to each data group using the concept of a barometer which was replicated from the P2i Toolkit (Zentrum für Planung und Evaluation, 2009). Table 6-24 below revisits the analysis framework as applied to one data group demonstrating how raw data was transformed into a barometer rating.

Table 6-24: Example of the analysis framework applied to Indicator 3, Country $X$

| Indicator 3 | Practice of equal access to regular schools in the community |  |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| $\begin{array}{c}\text { Step 1, } 2\end{array}$ |  |  |  |
| $\begin{array}{c}\text { Data display } \\ \text { (pattern matching } \\ \text { - data group) }\end{array}$ | Data reduction (responses reduced from data gathering |  |  |
| tools) |  |  |  |\(\left.\quad \begin{array}{c}Data transformation <br>

(convert all data to 4-point <br>
scale)\end{array}\right]\)

Ratings are presented country by country in the following three tables (Table 6-25, Table 6-26, and Table 6-27) with a colour coded barometer aside each Indicator to show how supportive for inclusive education the related practices of the country were believed to be as reviewed by the key informants.

### 6.3.1 Country X

Table 6-25: Practice Barometer rating - Country X


It can be seen in this table that practice in this country was considered somewhat supportive of inclusive education in line with eight Indicators. These strengths will be discussed further in Chapter eight.

### 6.3.2 Country Y

Table 6-26: Practice Barometer rating - Country Y
Indicators

| Right to |
| :---: |
| inclusive |
| education |

Indicators

| Staff and |
| :---: |
| technology to |
| support the |
| learning process |

Free primary inclusive education

Equal access
3 to community schools

Equal access
4
to tertiary education

Participation in decision making

Assessment procedures

7 Architectural conditions



Facilitation of other forms communication


11 Qualified teachers


13
Awareness


Hindering for progressive implementation
Partly hindering for progressive implementation
Partly supportive for progressive implementation
Supportive for progressive implementation

This table shows two areas of strength of practice reported for Country Y. They are related to the right to inclusive education with the rating regarding the absence of cost being most supportive of inclusive education. These strengths will be picked up on in the discussion chapter (Chapter 8).

### 6.3.3 Country Z

Table 6-27: Practice Barometer rating - Country Z
$\left.\begin{array}{c}\text { Indicators } \\ \hline\end{array} \begin{array}{c}\text { Right to } \\ \text { inclusive } \\ \text { education }\end{array}\right)$ Rating

| Indicators |
| :---: |
| Staff and <br> technology to <br> support the <br> learning process |


Equal access
3 to community schools

10
Facilitation of
other forms
communication

Equal access
4 to tertiary education

Participation in decision making

6
Assessment procedures

7 Architectural conditions



Hindering for progressive implementation
Partly hindering for progressive implementation Partly supportive for progressive implementation
Supportive for progressive implementation

This table shows that the ratings of Country Z which were supportive of inclusive education were in educational accommodation and facilitation of other forms of communication. These will be discussed further in Chapter eight.

## CHAPTER SEVEN FINDINGS: PROGRESS

### 7.1 INTRODUCTION

In the context of this chapter 'progress' in terms of inclusive education refers to the progressive development of policy and practice, and to the potential development in terms of what concrete plans, strategies and mechanisms are in place. Third guiding research question:

What progress is being made towards inclusive education?

When the Indicators are considered from the dimension of progress, there is recognition that there is more to consider than only the current level of practice of inclusion. In some cases practice may not seem impressive when compared with standards or with other countries or when considered in isolation but an entirely different picture may be seen when it is compared with what the situation was nine years ago. The effect is that when the current state of progress is compared to the past it is possible to notice the rate and degree of progress.

Findings for this chapter come from the National Education Landscape Questionnaire C2 (Appendix Q) and the Policy Questionnaires B1 and B2 (Appendix $\mathrm{M} /$ Appendix N ) as completed by national or regional level key informants; the Policy Questionnaire B3 (Appendix O) completed by local level key informants; the School Questionnaire D (Appendix R) completed by school principals; and the Local Education Landscape Interview E (Appendix S) and the Typical Learning Career Interview F (Appendix T) which were completed by local level informants through interview and discussion. As with the dimension of practice in Chapter 6, the framework of analysis described in the methodology was applied to the data gathered from these questionnaires and interviews. This involved a deconstruction where the responses were drawn out of each questionnaire or interview, reduced to numbers and ratings and converted to
follow one four-point rating scale. Data was then grouped into sets of data in alignment with 14 key Indicators for progressive inclusive education which have been derived from the United Nations Convention on the Rights of Persons with Disabilities (UNCRPD) and it is against these that the data is again reconstructed. Reconstruction involved a comparison of data within each data group to determine convergence or divergence, then a comparison with and rating against the related Indicator. Table 7-1 lists the questions from the questionnaires and interviews which composed the data groups for analysis.

Table 7-1: Correspondence between questionnaires and interviews and the Indicators - progress

| B1,B2,B3=Policy Questionnaires C2=National Education Landscape Questionnaire |  | D=School Questionnaire <br> E=Local Education Landscape Interview <br> $\mathrm{F}=$ Typical Learning Career Interview |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  |  |  |
| Indicator \# |  | Question numbers |
| 1 | Right to inclusive education | $\begin{gathered} \text { C2.1,2,3 } \\ \text { C2.4 } \\ \text { D.7,17 } \\ \text { E.2 } \\ \text { F.2,3,4,7 } \\ \hline \end{gathered}$ |
| 2 | Free primary inclusive education |  |
| 3 | Equal access to community schools | $\begin{aligned} & \hline \text { C2.7 } \\ & \text { D. } 16 \\ & \text { F.1,7 } \end{aligned}$ |
| 4 | Equal access to tertiary education | $\begin{gathered} \text { C2.17,18 } \\ \text { F.6,7 } \\ \hline \end{gathered}$ |
| 5 | Participation in decision making | C2.5 |
| 6 | Assessment procedures | C2.6 |
| 7 | Architectural conditions | $\begin{gathered} \mathrm{C} 2.8,10 \\ \text { F. } 7 \\ \hline \end{gathered}$ |
| 8 | Staff and technology to support the learning process | $\begin{gathered} \hline \text { C2.9,11,12 } \\ \text { D. } 19 \\ \text { F. } 7 \\ \hline \end{gathered}$ |
| 9 | Accommodation of educational measures | $\begin{gathered} \mathrm{C} 2.13 \\ \text { F. } 7 \\ \hline \end{gathered}$ |
| 10 | Facilitation of other forms communication | C2.14,15 |
| 11 | Qualified teachers | C2.16 |
| 12 | Monitoring | C2.19 |
| 13 | Awareness | $\begin{gathered} \text { C2.20,21 } \\ \text { D. } 25 \\ \text { E.5,6 } \end{gathered}$ |
| 14 | Progression | C2.22 B1.11, B2.11, B3.16 D.26, E. 7 |

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Indicator 2 is the only one not included in this chapter but has been covered in both Chapters five and six. The following table provides a more detailed look at what comprises a single data group (Table 7-2).

Table 7-2: Example of a data group

| Indicator 4 | Data group for each country |
| :---: | :---: |
| Development of equal access to tertiary education | - National Education Landscape Questionnaire C2 question 17 (1-4 rating - national level key informant) <br> - National Education Landscape Questionnaire C2 question 18 (1-4 rating - national level key informant) <br> - Typical Learning Career Interview F question 6 (example - local level key informant) <br> - Typical Learning Career Interview F question 7 (example - local level key informant) <br> - Any comments or references provided by the key informants |

Documentation such as country specific articles, reports, plans and strategies were used to supplement and complement the findings and they aided in triangulation. The additional documents which are referred to in this chapter include reports, articles, reviews and studies related to each country.

Every effort has been made to protect the identity of the key informants who provided responses to questionnaires and interviews. Countries are not identified in this chapter in relation to the ratings, comments and opinions of key informants. The codes 'Country X', 'Country Y', and 'Country Z' will be used to present the findings when necessary. When a reference cited identifies a country, the symbol '*' is used to indicate that the citation has been excluded.

### 7.2 Findings

One of the central questionnaires from which the findings of progress are drawn is the National Education Landscape Questionnaire C2 which provides the perspective of the national level key informant on the progression of inclusive education in their country. Each response they gave was formulated as a 1-4 rating that corresponded to hindering (1), partly hindering (2), partly supportive (3), or
supportive (4) for progressive implementation of inclusive education, which was consistent to the wording of the P2i Toolkit and the Inclusion Barometer replicated in this study (Dorrance \& Schädler, 2012). Responses were gathered from the three participating countries and are displayed in the following table (Table 7-3).

Table 7-3: National Education Landscape Questionnaire C2 ratings of three countries

|  |  | - = rating for one country |  |  |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  | National Education Landscape Questionnaire C2 questions | Hindering | Partly hindering | Partly supportive | Supportive |
| 1 | Practice at preschool level |  | $\square$ | $\square \square$ |  |
| 2 | Practice at primary level |  |  | $\square \square$ | $\square$ |
| 3 | Practice at secondary level | $\square$ | $\square$ | $\square$ |  |
| 4 | Legal framework |  |  |  | $\square \square$ |
| 5 | Participation in decision making |  | $\square \square$ | $\square$ |  |
| 6 | Assessment procedures | $\square$ | $\square$ |  |  |
| 7 | Equal access to community schools | $\square$ |  |  | $\square \square$ |
| 8 | Architectural conditions |  | $\square$ |  | $\square$ |
| 9 | Support staff | $\square$ | $\square$ |  | $\square$ |
| 10 | Classroom sizes |  | $\square$ | $\square \square$ |  |
| 11 | Technology | $\square$ | $\square$ |  | $\square$ |
| 12 | Functional assistance and care |  | $\square$ |  | $\square$ |
| 13 | Educational measures | $\square$ | $\square$ |  | $\square$ |
| 14 | Braille and sign language | $\square$ | $\square$ |  | $\square$ |
| 15 | Augmentative communication |  | $\square$ | $\square$ |  |
| 16 | Training of staff |  | $\square$ | $\square$ |  |
| 17 | Equal access to vocational education | $\square$ | $\square \square$ |  |  |
| 18 | Equal access to lifelong learning | $\square$ | $\square$ |  |  |
| 19 | Monitoring |  |  | $\square$ | $\square$ |
| 20 | Awareness raising - associations |  | $\square$ | $\square$ |  |
| 21 | Awareness raising - govt. |  |  |  | $\square \square$ |
| 22 | Perspectives on progression |  | $\square$ |  | $\square$ |

It can be seen in this table that for question 7 , 'Equal access to community schools', one country gave a low rating that can be understood as 'hindering for progressive implementation of inclusive education' and two countries rated their country very positively which equated to 'supportive for progressive implementation of inclusive education'. For three questions it can be seen that one of the key informants chose not to respond (questions 12, 20, and 22). Overall, the ratings seen in this table are almost equally distributed.

### 7.2.1 Development of inclusive education on preschool, primary school and secondary level (Indicator 1)

With key informant responses for Indicator 1 divided up to scrutinise each of the three levels of schooling individually (preschool, primary and secondary), variance in development can be seen. Table $7-4$ shows the questions from the questionnaires and interviews that were used to review progress in line with this Indicator and which issue they relate to.

Table 7-4: Questions for Indicator 1, Progress

| Aspect | Tool | Question \# | Respondent |
| :--- | :--- | :---: | :---: |
| Preschool | National Education <br> Landscape Questionnaire C2 | C2.1 | National/Regional key informant |
| Primary | National Education <br> Landscape Questionnaire C2 | C2.2 | National/Regional key informant |
| Typical Learning Career <br> Interview F | F2 | Local level key informant |  |
| Secondary | National Education <br> Landscape Questionnaire C2 | C2.3 | National/Regional key informant |
| Typical Learning Career <br> Interview F | F3,4 | Local level key informant |  |
| Legal <br> Framework | National Education <br> Landscape Questionnaire C2 | C2.4 | National/Regional key informant |
| 3 schools | School Questionnaire D | D7, 17 | School Principals |
| General | Local Education Landscape <br> Interview E | E2 | Local level key informant |
| Typical Learning Career <br> Interview F | F7 | Local level key informant |  |

There was acknowledgement in comments from two countries which was further confirmed by additional documentation* that the distribution of responsibility between the Ministry of Social Affairs and the Ministry of Education often means that progressive education initiatives have limited influence at the preschool level .

> o-3 years old can attend nurseries [which are the] responsibility of the Ministry of Social Development, 3-5 year olds are [provided for through the Ministry of Education] kindergarten directorate which monitors and licenses kindergartens which are all private.*

Furthermore, it was seen that the majority of progressive initiatives target the primary and compulsory stage of education*. Responses to the three questions from the National Education Landscape Questionnaire C2 using a 1-4 rating scale reveal the differences of development interpreted by the key informants to be
taking place at the different levels of schooling. Table 7-5 displays these findings from the three participating countries.

Table 7-5: Responses to questions 1, 2 and 3 of the National Education Landscape Questionnaire C2

|  |  | $\square$ = rating for one country |  |  |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  | National Education Landscape Questionnaire C2 questions | Hindering | Partly hindering | Partly supportive | Supportive |
| 1 | Practice at preschool level |  | $\square$ | $\square \square$ |  |
| 2 | Practice at primary level |  |  | $\square$ | $\square$ |
| 3 | Practice at secondary level | $\square$ | $\square$ | $\square$ |  |

It can be seen that development at primary school level was often perceived as better than at preschool or secondary school. Plans from two countries do, however, show recognition of the needs for early identification of disability and intervention. For example:

Initially we will target support in the early years (Cycle 1), in order to identify students with SEN as early as possible. We will work with all of our Cycle One teachers to put in place early intervention strategies that maximise every student's learning and development at this crucial time.*

However, ... [our country] still requires further support in the following areas: diagnosis and introducing national system for classification; creating national toolkits for early detection and early intervention; building a pool of national trainers in these areas, and reaching out to all new mothers and raising their awareness of various developmental milestones.*

According to responses in the School Questionnaire, in all but one of the nine schools surveyed, the number of students who are disabled attending their school had increased. To contribute to understandings of possible drivers for the progress of inclusive education, a question (School Questionnaire question 17) was posed to school principals to determine what had initiated the topic of inclusion for persons who are disabled in their school. All principals confirmed that inclusion for those who are disabled was indeed a topic within their school. The following table (Table 7-6) groups the responses from nine principals.

Table 7-6: Responses to question 17 of the School Questionnaire

| Source of initiation of the topic of inclusion for <br> persons with disabilities in their school | Number of <br> responses |
| :--- | :---: |
| Initiated by the inquiries of concerned persons or their families | 5 |
| Initiated by internal considerations about the conceptual further development | 3 |
| Initiated by the discussion about the UNCRPD | 1 |

Through the interviews (Local Education Landscape Interview) with local informants representing all countries, it was confirmed that the demand for inclusive education was considered to be increasing. Regardless of the general rate of development for preschool, primary and secondary, the key informants all gave their countries the highest rating on the consistency of development in the legal framework in favour of inclusive education.

Country * is one of ... [the] pioneers [in the Middle East region] in integrating special need[s] students in regular schools. There are clear national policy regarding the educational rights of special need students, and there are several initiatives [underway] to boost inclusion in [the] education system. Work is in progress to restructure the policies and develop the programs to extend the participant of all types of learners.*

Overall, the perceptions of participants were that development in all three countries is heading towards increasing practice of inclusive education. This was further confirmed by additional documentation noting steady steps towards development and attainment of inclusive education rights for children who are disabled*.

### 7.2.2 Development of equal access to regular schools in the community (Indicator 3)

In this Indicator, equal access is extended to also mean 'on an equal basis'. As seen in the following section from the UNCRPD, the access to schools for children who are disabled should be on the same basis as all other children in the same community.

Persons with disabilities can access an inclusive, quality and free primary education and secondary education on an equal basis with others in the communities in which they live. (United Nations, 2006a, Article 24, section 2b)

According to this Indicator, any local community school which the children of the neighbourhood attend is the school which should equally provide access for a child with an impairment from the same neighbourhood. Findings for this Indicator were gathered from four questions across two different questionnaires and one interview as seen in Table 7-7.

Table 7-7: Questions for Indicator 3, Progress

| Tool | Question \# | Respondent |
| :--- | :---: | :--- |
| National Education Landscape <br> Questionnaire C2 | 7 | National/Regional key informant |
| School Questionnaire D | 16 | School Principals |
| Typical Learning Career Interview F | 1,7 | Local level key informant |

Responses to these questions provide three different angles from which to review progress on this Indicator. They consider the current and anticipated demand for this type of inclusive education, the perception of how the situation may be different in the near future, and opinions on developments that have taken place since 2007. According to the school principals surveyed, a high demand for inclusive education for children with impairments has been noticed and some expected it to continue to increase. Only one principal felt that the demand was adequately met in their catchment area. These findings are compiled in Table 7-8 below.

Table 7-8: Responses to question 16 of the School Questionnaire

| Demand for places for inclusive education of children with disabilities in their <br> catchment area: | Number of <br> responses |
| :--- | :---: |
| I am not able to give such an estimation | 2 |
| There is a significantly higher demand at the moment | 3 |
| I expect a higher demand for the future | 3 |
| The demand is basically covered | 1 |

The expectations of local level key informants of changes for the future in regards to this Indicator were hesitant and seemed hinged on government guidelines for placement, and on the support of school principals.

Development rests on the shoulders of a good principal.*

Question 7 of the National Education Landscape Questionnaire C2 asked key informants to review development in their country since 2007. In the opinion of the key informants from two countries, there has been a high level of development towards increased access to community schools for children who are disabled. Additional documentation and interview data noted programmes that were piloted then generalised to more schools in the spirit of this Indicator. The country which reported no development, does however, have plans in place for innovative developments in the near future as seen in the quotes below.

Promotion of a culture of experimentation, innovation, and responsiveness to the community at the institutional delivery level of the educational system will support effective implementation of desired changes.*

Local community involvement in decisions concerning the design and improvements in the learning environment will strengthen local commitment and contribution to the establishment of positive places for learning.*

Provide students with access to a basic school that is no more than 4 km from their homes, to a secondary school that is no more than 6 km away, and provide appropriate alternatives for students outside those distances.*

### 7.2.3 Development of equal access to tertiary education (Indicator 4)

In considering learning beyond secondary school, the UNCRPD calls for equal access for persons who are disabled and the provision of reasonable accommodation if necessary. Two questions from the National Education Landscape Questionnaire C2 were used to address this Indicator. The first deals with access to vocational education and the second with lifelong learning. One of the questions in the interview with local informants (Typical Learning Career Interview) also adds dimension to the findings. The following table shows which questions were used to review this Indicator and what focus they had (Table 7-9).

Table 7-9: Questions for Indicator 4, Progress

| Focus | Tool | Question \# | Respondent |
| :---: | :--- | :---: | :--- |
| Vocational training | National Education Landscape <br> Questionnaire C2 | 17 | National/Regional key <br> informant |
|  | Typical Learning Career <br> Interview F | 6,7 | Local level key informant |
| Lifelong learning | National Education Landscape <br> Questionnaire C2 | 18 | National/Regional key <br> informant |

Responses of key informants suggested little to no development in this area with all ratings either 'hindering' or 'partly hindering' for inclusive education. Only one rating of 'partly supportive' for inclusive education was given regarding access to vocational training. Comments from one participant clarified that low development on this Indicator may be partly because inclusive education initiatives are new and they are progressively working their way up to impact the tertiary level as students advance through all the education levels. Therefore, developments at this level may be yet to be realised.

It may take many more years to see these results.*
Vocational and lifelong learning programs are currently missing .... and
are in very high demand.*

### 7.2.4 Development of participation in decision making on inclusive education (Indicator 5)

The results for this Indicator reflect the degree to which respondents believed the articulation of a preference for inclusive education is honoured. One question from the National Education Landscape Questionnaire refers to the articulation of preference by either a person who is disabled or their advocate (Table 7-10).

Table 7-10: Questions for Indicator 5, Progress

| Tool | Question \# | Respondent |
| :--- | :---: | :---: |
| National Education Landscape <br> Questionnaire C2 | 5 | National/Regional key informant |

The key informant of only one country reported development of some positive practice since 2007 in this regard while both others claimed 'very little' development. In the practice dimension (Chapter 6) all countries confirmed that
inclusive education dialogue has often been initiated by concerned parents, however, significant development in this area is yet to be seen in any of the countries. In terms of progress, two key informants clarified their negative response with mention of resistance of schools to the implementation of inclusive education, and another pointed out that because their Ministry of Education department for special education sets the guidelines for the placement of children with impairments in inclusive settings or otherwise, there is not much opportunity for consideration of preference.

The SE [special education] Directorate has a process which assesses and determines placements for students with SEN [special education needs]. Yes, the parents ask for things, but they're not really being implemented and there's not much more they can do. They can't sue the government!*

However, aspirations towards increased participation in decision-making were also evident in documentation.

We are also aspiring to ensure that all parents (and care givers) have greater confidence to participate in decision making through increased access to information and greater opportunity to participate and support their child's learning.*

Partnerships between public schools and parents, families, and local communities are important to the success of any major educational reform.*

### 7.2.5 Development of assessment procedures supportive of inclusive education (Indicator 6)

Progressive development in the context of this Indicator refers to the introduction of procedures to assess students who are disabled in a manner aligned with the social model of disability and inclusive education, or improvement of existing assessment procedures. One question from the National Education Landscape Questionnaire C2 (Table 7-11) is used which asks for a rating of development along a four-point scale going from 'no development' to 'very positive'.

Table 7-11: Questions for Indicator 6, Progress

| Tool | Question \# | Respondent |
| :--- | :---: | :---: |
| National Education Landscape <br> Questionnaire C2 | 6 | National/Regional key informant |

Without exception, it was reported that since 2007 there have been no significant developments in assessment procedures of special education needs to support inclusion. Additional documentation from one of the countries suggested however, that there had been some contextually relevant assessment tools developed*, and in the case of the other two countries, plans and reports included recognition of the need for this development in their recommendations.

Plans consist of ...a school based education information system (each child's profile and his/her learning needs as per their background and potential)*

We will ensure that all those working with or supporting students will have access to advice and guidance on how to recognize and address SEN and disability.*

The assessment of learning informs the design of instruction and provides continuous information on performance to the student.*

### 7.2.6 Development of accommodation of individual access and learning requirements (architectural) (Indicator 7)

This Indicator deals with the two issues of the architectural conditions for physical access and class size. Three questions address these issues as shown in Table 7-12 with one specifically focusing on architectural conditions and another on class size.

Table 7-12: Questions for Indicator 7, Progress

| Focus | Tool | Question \# | Respondent |
| :--- | :--- | :---: | :--- |
| Architectural | National Education Landscape <br> Questionnaire C2 | 8 | National/Regional key <br> informant |
| Class size | National Education Landscape <br> Questionnaire C2 | 10 | National/Regional key <br> informant |
| General | Typical Learning Career Interview F | 7 | Local level key informant |

It is a costly exercise to bring all school buildings up to an acceptable standard of accessibility and modifying class size has enormous economic implications and is often determined by the availability of teachers*. This Indicator gives the
opportunity to show efforts towards these ideals and the plans in place. Responses to two of the questions are displayed in the following table (Table 7-13).

Table 7-13: Responses to questions 8 and 10 of the National Education Landscape Questionnaire C2

|  |  | $\square=$ rating for one country |  |  |
| :--- | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| National Education Landscape <br> Questionnaire C2 questions | Hindering | Partly <br> hindering | Partly <br> supportive | Supportive |
| 8: How do you assess the <br> development of architectural <br> conditions in regular schools to <br> realise accessibility for persons with |  |  |  |  |
| SEN since 2007? | $\square$ |  |  |  |
| 10: How do you assess the <br> development of accommodation of <br> classroom sizes in inclusive settings <br> according to individual's <br> requirements since 2007? |  |  |  |  |

In two of the countries, according to the key informants, the physical accessibility of schools has been prioritised and resulted in very positive development. Informants comment that new schools in all three countries are being built according to barrier-free standards and funding has been put into renovations and modification of some schools on a needs-basis. Even where developments haven't been realised yet, plans all acknowledge the basic design features needed for inclusive schooling.

Eliminating deficiencies in school buildings...*
For students to learn, school facilities must meet minimum standards of quality including safety... *

Support the MoE [Ministry of Education] in their school rehabilitation work to ensure that global standards for schools are being met...*

Investing more in school facilities and equipment for all learners...*
Class size was acknowledged in education strategy to have significant impact.
Class size ... and space per student have an impact on students' learning.*

### 7.2.7 Development of accommodation of individual access and learning requirements (personal/technical) (Indicator 8)

Provision of direct support to individuals is an ever fluctuating process of adapting according to individual need, changing according to the availability of support staff, improving with the development of new technologies, and is continually contingent on the availability of resources and funding (Inclusion International, 2009). Results for this Indicator should reflect developments and progress taking place since 2007 and are categorised into support through staffing, adaptive technology, and functional assistance and care. The following table (Table 7-14) lists the questions that addressed these issues.

Table 7-14: Questions for Indicator 8, Progress

| Focus | Tool | Question \# | Respondent |
| :--- | :--- | :---: | :--- |
| Staff | National Education Landscape <br> Questionnaire C2 | 9 | National/Regional key <br> informant |
| Adaptive <br> technology | National Education Landscape <br> Questionnaire C2 | 11 | National/Regional key <br> informant |
| Functional <br> assistance <br> and care | National Education Landscape <br> Questionnaire C2 | 12 | National/Regional key <br> informant |
| General | School Questionnaire D | 19 | School Principal |
| Typical Learning Career Interview F | 7 | Local level key informant |  |

Findings widely varied for this Indicator with some reporting very positive development and some reporting no development at all. Table 7-15 presents the ratings given by each country according to three of the focus questions. One country elected not to answer question 12 , which is why the last row only displays two responses.

Table 7-15: Responses to questions 9, 11 and 12 of the National Education Landscape Questionnaire C2

|  | $\square$ = rating for one country |  |  |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| National Education Landscape Questionnaire C2 questions | Hindering | Partly hindering | Partly supportive | Supportive |
| 9: Support staff | $\square$ |  | $\square$ | $\square$ |
| 11: Adaptive technology | $\square$ |  | $\square$ | $\square$ |
| 12: Functional assistance and care | - |  | $\square$ |  |

Documentation cited a cutting edge adaptive technological device for a specific impairment that has been developed in the region*, and one key informant from another country claimed that all latest technologies were provided free of charge to school pupils needing them.

All resources needed are funding by MOE [Ministry of Education]. We are now looking to improve the resource delivery model.*

### 7.2.8 Development of accommodation of educational measures (Indicator 9)

This Indicator covers educational accommodations and gives the examples of individual curricula, didactical adaption, teaching methods, and testing. One question from the National Education Landscape Questionnaire C2 addresses the Indicator supported by discussion in the Typical Learning Career Interview (Table 7-16).

Table 7-16: Questions for Indicator 9, Progress

| Tool | Question \# | Respondent |
| :--- | :---: | :--- |
| National Education Landscape Questionnaire C2 | 13 | National/Regional key informant |
| Typical Learning Career Interview F | 7 | Local level key informant |

Key informants from two countries reported very little or no development in this area in the past five years. One key informant claimed a high level of development for their country on this Indicator but included the clarification that this does not mean that there is not a long way to go, only that the development that has taken place in the last five years has been significant. Before 2007, it appears that accommodations of educational measures were basically non-existent and that in the five years following, a lot of ground work has been laid. It was also clear from the additional documentation that this development was not generalised to all schools and in some areas was isolated to a small percentage of the schools*. In the two countries reporting little development, the documentation indicated that this was not going unnoticed. The need for curriculum differentiation and meeting individual needs in the classroom was recognised in documentation and apparent in plans for upcoming developments. For example:

We will improve and develop our curriculum to ensure that all students with SEN are entitled to have access to a broad, balanced and relevant curriculum. This curriculum will be differentiated to meet individual learning styles, whilst recognizing personal strengths and needs. *

### 7.2.9 Development of facilitation of learning of Braille, sign language and other forms of communication and orientation (Indicator 10)

The UNCRPD recognises that supporting individual modes, methods and forms of communication will involve planning, budgeting and training. It will require staffing qualified in sign language and Braille, and it will create a need for further specialised resources and funding.

In order to help ensure the realization of this right, States Parties shall take appropriate measures to employ teachers, including teachers with disabilities, who are qualified in sign language and/or Braille, and to train professionals and staff who work at all levels of education. Such training shall incorporate disability awareness and the use of appropriate augmentative and alternative modes, means and formats of communication, educational techniques and materials to support persons with disabilities. (United Nations, 2006a, Article 24, section 4)

This Indicator was assessed through two questions in the National Education Landscape Questionnaire directed to the national or regional level key informant (Table 7-17). The first question focuses on Braille and sign language and the second on augmentative and alternative forms of communication and orientation.

Table 7-17: Questions for Indicator 10, Progress

| Focus | Tool | Question \# | Respondent |
| :--- | :--- | :---: | :---: |
| Braille and sign <br> language | National Education Landscape <br> Questionnaire C2 | 14 | National/Regional <br> key informant |
| Augmentative and <br> alternative forms of <br> communication and <br> orientation | National Education Landscape <br> Questionnaire C2 | 15 | National/Regional <br> key informant |

The responses from key informants of all three countries are brought together in Table 7-18 to show how they rated development in their country according to the two questions.

Table 7-18: Responses to questions 14 and 15 of the National Education Landscape Questionnaire C2

|  | $\square$ = rating for one country |  |  |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| National Education Landscape Questionnaire C2 questions | Hindering | Partly hindering | Partly supportive | Supportive |
| 14. How do you assess the development with respect to the facilitation of learning of Braille and sign language in inclusive settings, if this is necessary because of individual requirements? | $\square$ | $\square$ |  | $\square$ |
| 15. How do you assess the development with respect to the facilitation of learning of augmentative and alternative forms of communication and orientation in inclusive settings, if this is necessary because of individual requirements? | $\square$ |  | $\square$ |  |

Acknowledgement was made through key informants' additional comments that in all three countries the Ministry of Social Affairs (or equivalent) takes responsibility for students with visual or hearing impairments to the point of directly running special schools for them. The Ministry of Education in only one of the countries was found to be taking steps towards taking on this responsibility*. This Ministry of Social Affairs responsibility was confirmed by reviewing government websites and documentation*. This continues to be a factor resulting in a disproportionate number of hearing impaired or visually impaired students being educated in segregated settings*. As a result, a key informant commented that schools were less inclined to take responsibility for the type of accommodations called for by this Indicator and inclusive education developments were not having the expected impact for deaf or blind students. Only the key informant representing one country claimed a well-developed inclusion programme effectively operating for blind students which uses a Braille curriculum, students typing their school work in Braille, exams and tests in Braille, and specialised technology allowing regular classroom teachers to access and mark these students' work. They also reported that Braille signage was being piloted in selected schools ready to be rolled out to
all schools in 2015. The same country has also implemented an inclusion programme for children with autism* which the key informant pointed out to recognise the importance of augmentative communication systems. Additional documentation revealed the plans underway in one of the countries towards increased support of communication for deaf children in schools.
[A programme is being implemented] to help children with hearing impairments and disabilities better perform in classrooms via a training programme targeting teachers and supervisors; one that focuses on the use and techniques of sign-language interpretation in learning.*

### 7.2.10 Development of training of teachers and staff and employment of qualified teachers (Indicator 11)

Preparation and placement of staff equipped to promote effective inclusive education is a development that takes time and results are not immediately evident. Therefore it is appropriate that this Indicator allows participants to provide evidence of progress and plans underway towards increased realisation of this goal. Question 16 from the National Education Landscape Questionnaire C2 considers the aspects of training and employment of teachers for this Indicator (Table 7-19).

Table 7-19: Questions for Indicator 11, Progress

| Tool | Question \# | Respondent |
| :--- | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| National Education Landscape Questionnaire C2 | 16 | National/Regional key informant |

Responses to this question represented the informants' ratings of the development of teacher training for inclusive education. They used a four-point rating scale with 4 representing the most positive or 'supportive' and 1 the most negative or 'hindering'. Two key informants rated development in their country as 'partly hindering' for progressive implementation of inclusive education and one informant gave a 'partly supportive' rating. Developments were evidenced to be taking place in terms of specialised training for teachers and employment of qualified teachers. One country was even offering Masters and PhD level degrees in special education*. The appointment of special education teachers was ongoing in all three countries but primarily for segregated learning environments or resource
rooms. Planning and progress was beginning for providing inclusive education awareness to general teachers and professional development for existing teachers. One country had prepared master trainers as part of a plan to roll out a large scale pilot programme named 'child-friendly schools', with 'inclusion' as one of the three main principles of quality*, and another country had trained teachers for a similar initiative named Madrasati or 'My School'*.

### 7.2.11 Development of monitoring of inclusive education (Indicator 12)

The existence and implementation of monitoring mechanisms can be accessed as to its progressive development. As seen in Table 7-20, one question is presented to a national/regional level participant asking how they rank the development of the monitoring systems on inclusive education.

Table 7-20: Questions for Indicator 12, Progress

| Tool | Question \# | Respondent |
| :--- | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| National Education Landscape Questionnaire C2 | 19 | National/Regional key informant |

All three countries reported positively on this Indicator; two of them giving a 'partly supportive' rating and one completely 'supportive'. Additional documentation also found a number of positive initiatives developing including;

- accreditation standards for special programmes aligned with a national monitoring system*
- Parents Teachers Association led school self-assessment followed by a 'School Improvement Plan’*
- monitoring database outlining individual plans, support arrangements and services*
- databases tracking of achievement and progress and allowing national and regional comparison and information sharing with parents.*

Some of these could be considered well advanced and widespread and others were in just the beginning stages or still on the drawing board. There was concern expressed that a lot of monitoring systems are manual and duplication takes
place*. Furthermore, with largely centralised governance systems* ${ }^{*}$, there is often a lack of consistent or useful feedback to those collecting and reporting data*.

### 7.2.12Development of activities of professional associations and measures for awareness raising of governments (Indicator 13)

The call for development of measures to raise awareness both of professional associations and of government is assessed through two questions in the National Education Landscape Questionnaire completed by a national level key informant. They ask for a rating on the development and effectiveness of any awareness activities. These ratings are added to by data collected from school principals and the Local Education Landscape Interviews (Table 7-21).

Table 7-21: Questions for Indicator 13, Progress

| Focus | Tool | Question \# | Respondent |
| :--- | :--- | :---: | :--- |
| Professional <br> associations | National Education Landscape <br> Questionnaire C2 | 20 | National/Regional <br> key informant |
|  | Local Education Landscape <br> Interview E | 5 | Local level key <br> informant |
|  | National Education Landscape <br> Questionnaire C2 | 21 | National/Regional <br> key informant |
|  | School Questionnaire D | 25 | School Principals |
|  | Local Education Landscape <br> Interview E | 6 | Local level key <br> informant |

In one country, the key informant claimed that disabled people's unions were generally supportive of inclusive education while teachers' unions and special schools were less so. All three informants ranked the development of measures to raise the awareness of government as 'supportive' for progressive implementation of inclusive education. Through the School Questionnaire question 25, rankings were given by school principals on the commitment of local policy makers to inclusive education. The principals of two schools ranked the commitment as 'rather supportive' and the rest 'hindering' for inclusive education.

### 7.2.13Development of perspectives on progression of inclusive education (Indicator 14)

In line with the UNCRPD recognition of progressive realisation of rights, this Indicator is included for the purpose of assessing the expectations of the key informants. They are asked whether they expect general change and progress in the next five years in regards to inclusive education and the reducing of exclusion of children who are disabled from regular schools in their country. A number of questions are used to form a data group for this Indicator representing the opinion of key informants at all different levels. They are asked whether they thought it was possible that in five years, schools in their area would be more inclusive of children who are disabled than they are today. In this table (Table 7-22) the format of the questions is also displayed.

Table 7-22: Questions for Indicator 14, Progress

| Tool | Question \# | Question | Respondent |
| :--- | :---: | :--- | :--- |
| Policy Questionnaire <br> B1/B2 | 11 | It can be expected that by 2015 at a <br> national/regional perspective the <br> school system will be much more <br> inclusive than today? | National/Regional <br> key informant |
| Policy Questionnaire <br> B3 | 16 | It can be expected that by 2015 the <br> local school system will be much <br> more inclusive than today? | Local level key <br> informant |
| National Education <br> Landscape <br> Questionnaire C2 | 22 | It can be expected that by 2015 the <br> percentage of persons with SEN that <br> are not included in regular schools <br> will be much lower than 2011. | National/Regional <br> key informant |
| School Questionnaire | 26 | Can you imagine that 8o - 90\% of all <br> pupils with special needs will be <br> taught in regular schools of the <br> educational system in this <br> administrative district within a time <br> frame of five years? | School Principals |
| Local Education | 7 | Do you think it is realistic for your <br> region that in five years 80-90\% of all <br> pupils with special needs are taught <br> in regular schools? | Local level key |
| Landscape Interview |  |  |  |

The ratings resulting from the responses to these questions are compiled and summarised in the following graph (Table 7-23).

Table 7-23: Responses to questions from the National Education Landscape Questionnaire, the Policy Questionnaire and the School Questionnaire

|  |  | = rating for one country |  |  |  |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Tool | Questions | Hindering | Partly <br> hindering | Partly <br> supportive | Supportive |
| Policy Questionnaire | $\mathrm{B} 1 / 211$ |  | $\square$ | $\square$ |  |
| Policy Questionnaire | B 316 | $\square$ | $\square$ | $\square$ | $\square$ |
| National Education <br> Landscape Questionnaire | C 2.22 |  | $\square$ |  | $\square$ |
| School Questionnaire | D 26 | $\square$ | $\square$ | $\square$ |  |
| Local Education <br> Landscape Interview | E 7 | $\square$ | $\square$ |  |  |

### 7.3 Inclusion Barometer Ratings

As with the two previous chapters, the findings in this chapter all contribute to an overall barometer rating for each data group. This barometer rating is arrived at by following an analysis framework that assigns ratings to each piece of data and compiles the ratings for comparison with interview comments and additional documentation. When the findings are convergent, the rating given is converted into a colour code. If the comparison of findings shows divergence, an especially designed set of rating criteria (Appendix B) is applied to adjust the rating and reflect the differences. The final rating arrived at is conceptualised as a barometer rating with the position and colour of the rating indicating whether the progress as reported by key informants is supportive or hindering to the progressive implementation of inclusive education for children who are disabled as understood through the lens of the UNCRPD. Table 7-24, Table 7-25, and Table 7-26 display these results country by country and in line with the Indicators that correspond with by each data group.

### 7.3.1 Country X

Table 7-24: Progress Barometer rating - Country X

| Indicators |
| :---: |
| Staff and technology <br> to support the <br> learning process |

Accommodation of educational measures


Facilitation of other forms communication


Hindering for progressive implementation Partly hindering for progressive implementation Partly supportive for progressive implementation Supportive for progressive implementation

In terms of progress it can be seen in this table that only four indicators were not rated supportive for inclusive education. Five were rated 'supportive' and four 'partly supportive'. These strengths will be picked up on in the discussion chapter.

### 7.3.2 Country Y

Table 7-25: Progress Barometer rating - Country Y

Indicators | Right to |
| :---: |
| inclusive |
| education |

Indicators $\quad$| Staff and technology |
| :---: |
| to support the |
| learning process |

Equal access to
community
schools
Facilitation of other
forms
communication
Qualified teachers
Awareness
Monitoring

[^2]This table shows six ratings 'partly supportive' for inclusive education and in terms of equal access to community schools, a 'supportive' rating was reported. These strengths will be discussed in Chapter eight.

### 7.3.3 Country Z

Table 7-26: Progress Barometer rating - Country Z

| Indicators |
| :---: |
| Staff and technology <br> to support the <br> learning process |

Free primary
inclusive education
Equal access to community schools

Equal access to
4 tertiary education


| Hindering for progressive implementation |
| :--- |
| Partly hindering for progressive implementation |
| Partly supportive for progressive implementation |
| Supportive for progressive implementation |

This table shows the ratings of four Indicators as 'partly supportive' for inclusive education. These strengths will be discussed further in Chapter eight.

## CHAPTER EIGHT DISCUSSION

### 8.1 Introduction

As set out in the Methodology (Chapter 3) and the following table (Table 3-4), this study explores the research question through the three dimensions of policy, practice and progress.

Table 8-1: Dimensions of the research question
Research Question: How do national education policies and access to schooling in participating Middle Eastern countries align with the inclusive education expectations of the United Nations Convention on the Rights of Persons with Disabilities?

| Guiding research questions | Dimensions |
| :--- | :--- |
| What opportunities for inclusive education can | Policy |
| be found in national education policies? | - Education Policy and Legislation |
| What type and amount of access to schooling | Practice |
| for children who are disabled is taking place? | - Practice of Inclusive Education |
| What progress is being made towards | Progress |
| inclusive education? | - Progression towards Inclusive Education |

The analysis approaches these dimensions of inclusive education from the transformative paradigm. This perspective positions the researcher with a political bias and a commitment towards the cause of enablement. With an emphasis on challenging oppression, this discussion chapter is where the transformative researcher attempts to formulate the outcomes of the study in a manner conducive to stimulating change (Barnes, 2003; Creswell, 2013; Oliver, 1992; Stone \& Priestley, 1996).

The discussion on the findings is atypical in that, while, most commonly, a policy analysis would provide a balanced summation of positive and negative aspects of the findings, this study has been weighted in favour of a positive approach. In the finding chapters (Chapters 4-7), no attempt was made to ignore, dismiss or cover up the gaps and shortcomings as they were reported. A simple comparison of
barometer ratings and narrative reports easily reveals the outcomes from the angle of weaknesses or 'room for improvement'. However, it is the 'strengths approach' that has been chosen as the lens through which to identify the contribution of the findings. Indeed, this approach weaves throughout the entire process from theory to data collection, ethics to compilation of data and on through into the analysis. Research traditionally tells it how it is, whereas the 'strengths approach' through the lens of the transformative paradigm, tells it how it might become (Saleebey, 2005). As such, it is not unbalanced, but an entirely different paradigm.

While the roots of strengths-based approaches might lie in the lineage of positive thinking, the strengths perspective is far more than that. It is a language, fired by moral acumen, about the possibilities of human character, fuelled by a belief in social justice and restoration, that reflects both the realities of the human condition and the promise of the human spirit. (Saleebey, 2005, pp. 29-30)

This chapter begins by situating the 'strengths approach' within the theoretical basis of the research methodology. Following that, each strength that was drawn out from the findings through 'data comparison' (Chapter 3, section 3.9.6) is described, along with identification of where it was situated in terms of the United Nations Convention on the Rights of Persons with Disabilities (UNCRPD). Connections are made to theory and the literature through which meanings are explored in an attempt to explain how the findings are understood to be politically significant to the cause of inclusive education and enablement for students who are disabled. These strengths are organised into three sections according to how they contribute to answering the three guiding research questions. Then a summary of the findings and strengths as seen through the barometer rating process presents an answer to the overall research question. Finally a summary of the discussion converges the strengths to show their interconnectedness and collective contribution to the discourse of inclusive education development in the Middle East.

### 8.2 Strengths Approach

In the process of analysis of education policy for inclusion, 'problems', 'threats' and 'gaps' are identified. According to Gornitzka, Kyvik, and Stensaker (2005) the intention of research which aligns reality with a set of standards is to discover the factors which are furthering or hindering the full implementation of the reform which, in this case, is the development of inclusive education. As such, there is a tendency in social policy analysis to present the factors hindering progress as problems and assign blame (Chapin, 1995). In line with the social model of disability where disability is understood to be socially constructed, research analysis of inclusion for children who are disabled should position the faults in the environment and society. To its credit, this approach is a step along from blaming the victim as in the out-dated medical model approach. However, if Chapin (1995) is taken seriously, it could be that exclusionary beliefs in society upheld consciously or otherwise are virtually impossible to change "short of major social upheavals" (p. 507).

The rights to inclusive education for children who are disabled set out in the United Nations Convention on the Rights of Persons with Disabilities (UNCRPD) are considered "progressively achievable rights" (Schulze, 2010, p. 56) which ratifying countries should be allocating maximum resources towards with the view of full achievement as soon as possible. These are distinguished from "immediately enforceable rights" (Schulze, 2010, p. 56) that should be enacted without delay. Under these conditions, it is understood that inclusive education is a journey and any incomplete alignment with all the expectations of the UNCRPD is not an indication of failure. Rather, the requirement is that of progressively increasing alignment. Figure 8-1 presents this visually showing that the focus is on increasing the size of the cross-over between the UNCRPD Indicators and the findings with the intention of eventually bringing the dimensions of policy, practice and progress of inclusive education into perfect alignment with the expectations laid out in the Indicators.


Figure 8-1: Progressive alignment of UNCRPD Indicators and Findings

The spirit of the transformative paradigm is that the outcomes of research should motivate change (Barnes, 2003; Creswell, 2013; Oliver, 1992; Stone \& Priestley, 1996). However, when considering the 'progressive realisation' option and the tendency for implementation analysis to place blame, the focus on identifying gaps and problems may not be particularly conducive in the bid to contributing to change. A shorter road to change may be through applying the strengths approach as described by many in the field of social research (Axelsson \& Barrett, 2009; Chapin, 1995; Gornitzka et al., 2005; Le Fanu, 2013). They explain that the approach focuses on 'what works', observes good practice and available resources
and identifies the strengths present in people and the environment. These observations are seized as opportunities to develop, build on and extend in order to increase the effectiveness of what already exists (Chapin, 1995; Nguyen, 2010). The approach also affords the opportunity to look beyond simple conformity or deviation from a standard and to note "local flair" (Gornitzka et al., 2005, p. 44). Detailed observation of good practice can bring "diverse realities" (Le Fanu, 2013, p. 49) to light, and Ainscow (2007) suggests that with thorough analysis it is often found that schools know more than they are putting into practice.

A lasting and important contribution of the bottom-uppers [strengths approachers] is the highlight they put on the organic aspects of implementation, the informal processes and spontaneous constellations that spring out of processes, the strong element of negotiation and the political aspects of processes also outside the central political apparatus. (Gornitzka et al., 2005, p. 46)
While this approach can be misunderstood as passive and avoiding necessary confrontations with oppression, it does contribute to the demand for political action but in doing so also offers meaningful, direct and tangible starting points for overcoming or bypassing barriers (Chapin, 1995).

Also referred to as 'bottom-up' (Axelsson \& Barrett, 2009; Gornitzka et al., 2005) and "grounded inclusionism" (Le Fanu, 2013, p. 49), analysis from this angle is believed to be more effective particularly in inspiring the interest of policy-makers (Axelsson \& Barrett, 2009). Its effectiveness lies in the connection with capabilities, resources, infrastructure, culture, power, and relationships already in existence. Change based on evidence may be more sustainable and bring more people on board by enabling and motivating them through the expression of belief in their potential. In essence, when researchers use the strengths approach to "promote innovative practices and cite examples of what is working well for persons with disabilities, dialogue with policy-makers is more likely to be constructive and positive, rather than a mere critiquing of the shortcomings of authorities" (Axelsson \& Barrett, 2009, p. 33). Empowerment is not about the giving of power.

It is discovering the power that already exists and perhaps directing the consciousness of it (Saleebey, 2005).

Inasmuch, in this chapter the findings are reconstructed and discussed following a framework based on the strengths approach. As part of the Literature Review, a number of factors were identified to have a significant impact on the degree to which policy leads onto practice (Chapter 2, section 2.6-2.15). It was suggested that these factors can be considered exclusionary forces or contribute to low implementation of policy for inclusive education. Through the strengths approach, however, a reconceptualisation of these factors can present them positively. During the data analysis, the 'data comparison' process was applied as described in the Methodology (Chapter 3, section 3.9.6) to be a cross-relating of the Literature Review with the findings to reveal the possibilities combating the exclusionary forces. Table 8-2 briefly recalls the topics from the Literature Review and shows the link to the strengths to be discussed in this chapter.

Table 8-2: Links between the Literature Review and the Discussion Chapters

| Chapter 2 Literature Review <br> Factors that can contribute to exclusion | Chapter 8 Discussion <br> Reconceptualised as strengths |
| :--- | :--- |
| 2.6 Philosophy embedded in policy | Inclusive philosophy |
| documents | 8.4.1 Strength: Traditional Values |
| Ideological struggles make their way into | 8.4.2 Strength: Islamic Tradition of Human |
| policy documents and have the potential to | Dignity |
| include and exclude. |  |
| 2.7 The written document | Inclusive rhetoric |
| The way in which a policy document is written | 8.3 .1 Strength: Inclusive terminology |
| can affect the impact it has on practice. |  |
| 2.8 Attitudes of teachers | Inclusive attitudes/behaviour |
| Teachers interpret policy through their own | 8.5 .2 Strength: Impetus for Professional |
| belief systems. | Development |
| 2.9 Conflicting rights | Rights to inclusion |
| Inclusive education policies can face | 8.3 .2 Strength: Guarantee and Provision of |
| opposition if they are perceived to encroach | Education for All |
| on another's rights. |  |
| 2.10 Standards agenda | Rethinking effectiveness |
| When aiming for high achievement, schools | 8.3 .3 Strength: Knowledge based global |
| may feel compelled to exclude children | community - rights of all |
| perceived as low-achieving. |  |


| Chapter 2 Literature Review <br> Factors that can contribute to exclusion | Chapter 8 Discussion <br> Reconceptualised as strengths |
| :--- | :--- |
| 2.11 Categorising disability | Celebration of difference |
| Diagnosis and labelling can contribute to | 8.4 .3 Strength: Interdependence |
| selective inclusion and stigma. | Partnership |
| 2.12 The expert model | 8.4.4 Strength: Exemplary programme of |
| education for blind students in regular schools |  |
| within the regular school. | Whole school for inclusion |
| 2.13 The continuum of placements | 8.4 .5 Strength: Whole class instruction |
| Many consider regular classrooms as one of |  |
| an array of places a child who are disabled |  |
| may access education. | Resource allocation |
| 2.14 Resource distribution | 8.4 .6 Strength: Inclusion with few resources |
| Schools may not always have all the resources | $8.5 \cdot 3$ Strength: Building of new schools |
| available that they believe are needed for | 8.5 .4 Strength: Development of innovative |
| successful inclusive education. | technologies |
|  | Funding allocation |
| 2.15 The economics of inclusion | 8.5 .5 Strength: Innovative Approaches to |
| Implementing inclusive education policy | Funding Modernisation |
| involves finances and the justification of the |  |
| costs. | Documentation of inclusive practice |
| 2.16 Shortage of empirical evidence | 8.5 .1 Strength: Inclusion for inclusion |
| Policy is more effective if there is supporting |  |
| evidence. |  |

### 8.3 Guiding Research Question 1 - Policy Dimension

What opportunities for inclusive education can be found in national education policies?

This question pertained to the dimension of policy. Strengths as rated in the findings are seen in Table 8-3.

Table 8-3: Overall Inclusion Barometer ratings showing strengths - Policy

|  |  | Partly supportive for progressive implementation Supportive for progressive implementation |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Indicators |  | Incidences of strong barometer ratings |
| 1 | Right to inclusive education |  |
| 2 | Free primary inclusive education |  |
| 3 | Equal access to community schools |  |
| 4 | Equal access to tertiary education |  |
| 5 | Participation in decision making |  |
| 6 | Assessment procedures |  |
| 7 | Architectural conditions |  |
| 8 | Staff and technology to support the learning process |  |
| 9 | Accommodation of educational measures |  |
| 10 | Facilitation of other forms communication |  |
| 11 | Qualified teachers |  |
| 12 | Monitoring |  |
| 13 | Awareness |  |
| 14 | Progress |  |

The key strengths found in policy were in the guarantee of access to schooling particularly at primary school level, the promised provision of supports in the form of staff, technology and educational accommodation, and the commitment to awareness. Some other strengths identified were the access that was assured to community schools and tertiary education and the lack of financial cost to families.

### 8.3.1 Strength: Inclusive terminology

Policy developers and law makers in the participating countries recognised the importance of clarifying the definitions of many words and concepts used in relation to education of children who are disabled. The following quotes and definitions noted during data analysis were found to align well with the UNCRPD.

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \text { الدمج: التدابي والبرامج والخطط و السياسات التي تهدف الى تحقيق المشاركة الكاملة للشخص المعوق في } \\
& \text { شتى مناحي الحياة دون أي شكل من أشكال التمييز وعلى قدم المساواة مـ الاخرين. }
\end{aligned}
$$

Inclusion: Provision of programmes, plans and policies leading to disabled people fully placed in inclusive settings in all aspects of life without any segregation and on an equal footing with others.*

تم إعداد [إزالة لحماية الخصوصية] لتحقيق الرؤية في إيجاد مجتمع أردني يتمتع فيه الأشخاص المعوقـون بحياة كريمة مستدامة تحقق لهم المشاركة الفاعلة القائمة على الإنصاف والاحترام.
The [removed to protect anonymity] was established to realise the vision of creating a national community in which persons with disabilities live a decent and sustainable life and participate actively on the basis of equity and respect.*

ان بنـاء منظومـة تعليميـة وفـق المعـايير العالميـة هـو احـد طموحـات الرؤيــة الاقتصــادية [إزالـة لحمايـة الخصوصية] التي ترمـي اللى تطوير منظومـة تعليميـة تشـمل جميـع المتعلمين علىى اخـتلاف قـدراتهم و تطلعـاتهم المسـتقبلية, و تميـزمم الاكاديمي و تواكـب التوجهـات الاقتصــادية للمملكـة, وذلـك مـن خـلال التدريس يتميز بجودة عالية بما يحقق العدالة الاجتماعية.
"Building a world-class education system" is itself one of the aspirations in the vision. The vision aspires to develop an education system which provides every learner with educational opportunities which are appropriate to their individual needs, aspirations and abilities, relevant to the requirements of [removed to protect anonymity] and its economy, delivered to the highest possible standards of quality, and accessible based on ability and merit. Improving education is also the most important means of improving social justice.*

ادرك [إزالة لحماية الخصوصية] أهمية التعليم امـا لجهـة ضـمان التحـاق جميـع الاطفـال بـه او في نوعيـة
التعليم و تنويعه.
[removed to protect anonymity] has realised the importance of education in terms of ensuring that all children are enrolled in school and focusing on the quality and diversity of education.*

In recognising policy and plans as an opportunity to introduce enabling terminology (Peters, 2007), the following words were noted as progressive and promoting of inclusive education philosophy:

| access | meaningful consultation |
| :--- | :--- |
| participation | collective effort |
| equal opportunities | cooperative partnerships |
| non-discrimination | accessibility |
| universal access | flexible |
| equal footing | multiple-curricula |
| equal to peers | different abilities |
| enabling | learn in different ways |
| responsiveness | learn at different rates |
| lifelong learning | differentiation |
| equity | awareness |
| empowering | accommodation |
| partnerships | full potential |
| diversifying |  |

### 8.3.2 Strength: Guarantee and Provision of Education for All

In the dimension of policy and also across all the dimensions of practice and progress, Indicator 1 was found to be a strength. Indicator 1 is about the right to inclusive education at preschool, primary and secondary level. This is simply about the right to access without consideration of quality and type of provision and the strength was most evident at the level of primary school. During data collection, some questions were asked about the numbers of children not enrolled in regular schools. The shortage of findings against this Indicator was in itself a finding, confirming the UNESCO (2009b) claim that countries rarely collect data on out-ofschool children. The importance of the non-comparability of these findings is perhaps the starkest for this Indicator as definitions of disability may vary not only between countries but also between informants. Furthermore, the term 'inclusive education', as discussed at length in the Literature Review (Chapter 2, section 2.2), engenders a range of understandings. For example, one informant may have reported a number of children not in regular schools who were in fact enrolled in special schools while another informant may have considered segregated classrooms to equate to inclusive enrolment in regular schools. In general,
however, policy statements and implementation of the principles of education for all were evident in the findings as suggested by UNESCO (2011a). Impressive education access achievements are reported for two of the participating countries. These include universal access, primary school completion rates reaching $98 \%$, literacy at $91 \%$ and gender equity. Strong statements were found in policy documents some of which are listed below:

- education opportunities for all*
- opportunities for every citizen*
- universal access*
- equal opportunities*

The strength identified here is that of the increasing general universality of education. Although out-of-school children who are disabled were under-reported, the drive towards achieving 'Education for All' has potential to reach to any of those yet unreached.

### 8.3.3 Strength: Knowledge based global community - rights of all

Education strategies from all three participating countries showed that they were being faced with shifting economies: Iraq, attempting to arise out of conflict, attract investment and prepare its citizens for participation in the global community; Jordan, with its shortage of natural resources; and Bahrain, with a move towards knowledge producing activities in the labour market. All had large and increasing young populations so recognised that there was a pressing need for every citizen to play a role and contribute (Amr, 2011; Maroun et al., 2008; Roudi, 2001). In the analysis of educational policy and strategy, it was overwhelmingly evident that all three countries situated their education goals in the context of the economy with their emphasis on preparing citizens for the labour market. Below are some of the phrases found in education strategy documents that illustrated the strong link recognised between education and the labour market.

Developing and completely changing the content and methods of education in order to be consistent and responsive to the requirements of the labor market.*
...to enable this society to compete with the knowledge economy- based global community.*
...develop the curricula to keep pace with the planned economic development.*

The education sector must be responsive to employing market demands in key industries and developing critical "Knowledge Economy Skills" at all levels of the education system.*

Education is a key factor in encouraging investment in ... [the] economy, since it is the primary mechanism for upgrading labor market quality.*
...appears the new challenge of education, which is no longer responsible for only providing seats for all citizens who are at the school age; and not only responsible for providing the minimum knowledge, skills and trends, but is also responsible for the formation of the skilled human being who is capable of the integration in the labor market *
...meet the needs of the labor market*
Although, education is not the first cause for the escalation of the problem of unemployment, nor for its solution, nonetheless, it has a great role in reducing the problem and avoiding its consequences.*

Literature also discussed the current climate of economic change in Middle Eastern countries. Many of them are changing from oil-based to knowledge-based economies (Baporikar \& Shah, 2011; Weber \& City, 2011) and Weber and City (2011) point out the urgency of preparing citizens to take on the employment opportunities rather than continue to stand by as a growing expatriate population fills the positions. Literature also recognised the goal of education for people who are disabled having the ultimate outcome of accessing the labour market (Hakim \& Jaganjac, 2006). Inclusion of people who are disabled into the labour market can have the multiple effects of reducing public and family expenditure, producing economic benefits to society, and eliminating family opportunity cost where they also are able to enter the labour force instead of being caregivers (Hakim \& Jaganjac, 2006).

Documentation, policies and reports from key informants consistently suggested that, aside from the extensive private school system in some countries, education reforms towards market-driven schools, as seen in much of the Western world (Ainscow, Booth, et al., 2006; Parry et al., 2012; Slee, 2001), have had little impact in the region of the Middle East. Centralisation of administration appears to remain the norm. The role of the market on education in the participating countries, rather than creating demand-driven schools competing for 'students as consumers' in a free market, placed emphasis on the pivotal role of schools in contributing to the development of the economy as was evident in their planning and investment for this aspect of education. This focus was referred to in reports of key informants and in policy under terms such as 'education for citizenship', 'nation-building' and 'knowledge-based education'. The underlying understanding was that every citizen must play a role in their community and economy. In contrast with the view of 'students as consumers' placing importance on choice, freedom and the rights of the individual in schooling, viewing 'students as citizens' elevates the values of social justice and the welfare of the community beyond schooling (Ranson, 1993).

Ranson (1993) says that education should not be about the economy at all. The labour-market-driven approach has been criticised showing how children's value is being measured in terms of their contribution or otherwise to the economy (Dudley-Marling \& Baker, 2012). This has serious implications for children who are disabled if there is more cost involved in their education. Nevertheless, labourdriven education models need not be considered only a hostile environment for inclusive education and children who are disabled. There are many opportunities that were identified in the findings of this study that suggest that aspects of the model can be harnessed towards the development of inclusive education. Perhaps the most noteworthy opportunity the approach avails is that of the complete overhaul of the curriculum including the content and methods of education. It was noted in one of the education strategies that labour-driven education was initiating a trend in their country towards increasing flexibility in the education system
allowing a more diverse curriculum*. This is something also deemed necessary for aligning education with inclusive education principles. Therefore, the inclusive education agenda could be integrated into or appended to reforms driven by the knowledge-based agenda. Furthermore, some of the reforms required for implementing inclusive education have similar underlying principles. One such principle is the responsibility of every citizen and the belief that all can and should be encouraged and trained to make a contribution to their community (Weber \& City, 2011). Another principle is the right for the opportunity to be able to work (AlMajali \& Faddoul, 2008; United Nations, 2006a), and also significant is the emphasis that is placed on building bridges and smooth transitions between different levels of education and with practical life (Nguyen, 2010). Finally, the urgency of the economic implications of education may lead to investment in education which will serve to enable the realisation of the strategies set out in the respective education plans and in turn assist in the progressive development of some aspects of reform for inclusiveness of education.

### 8.4 Guiding Research Question 2 - Practice Dimension

What type and amount of access to schooling for children who are disabled is taking place?

Here, the dimension of practice was reviewed (Table 8-4).

Table 8-4: Overall Inclusion Barometer ratings showing strengths - Practice

|  |  | Partly supportive for progressive implementation <br> Supportive for progressive implementation |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Indicators | $\mathbf{r s}$ | Incidences of strong barometer ratings |
| 1 | Right to inclusive education |  |
| 2 | Free primary inclusive education |  |
| 3 | Equal access to community schools |  |
| 4 | Equal access to tertiary education |  |
| 5 | Participation in decision making |  |
| 6 | Assessment procedures |  |
| 7 | Architectural conditions |  |
| 8 St | Staff and technology to support the learning process |  |
| 9 | Accommodation of educational measures |  |
| 10 | Facilitation of other forms communication | $M 1$ |
| 11 | Qualified teachers |  |
| 12 | Monitoring |  |
| 13 | Awareness |  |
| 14 | Progress |  |

As with policy, there was strength in the granting of general and free access to the levels of schooling administered by the Ministries of Education. The policy guarantee of equal access to community schools and tertiary education was also noted to be taking place enough to be reported as a strength in practice. This is the
only dimension for which assessment for inclusive education was reported as a strength. Educational accommodation, facilitation of other forms of communication, personnel, technology and monitoring were all rated to be somewhat supportive of the practice of inclusive education.

### 8.4.1 Strength: Traditional Values

A theme noticed running throughout the findings was that implementation under the banner of inclusive education in the countries participating in the study was found to mean many different things. Descriptions included resource rooms, partial inclusion classes, pull-out programmes, and classroom support. The primary focus was on providing specialised programmes within the regular school. These approaches align with what literature refers to as a transferring of special school services into mainstream schools (Ferguson, 2008; Pather, 2011; Slee, 2001; Veck, 2014). Literature also confirms that in the Middle East these approaches still reveal segregated attitudes (Amr, 2011; Gaad, 2004).

Although there is not agreement upon whether attitudes of society are influenced by the practices of schools (Slee, 2013) or whether schools reflect society's attitudes (Al Attiyah \& Lazarus, 2007; Alghazo et al., 2004), findings in this study supported the understanding that what is predominantly taking place in the Middle East in terms of education for children who are disabled is not based in traditional values. Literature from the region suggested that segregated practices were based on special education models imported from Western countries and thus not a reflection of society (Grech, 2009; Turmusani, 1999). A number of sources claimed that traditional society in the Middle East is in fact more inclined towards inclusive models (Ahmed, 2007; Bazna \& Reid, 2009; Weber \& City, 2011). Whether or not society is to blame for exclusive practice, Chapin (1995) says that blaming society is unproductive as it could take major social upheaval to change basic attitudes. Policy makers might find it more effectual to identify foundations useful for building on rather than those needing to be dug out. UNESCO (2011a) also notes
the value in identifying these local inclusive attitudes to inform policy or align with international standards, rather than in expecting attitudes to conform.

Two particular philosophies identified in the findings were that of 'caring for the disabled' and the 'preference of inclusion for learning disability'. The predominant sentiment of 'caring' towards people who are disabled was evident in the findings. Wording chosen by key informants, formulation of laws, strategies and plans all reflected the belief that people who are disabled are deserving of the compassion, kindness and benevolence of the community. Some examples of 'caring' wording found in the data are:
...policy in the care of people with disabilities... *
...provide the necessary care...*
...providing the necessary care... *
...classes and schools which guarantee care for...*
Law ... on the care and rehabilitation of...*

Al-Aoufi et al. (2012) suggest that this attitude is rooted in the Islamic duty to care for those who are disadvantaged. Portrayals of people who are disabled as objects of pity is often called the 'charity model' of disability and has provoked wide criticism from writers in the field (Oliver \& Barnes, 2010; Rieser, 2012; Shakespeare, 1994; Slee, 2013). They don't consider the charity or 'caring' attitude as conducive to inclusive education. Al-Majali and Faddoul (2008) agree that the act of caring alone is not sufficient to prevent marginalisation and ensure the rights of people who are disabled but Alborz et al. (2013) and Axelsson and Barrett (2009) believe that in the Middle East, this attitude is definitely a good starting point for developing inclusive services. As Coleridge (2004 as cited in Axelsson \& Barrett, 2009) writes of Yemen:
...charity should not be dismissed out of hand. It can be a sincere expression of compassion, and as such needs to be built on constructively. The feeling of compassion associated with charity can often be the starting point for a deeper understanding of the issues, and therefore lead to a developmental approach. (p. 44)

A finding of this study mirrored the observation of literature that there were students having particular categories of impairment that have historically been educated alongside other children in regular schools in the Middle East (Brown, 2005). An expanding of categorisation to now include different types of learning disabilities was also noted in international literature (Graham \& Jahnukainen, 2011; Mitchell, 2010; Slee, 2013). The findings, particularly in one of the countries analysed, suggested that parents of these children are strongly resistant to assessment or diagnosis and show a preference that their child continue in regular education classes without any special provision. While this could be understood as obstructing the child's access to needed support and accommodations (Brown, 2005), the general preference for 'normalcy' could also be harnessed to inform policy in supporting a differentiated approach for all children.

### 8.4.2 Strength: Islamic Tradition of Human Dignity

While policy and laws are typically based in secular thought, religion remains fundamental to the meaning systems and understandings of society in the Middle East (Grech, 2009, 2012). In the course of this policy analysis, beginning right from the constitutions, Islam was found to be central to the laws, ambitions, culture and traditions of all three participating countries. Although freedom of religion is granted, Islam is the state religion*. Two of the constitutions begin with the phrase; 'In the name of God...'*, one education strategy places the foundations of their vision in Islamic principles and values and another asserts that education is an essential component of Islamic culture*. Not only is Islam considered a foundation justifying and guiding education practices, but imparting Islamic ethics and standards is also cited as one of the goals of schooling.

A dominant response to disability in the Middle East is that of 'caring for the less fortunate' which many attribute to Islamic traditions (Gaad, 2010; Hagrass, 2005; Weber \& City, 2011). The belief that disability is an act of God and part of a person's fate is also found to be prevalent amongst Muslims (Al-Aoufi et al., 2012). Some say that it may be more the complex interplay of culture with religion that has resulted
in some of these charity-motivated attitudes that disability activists criticise (AlAoufi et al., 2012; Weber \& City, 2011) while others agree that Islamic tradition does indeed reflect the charity model of disability (Axelsson \& Barrett, 2009; Hagrass, 2005). Giving to charity in Muslim societies, frequently misunderstood as good will, is in fact a central 'pillar' of Islam and thus recognised as a duty, or even a tax, intended to distribute wealth and meet needs within the community (Hagrass, 2005). In terms of inclusive education, the motivation for caring could effectively provide an impetus for developing policy and practice for people who are disabled. This is not to suggest a reinstating of the charity model of disability, but rather an acknowledgement that services for people who are disabled which arise from the community obligation to 'care' can work to effectively enable and empower people to move on into securing their rights and inclusion in society.

Ahmed (2007), however, suggests that Islam in fact promotes a much more rights based and human equality framework for understanding disability in society. Ghaly (2008) calls for cautiousness in confidently drawing any simplified conclusions in regards to the position of Islam and disability as it is an issue of complexity with multiple arguments and opinions amongst Islam specialists. Nevertheless, analyses of the religious texts claim that indeed Islam is a valid foundation for education of children who are disabled under the inclusive education model. Rathore, New, and Iftikhar (2011) state that there are verses:
...indicating that people with disabilities are to be treated with the same rights and respect as the nondisabled. The physical conditions are viewed in the Qur'an as neither a curse nor a blessing but are simply part of the human condition. The Qur'an removes any stigma and barrier to full inclusion of people with physically disabling conditions. (p. 162)
Al-Aoufi et al. (2012) cite verses in their analysis which even ground the social model of disability in Qur'anic text. They further suggest that a sense of responsibility, fairness and rights can be deduced from many of the texts that provide a sound basis for disability legislation in line with international conventions.

Regardless of how Muslims might practice their faith both historically and today, the tenet of human dignity is evident in the Qur'an and is a "basic element of religious belief that can be recovered and employed in order to move the conversation [on]" (Claassens, Swartz, \& Hansen, 2013, p. 7). The UNCRPD shares this principle in its very first sentences where it states the intention to "recognize the inherent dignity and worth and the equal and inalienable rights of all members of the human family as the foundation of freedom, justice and peace in the world" (United Nations, 2006a, preamble). With Islam and its principles intertwined in culture, tradition, daily life, perceptions and responses to people who are disabled, there is great potential for these beliefs to motivate, guide and inform policy and practice towards the further realisation of the equality of rights to education in an inclusive environment.

### 8.4.3 Strength: Interdependence

The ethos of 'caring' running through the findings of this study and through the identified strengths was suggestive of a bigger collective paradigm through which people who are disabled in the participating countries may be viewed (also noted in line with section 8.4.1 Strength: Traditional Values and section 8.4.2 Strength: Islamic Tradition of Human Dignity). This is to say that, although not directly reported in the findings, there were hints and indications of an inclination towards a preference for the endeavour towards interdependence for people who are disabled over independence.

Acceptance of persons with disabilities as part of the nature of human diversity.*

A key informant from one country mentioned how the parents of children who are disabled feel powerless in government administered systems and commented that they:
...ask for things, they're not being implemented and there's not much more they can do.*

People who are disabled in these countries may find themselves as part of a collective identity inextricably linked to their family and community, a paradigm they may perceive to be at odds with the view of separate individuals, citizens and right-holders.

Strong recognition of the prevalence of the concept of interdependence also weaves throughout literature from the Middle East (Brown, 2005; Grech, 2009; Turmusani, 1999; Weber \& City, 2011). Although the UNCRPD itself directly affirms the importance of interdependence as "respect for difference and acceptance of persons with disabilities as part of human diversity and humanity" (United Nations, 2006a, Article 3, section d), its focus in line with human rights is generally understood to be much more one of promoting independence, selfreliance and the development of skills to become a citizen and contributor in one's own right (Brown, 2005). Brown suggests that the tradition of caring for people who are disabled maintains a helplessness and dependence in conflict with human rights. He believes the promotion of independence is hindered by benevolence and by indignance toward the suggestion of burdening people who are disabled with the expectation that they should do everything without help. Citing an example of school accessibility renovations which included a ramp built at such a steep gradient that assistance would still be required for a wheelchair user to ascend, Brown (2005) claims that "traditional thinking contradicts the spirit and intent of human rights legislation in these countries" (p. 260).

This conceptualisation of the individual as an integral part of their community is not unique to the Middle East, but is common to many non-Western societies. Brown (2005) identifies similar dilemmas in Japan and Anthony (2010) in Ghana. As a side note however, Weber and City (2011) suggest that times are changing in the Middle East with the rural-urban shift dispersing extended family groups, rendering them less able to take on the traditional duties of caring and finding them turning to their governments to fulfil these roles. Serving to further reinforce this change, governments are accepting these roles understanding them to be part
of their modern responsibilities under their increasing human rights obligations. While some are turning to the newly available government assistance out of necessity, of concern to Turmusani (1999), and what he considers a segregatory outcome of this shift, is that some families feel compelled to send their children to be 'cared for' by state run institutions based on the belief that the government, informed by Western ideals, must know how to do it better. The understanding, indeed, the misunderstanding, is that human rights and independence require a giving up of interdependence.

Conversely, this family responsibility and inclination to interdependence need not be at variance with human rights and can indeed be conceived as supportive of the progressive realisation of inclusive education. It isn't necessary to extract the principle of the individual identity from the collective identity for inclusive education to be effective. Instead of singling out individual students for special treatment or accommodation and diagnosing difference in classrooms, an interdependency model can integrate individual skills for contribution to the group and towards helping to better each other's performance. Difference and diversity, rather than a deviance needing a separate response, can be considered an opportunity for enrichment of the whole group (Lloyd, 2000). One participant commented:

Considering basically the process to search for the best methods to respond to diverse matters besides the attempt to know how to learn from differences.*

Conceptualising all students collectively on a spectrum of diversity and difference whether they have an impairment or not diverts from the paradigms of normalcy and deficit which current thought has rendered inappropriate (Connor \& Gabel, 2013; Ngcobo \& Muthukrishna, 2011; Sailor \& Burrello, 2012). This is considered a strength for the development of inclusive education methodology. The following quotation, while very dated, captures the concept still very relevant for today.

Groups with different circumstances or forms of life should be able to participate together in public institutions without shedding their distinct identities or suffering disadvantage because of them. The goal is not to give
special compensation to the deviant until they achieve normality, but rather to denormalize the way institutions formulate their rules by revealing the plural circumstances and needs that exist, or ought to exist, within them. (Young, 1989, p. 273)
By directing the focus away from the individual and the fitting of them into the perceived framework of 'normal', the collective paradigm again guides education towards a process of system reform for inclusive education.

The sense of interdependence, community and cooperation in some Middle Eastern countries results in a sharing of whatever is available and has also been identified as a way to circumvent the barrier of shortages of resources in schools. In a community in South Africa, interdependence meant that inclusive education initiatives were not postponed until resources were in place, instead, the community pulled together and resources and inclusiveness have increased parallel to each other (Walton, 2011). Interdependence also appears as a strength when the reciprocal obligations within the family are considered. Investment by a family into the education of their child who is disabled is effectively an investment into the future of the wider family (Anthony, 2010).

On the whole, interdependence does not have to be a separate agenda from that of independence and the rights basis found in the UNCRPD. It can present unique opportunities for the development of inclusive education. A further look at the UNCRPD finds that it does indeed give room for non-Western conceptualisations of interdependence complementary of independence. As seen in the following quotation, a statement of interdependence directly precedes one of independence in the preamble of the UNCRPD.
(m) Recognizing the valued existing and potential contributions made by persons with disabilities to the overall well-being and diversity of their communities, and that the promotion of the full enjoyment by persons with disabilities of their human rights and fundamental freedoms and of full participation by persons with disabilities will result in their enhanced sense
of belonging and in significant advances in the human, social and economic development of society and the eradication of poverty,
(n) Recognizing the importance for persons with disabilities of their individual autonomy and independence, including the freedom to make their own choices, (United Nations, 2006a, Preamble)

The preamble also gives particular recognition of the position of the family in the life of a child who is disabled.
(x) Convinced that the family is the natural and fundamental group unit of society and is entitled to protection by society and the State, and that persons with disabilities and their family members should receive the necessary protection and assistance to enable families to contribute towards the full and equal enjoyment of the rights of persons with disabilities, (United Nations, 2006a, Preamble)

### 8.4.4 Strength: Exemplary programme of education for blind students in regular schools

Indicator 10 placed particular emphasis on education systems giving special consideration to unique communication methods. One of these methods is Braille. The findings indicated that all the participating countries had education programmes in place so that blind children could learn Braille and access the curriculum in Braille; but just one country had an exemplary programme whereby blind children were accessing these accommodations through regular schools. Programmes for blind students in most countries were administered by the Ministry of Social Affairs (or equivalent) and took place in segregated settings rather than through the approach of inclusive education; although in cases where blind students attended public school of their own accord, accommodations in testing procedures were reported to be allowed. Literature from the Middle East reported that segregated placement was the most common approach to providing education rights to children who are disabled in the region, particularly those who are blind (Amr, 2011; UNESCO, 2011a; Weber \& City, 2011), and Axelsson and

Barrett (2009) confirmed that the Ministry of Social Affairs is generally the service provider for disability. Although debates about retaining segregated settings are still to be found in literature (Anastasiou \& Kauffman, 2012) and are even documented continuing right until the last negotiations of the UNCRPD (Schulze, 2010) ${ }^{3}$, the spirit of Indicator 10 and the UNCRPD from which it is derived is that of Braille being an alternative script made available in the inclusive classroom.

The key informant of one country reported that they have a well-established system for provision of resources, training, staff and support enabling blind students to seamlessly participate in general schooling without any need for accommodations other than in marking of work and testing procedures. Although the term 'inclusive education' in literature from the Middle East can be found to refer to many different practices (Amr, 2011; Weber \& City, 2011), international literature generally would not categorise this programme under inclusive education (Ahmed, 2007; Erkilic \& Durak, 2013). The approach may be more appropriately called integration or assimilation as its effectiveness is contingent on the availability of resources and little, if any, reorganisation is expected of schools.

Nevertheless, there is still potential for this currently successful endeavour to be celebrated and its strengths and successes built into the inclusion agenda. Lynas (2002) offers the suggestion that inclusive schools can be built from the 'bottomup', in that while some initiatives may not begin with school improvement as their emphasis, school improvement may indeed be what inadvertently happens.

### 8.4.5 Strength: Whole class instruction

Indicator 9 is about the accommodation of educational measures for children who are disabled in schools. This primarily referred to curriculum, teaching, instruction

[^3]and testing. Findings in terms of practice showed that the key informants had reported support for inclusive education in line with this Indicator. However, when supporting comments, additional documentation and comments from other data groups were examined, the strengths were found to be primarily isolated incidences with differentiation mentioned most commonly in relation to the practices taking place in segregated settings. All strategic plans recognised curriculum differentiation as an ideal (yet unrealised) for the successful inclusion of children who are disabled. It can be assumed that instruction in the schools which children with impairments are attending remains predominantly undifferentiated.

In reviewing the literature, examples were found of recognition of the important place of differentiation of instruction in inclusive education (Kavale, 2002; Lloyd, 2000; Ngcobo \& Muthukrishna, 2011; Slee, 2001). Instructional strategies such as more intense teaching, tailored instruction, flexible curriculum, activity-based learning and cooperative learning are all considered pivotal to the success of the inclusion of children who are disabled in the general classroom (Ferguson, 2008). In the Middle East, however, as confirmed by the findings, teaching approaches are largely teacher-directed and often in classrooms with high student-teacher ratios (Axelsson \& Barrett, 2009; Gaad, 2010). These approaches describe students as being passive and listening quietly unless they are given specific instructions to do or say something, while teachers lecture, explain, instruct and ask questions (Ferguson, 2008; Westbrook et al., 2013). There is a general understanding that these overly didactic approaches are contrary to the individualised measures required for inclusive education (Ferguson, 2008), and Forlin (2010) even suggests that they are "segregatist" (p. 178). Often, inflexible approaches go beyond the teacher level to a larger education system with little autonomy given to teachers (Forlin, 2010). With this understanding, the findings suggest that some children are attending regular schools in their community but may be enrolled despite the lack of differentiation in the classroom. But, as pointed out by Ferguson (2008), data doesn't always tell the whole story. Often "students can be 'in' and not 'of' the class in terms of social and learning membership" (Ferguson, 2008, p. 5).

Westbrook et al. (2013) suggests that it may not be accurate to group all strategies of teacher-directed approaches and label them negative. Another angle noted in the literature is the increasing recognition given to the techniques used in whole class teaching, some of which are being found to serve children with impairments well and assist with their participation (Ainscow, 1997; Le Fanu, 2013; Marvin, 2002; Westbrook et al., 2013). As long ago as 1997, Ainscow (1997) recognised that in developing inclusive education, it made more sense to tap into and develop whole class teaching methods already existing than to attempt to introduce individualised methods carried over from segregated education models. Marvin (2002) found that teacher-directed strategies can be effective in drawing all children into the lesson regardless of their needs. She emphasises the use of peer grouping, pairing, and cooperative tasks which had outcomes in increased peer support, social exchange, self-esteem and a reduced dependency on adults. More recently, Le Fanu (2013) cites studies from 2007, 2010 and 2011 where teachers were observed rejecting recommendations for differentiation and yet still successfully enabling the learning of all students in their class. He has termed this phenomenon "unorthodox inclusion" (Le Fanu, 2013, p. 49) explaining that while teaching was not "learner centred [emphasis added]", it was "learning centred [emphasis added]" (p. 49). Some of the whole class teaching styles considered effective include:

- building on student's prior knowledge
- use of visual aids,
- challenging questions,
- tight pace and structure
- good command of the communication process
- patrolling the class when students are on task
- explicit and structured teaching
(Ferguson, 2008; Le Fanu, 2013; Marvin, 2002; Westbrook et al., 2013)

Some literature puts forward the theory that whole class teaching, when done well, is more in line with the philosophy of inclusive education than the traditional focus on individuals with impairments and their needs which may be a 'carry-over' from
deficit models of disability (Ainscow, 1997). Blanco, Acedo, Amadio, and Opertti (2009) claim that the "key element of inclusion is not the individualization but the diversification of the educational provision and the personalization of common learning experiences" (p. 14). They go on to promote universal design, in the teaching-learning process which follows the logic of diversity rather than homogeneity. Universal design, as defined by the UNCRPD, is where a product, service or environment is designed in such a way that makes it accessible to the most possible people and therefore unlikely to need any special modification for individuals (United Nations, 2006a).

In considering the varying positions of literature and the pervasiveness of teacherdirected instructional approaches in the Middle East region, it seems valid in the context of the participating countries to advocate the development of the strengths of whole class instruction. It could be that the strengths of the approach may be already enabling some children with impairments who are enrolled in their community schools, and if not, there is potential for these strengths to be exploited for their benefits.

### 8.4.6 Strength: Inclusion with few resources

Key informants in the study frequently mentioned the issue of a shortage of resources for implementing inclusive education policy goals. It was raised in connection with:

- indirect costs of education,
- the provision of assistive technology,
- accommodations for individuals,
- discussion of reasons for exclusion or non-enrolment of students
- and as part of education and disability plans and strategies.

Although mention of resourcing arose out of many of the Indicators in the course of the study, it was primarily Indicator 2 that set the standard of inclusive education being free of cost particularly at level of primary schooling. Consistency was found
between policy and practice in terms of public education being free of direct costs. This part of the Indicator 2 was guaranteed through national constitutions. The grey area here was that of indirect costs.

While attending school may be free of charge, other less apparent expenses can place a burden on any family. One type of indirect cost of education arises when there is an expectation to purchase books, uniforms, stationary, and other general resources required for supporting participation in school life and classroom activities. If policy does not specify government responsibility for these costs decisions become directed by budget availability. An additional category of indirect costs are those associated with impairment. Very often, extra resources or equipment are necessary to overcome barriers to participation. These are expenses that the majority population of the school are not faced with. They can be as simple as a pair of glasses for a child to be able to see the blackboard, or much more complex such as a communication device allowing interaction with others for a child with a speech impairment.

Numerous sources cite the shortage of resources as a central factor contributing to low implementation of inclusive education policy in the Middle East (Axelsson \& Barrett, 2009; Hakim \& Jaganjac, 2006; Wright, 2010). The pattern in the findings was consistent with literature in noting that budget availability was the primary determinant of who took responsibility for these costs (Alborz et al., 2011; Lloyd, 2000). Governments with higher education budgets took more responsibility, but the lower the budget, the more responsibility for these costs was relegated to families. As also found in literature (Axelsson \& Barrett, 2009), it was in the participating countries where the government did not shoulder the burden of indirect costs that there were reports of non-attendance, or non-enrolment of a child who is disabled due to the lack of appropriate resources. The data suggested that countries in the Middle East were joining the ranks of Western countries where inclusive education has at times become contingent on resources (Graham \& Jahnukainen, 2011; Kearney \& Kane, 2006). Exclusion was being ‘allowed to
happen' because of financial restraints even with constitutions guaranteeing free education.

Brown (2005) reported that there are some countries in the Middle East able to invest in education, and indeed, one of the participating countries was providing all types of specialised resources for children who are disabled. Interestingly, as also recognised in literature (Axelsson \& Barrett, 2009), the demand for resources continued to increase even in that country, necessitating the development of a differentiated resource allocation model for schools*. Lloyd (2000) and Slee (2001), however, cautioned against misrepresentation of inclusive education as being all about resources. The concern is that an overemphasis on resources as a central policy issue can detract from the reality of inclusive education being primarily an issue of reorganisation of schools and reducing discrimination and oppression.

The economic climate of many countries in the Middle East means that the allocation of funding for specialised resources right from the level of policy development is not always feasible (Alborz et al., 2011; Axelsson \& Barrett, 2009; Dorrance \& Schädler, 2012). These budget restraints were evident in two of the participating countries. One of the education strategy documents made a very clear statement showing that its actions will be constrained by finances:

While the Ministry is committed to providing programs for gifted learners, learners-at-risk, learners with physical, emotional or mental difficulties, learners in small remote communities, and learners with different cultural and religious backgrounds, it recognizes the challenge in doing so with limited financial resources.*

The findings shed light on another factor contributing to the well documented relationship between disability and poverty (Hakim \& Jaganjac, 2006; Singal, 2011; Slee, 2013). When the costs of accessing school exclude a child with an impairment from obtaining an education, their future economic prospects are reduced, placing them at high risk for remaining in poverty. In this context, education, which Singal (2011) terms the 'exit route' from the poverty-disability cycle, remains elusive and
the cycle is perpetuated. A study in Bahrain found the same connection between children of low income earners accessing less efficient education or none at all and the resulting even lower income; while those with higher incomes demanded high quality education for their children which increased their chances of getting a job with an even higher income (Abdelbaki, 2012).

How then, can this situation of limited resources be reconstrued as a point of strength for inclusive education? Of interest to the issue, were the findings that progress, and in some cases very good progress, was being made towards inclusive education despite the shortage or even the entire absence of resources. These findings appeared to contradict the claims of some literature that resources are so crucial to the capacity to implement. Some comments from key informants shed light on possibilities that are worthy of further investigation in future studies.

The first possibility could be entitled 'compensation by charitable organisations'. In some of the countries there was a large presence of non-governmental organisations and charitable groups who provided education support and services for children who are disabled (Khuffash, 2012). There were cases where the activities of organisations involved resourcing inclusive education efforts. This could contribute to the perpetuation of the charity model when meeting these indirect costs is dependent on the goodwill of organisations or individuals. Further still, Axelsson and Barrett (2009) express concern that in a country where there is a large dependency on donor funds for resourcing inclusive education, the addition of other organisations as service providers leads to an environment of competition for already meagre resources and funds. Nevertheless, Axelsson and Barrett (2009) and Hagrass (2005) propose that non-governmental organisations and charitable organisations filling the gaps in government provision need not be a negative move and it can be an effective method of drawing attention to government shortcomings. Axelsson and Barrett (2009) allay concerns that this will take responsibility away from government by suggesting that if administered by one framework, organisations can complement government efforts, increase access to
inclusive education and reduce the influence of the poverty cycle (Hakim \& Jaganjac, 2006). Anastasiou and Kauffman (2012) take it a step further in suggesting that while we are in the process of moving towards increased inclusiveness in schooling driven by philosophical ideals, we must also be practical. They believe it would be irresponsible to take away safety nets such as services provided by charitable organisations as this could leave individual children with less rights and more disadvantaged in the short-term.

Another possible strength identified was that of 'parental resistance to extra resources'. Some of the data noted that sometimes children with impairments were 'found' to be in schools without support or resources. These were children who had been previously unidentified as having any impairment. In some cases they represented situations where parents were not consenting to assessment and who preferred their child to continue with the general education provision. In other cases they were children whose impairments had previously gone undiagnosed. There were also situations where parents had advocated for their child with a known impairment to attend regular schools even though they knew there were no resources available. All of these scenarios place schools in a situation where they are implementing inclusive education without resources. It has been said that the presence of children who are disabled in the classroom can have the positive effect of drawing attention to needs for improvement or reorganisation of general instruction (Ainscow, 2007). These subtle improvements needed are more likely to happen with the impetus of children who are disabled present rather than if inclusive education is required to wait until the provisions are put in place. All of these scenarios add credibility to the recommendations of Lloyd (2000) and UNESCO (2011a) where it is suggested that reorganisation of education provision could aid in reducing the need for impairment-specific resources. Therefore, the strength identified here is that continuing inclusive education in the absence of resources can serve to stimulate general improvement in teaching which in turn diminishes the demand for resources.

### 8.5 Guiding Research Question 3 - Progress Dimension

What progress is being made towards inclusive education?
Recognising that inclusive education is progressively realised, the progress dimension was reviewed as expressed by expectations, developments seen and planning and strategy documents. Findings in terms of progress were assessed to be more promising than both the policy and practice dimensions of the research question (see Table 8-5).

Table 8-5: Overall Inclusion Barometer ratings showing strengths - Progress


Progress was found to be particularly strong in terms of the right and access to community based schooling. Monitoring procedures and awareness raising activities were also reported as strengths. There was strong evidence of provision or planned provision of the necessary physical accessibility of educational buildings, staff and technical supports, and the training and employment of teachers. While less significant, strengths were also identified in terms of the participation of stakeholders, educational accommodations, and recognition of the importance of varying forms of communication such as Braille and sign languages. Strength in the last Indicator, which inquires about perspectives on progression of inclusive education, suggests some high expectations for the progressive realisation of inclusive education in the near future in one of the countries reviewed.

### 8.5.1 Strength: Inclusion for inclusion

Indicator 3 specifies the neighbourhood school as the education setting to which children who are disabled must have access. This ensures that education for children who are disabled is a generalised responsibility and not isolated to special schools or even just a few regular schools. According to the UNCRPD, inclusive education must take place for children who are disabled "in the communities in which they live" (United Nations, 2006a, Article 24, section 2b). In terms of policy commitment to this end, the findings suggested that there was not a strong guarantee or protection of the right of access to community schools for children who are disabled.

Literature generally notes the negative mismatch between policy and implementation (Chaney, 2011; Lei \& Myers, 2011). In the Middle East region it was also found that, in general, policy commitment to inclusive education was far more advanced than reality (Alborz et al., 2013; Gaad, 2010; Laiglesia, 2011; Weber \& City, 2011). The findings in this study however, saw practice in terms of Indicator 3 very similar to the policy environment. However, it was found, in the opinion of the informants from two of the countries, that in the five years previous there had been significant progress in bringing inclusive education into the communities
where children live. The review of policies from two of the countries in this study found they were not only weak, but considered somewhat of a hindrance to the progressive implementation of inclusive education. Table 8-6 displays the barometer results from the three participating countries first in terms of policy, then practice and then progress. It can be seen that for two countries, progress was far more significant than either practice or policy. Therefore, progress appeared to be taking place despite having little policy support. Although the dimension of progress does not reflect the quality or extent of practice it is reporting on, it does suggest that there is potential for progress to take place without policy being the key driver.

Table 8-6: Comparison of Inclusion Barometer ratings for Indicator $\mathbf{3}$ for $\mathbf{3}$ countries Indicator 3: There is equal access to regular schools in the community
Policy

Hindering for progressive implementation
Partly hindering for progressive implementation
Partly supportive for progressive implementation
Supportive for progressive implementation
These findings are possibly an example of the anomaly of natural progression towards inclusion like that which a UK based study noticed (Ainscow, Booth, et al., 2006). The UK study discussed the possibilities of inclusive education developing despite less than suitable policy environments. This raises the question of what was driving the progress, a question not answered through the data collected in the study.

Although international literature often criticises inclusive education methodologies for lacking in robust empirical foundations (Aron \& Loprest, 2012; Chow et al., 1999; Dreyer, 2011), it could be that, with documentation of inclusive education happening despite the odds, as reported by some of the informants in this study, some innovative processes could be recognised. Similarities can be found in a review of inclusive education in South Africa where Walton (2011) noted the value of documenting the experiences of schools who were overcoming barriers and practicing inclusion. She recognises that the findings may not be new, but they will reflect unique contextual dimensions and contribute to the global pool of evidence. UNESCO (2011a) promotes the importance of the same principle in the Middle East particularly as it could significantly impact on the degree of ownership of the inclusive education philosophy in the region.

Taking the concept a step further, Walton (2011) puts forward a bold suggestion that "successful inclusive schools have become inclusive by being inclusive" (p. 243). This is to reject the notion of preparing schools for inclusive education or waiting for research evidence to guide the process. Instead the call is to include all diverse learners in order to practice and learn what it takes to be inclusive because without the presence of these learners who demand accommodation, the impetus for schools to change is low (Walton, 2011). Stopping just shy of giving the same advice, Alborz et al. (2013) are realistic about the situation in Iraq as captured in the following quote:

Current mainstream educational provision lacks assistive devices or other forms of accommodation. Hence it would be naive to suggest, for example, that wholesale inclusion of a child with profound intellectual disability within such an environment, would recognise their right to be educated alongside their peers. However, it is unacceptable to exclude this, or any child, a priori as being uneducable or never to be educated alongside others in their local school, because it is perceived that they 'cannot learn', or because of the assistance they would need to do so. Such a view inhibits
concerted attempts to develop educational provision designed to include disabled children, and underpins their continuing exclusion from, or segregation within it. (p. 2)

Education in the Middle Eastern country of Yemen is also praised for its progressive inclusive education model which developed despite (or some suggest because of) the low buy in to Western models (Bazna \& Reid, 2009). Maas (2012) and Brown (2005) suggest that, in Yemen and the wider Middle East, the relationship between school and society has more impact than school and policy. Brown described the traditional concepts of society, group and family in the Middle East which he considered to take precedence over notions of individuality. When applying this principle to the education of children with impairments, parents in the Middle East, given the choice, will invariable opt for regular classrooms and community schools for their child who is disabled rather than any separation or distancing from the group, a phenomenon also implied by Ahmed (2007), Weber and City (2011) and Bazna and Reid (2009). Some comments from key informants alluded to this being the case in their countries. This finding could be the basis for further research considering the possibility that parental preference for access to community schools may be contributing to the progress of inclusive education despite insufficient policy.

### 8.5.2 Strength: Impetus for Professional Development

There is a well-established understanding in literature that much of the success of inclusive education lies in the hands of the teachers (Amr, 2011; Mackenzie, 2011; Pijl \& Frissen, 2009; Savolainen et al., 2012). Indeed, there were five different Indicators used in this study relating to the role of teachers. Two of them considered the placement of trained teachers.

A theme found throughout the data was that the preparation of teachers for inclusive education in the participating countries was not believed to be adequate, or in some cases non-existent. Studies of teacher attitudes in the Middle East
region confirmed these shortcomings in teacher preparation and the urgency of addressing the issue (Al Zyoudi et al., 2011; Alghazo et al., 2004; Hamaidi et al., 2012). All country education strategies reviewed in this study, however, recognised this and had detailed plans in place for professional development in this regard. Key wording identified in strategic plans included:
developing the human capacity *
incentivising them to stay abreast of new developments *
increasing their knowledge and skills *
raise the standard of their performance *
The significant finding here was more the strong impetus towards professional development than the current shortcomings in teacher preparation. The strategic plans provide an opportunity to tailor professional learning methodology in alignment with approaches proven effective in developing inclusive attitudes. Because inclusive education is believed to be connected with strong personal beliefs, professional development must be equally personal (Ainscow, Booth, et al., 2006; Pijl \& Frissen, 2009). Imposed training courses are unlikely to be as effective as dialogue that leads change from within schools and individuals. Alghazo et al. (2004) says that teachers must recognise their attitudes and UNESCO (2011a) recommends that these attitudes be reconciled with inclusive education philosophy. If approached from this angle, the opportunity availed through strategic plans to develop the capacity of teachers has potential to significantly contribute to the success of inclusive education in the region.

### 8.5.3 Strength: Building of new schools

Indicator 7 called for policy, practice and progress towards the necessary accommodations of class size and architectural considerations for children who are disabled to better access learning. The findings were in line with the claim of literature that the young population in the Middle East is rapidly on the rise (Amr, 2011; Maroun et al., 2008; Roudi, 2001). Findings also suggested that, in one of the countries, the number of students enrolling is some schools is further inflated due
to the rural-urban shift, and others were impacted by the influx of refugees or internally displaced people. Recognition of the urbanisation effect on schools and the post-conflict complexities were noted by Alborz et al. (2011) and Weber and City (2011). These increasing populations posed a difficulty in reaching the ideal of optimum class size even though strategic plans recognised the importance.

On the flip side, this state of affairs created demand for large scale school building campaigns. While findings suggested existing schools were not consistently being renovated, key informants from all three countries claimed that accessibility standards were built in at the design stage for new school buildings. This meant that with the new buildings should come increased physical accessibility. Short term strategies to accommodate students who are disabled were reported to be taking place in the interim. For example, organisation strategies such as transferring a class to the ground floor, temporary ramps, and classmate assistance were supporting students until such a time as the environment is more favourable and contains fewer barriers*. Another country was providing a list of schools in need of renovations to funders rather than waiting for offers of assistance or for government funding to become available. Essentially, the shortage of school buildings, which could be perceived as a limitation in the findings, presents an opportunity for increasing access and independent mobility for students who are disabled.

### 8.5.4 Strength: Development of innovative technologies

According to the data obtained through this study, it was found that all countries recognised the importance of modern technology in education development. Plans were in place for increased provision of technology in schools. Some strategies further recognised the need for specialised devices to support access to inclusive education for children who are disabled. All strategies recognised the almost total lack of provision and because of this, they prioritised investment in modern technology and training of staff. Only one country was currently actively funding assistive devices for children who are disabled in schools, although they did raise
the concern that insufficient training for teachers in the use of such resources was limiting their effectiveness. All countries recognised the benefits of technology in education, some of which were said to be:

- helping move from teacher-centred to student-centred teaching,
- improving student outcomes and
- improving efficiency and performance.

It was further recognised that sourcing this type of provision is challenging within tight fiscal environments and calls for creative approaches. In contrast, one country identified the efficiency of technology as a comparatively low cost means of supplying learning support and resources. Finally it was noted that one country had received an international award for a group of young people who had developed a low cost system for people with quadriplegia to access computers.

The UNCRPD is very clear about the importance of assistive devices and technologies (United Nations, 2006a, Article 26, section 3). It emphasises that they should be researched, developed, available, accessible, affordable and of high quality (United Nations, 2006a). The Indicator requiring consideration of these types of resources was Indicator 8: 'development of accommodation of individual access and learning requirements (personal/technical)'. Literature also concurred with the findings on the necessity of providing these devices and recognised that they can be a determinant of a student's success in learning (UNESCO, 2009b; Walton \& Nel, 2012; Wiazowski, 2012). Other writers suggest that placing too much importance on these technologies can lead to justification of exclusion when they are not available (Alborz et al., 2013). They call instead for more emphasis on general improvements for all and universal design for learning. However, even in the UNCRPD, the terminology of universal design is specifically clarified to "not exclude assistive devices where needed" (United Nations, 2006a, Article 2, definitions) and others have used the provision of this type of resource where needed as a measure of the inclusiveness of a school (Walton \& Nel, 2012). Finally, UNESCO (2009b) agrees with the findings that provision of assistive devices without training in the use of technology renders the technology useless.

It was acknowledged in literature that technological devices come at a cost which results in lower availability in developing countries and, again, people with impairments living in poverty are faced with a further barrier potentially distancing them from education (Bines \& Lei, 2011; Grech, 2009). Palmer and Harley (2012) note the dramatic disparity between countries based on income status as observed in the findings of this study. In a less developed country, the burden of extra costs for the family of a person who is disabled serves to increase the consequences of impairment (Axelsson \& Barrett, 2009; Bines \& Lei, 2011). However, as found in this study, while lack of provision was common, there were some innovative responses in the region (Axelsson \& Barrett, 2009).

Indeed, there was a call for flexibility in realising that, while ideally each individual should be assessed and provided with what is needed to ensure equalisation of opportunity, education systems must be realistic and 'make do' (Wiazowski, 2012). Some of the creative responses noted in literature included purchasing devices with multiple uses, sharing resources within groups and internationally, subsidised devices, 'in-kind' assistance projects and loan programmes (Axelsson \& Barrett, 2009; Wiazowski, 2012).

Although these strategies are potentially applicable in any country, in the findings of this study, participating countries were focused on investing more heavily into technology. This emphasis could be considered a strength with potential to contribute to increased availability of needed assistive devices and technologies for individuals with impairments attending schools. The high level of value found to be placed on technology, the plans in place and underway to release funds and investment into the area, and the high confidence in the contribution of technology are all factors which could afford the opportunity for the incorporation of the technological needs of children who are disabled into the general fund. The other resource identified in the region was the report that a cutting-edge technological device had been developed with local talent. Local design and development of
technologies could be just the creative solution needed to confront some of the shortages.

### 8.5.5 Strength: Innovative Approaches to Funding Modernisation

A recurring theme throughout the data was the commitment to modernisation. This was captured particularly in education strategies using terminology such as "international norms and standards"*, competing with the global community*, and "aligning with contemporary best practice"*. It seems clear that there was a consensus that modernisation of education is synonymous to improvement in education.

The findings were limited in that they offered little further by way of explanation, definition or unpacking of what they intended to derive their understanding of modernisation from. However, with easy access to international evidence based data, education is beginning to have a global flavour with converging policies and practices across borders and seas (Wiseman, 2010). There may be a component in developing countries of imitation of educational practices which are believed to represent 'best practice' on the confidence that they must have developed out of research and scientific evidence (Baker \& Wiseman, 2005). Wiseman (2010) claims that this is far more complex than a mere transplanting, transferring or borrowing of practices between countries. In many cases, there are multiple players including global forces such as the Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development (OECD), the World Bank and the United Nations. These multinational organisations promote various education policies and approaches through their agreed legitimacy and international authority (Baker \& Wiseman, 2005). The UNCRPD promoting inclusive education is an example of this. Modernisation could also be a highly political move and reflect the economic and competitive agendas of the politicians and policy-makers. They may adopt international policies as a means of gaining prestige and public trust and conveying their political positions and intentions (Baker \& Wiseman, 2005; Nguyen, 2010).

Ultimately, modernisation of education could take on many forms and take place as a result of varying forces. Literature confirmed that this ambition to emulate practices from countries such as Europe, USA, UK and other countries considered progressive is indeed reflective of the wider Middle East (Bazna \& Reid, 2009; Gaad, 2010). However, on the point of whether modernisation is analogous to better education there was disagreement. Observation of the trend towards inclusive education under the guise of modernisation was closely followed by cautions in regard to the ineffectiveness of importing changes in practices and the assumption that the associated attitude changes considered necessary for inclusion would follow suit (Alborz et al., 2013; Laiglesia, 2011; Pijl \& Frissen, 2009; Savolainen et al., 2012). On the whole, literature is critical of the packaging of inclusive education as 'modern' in the Middle East (Brown, 2005; Gaad, 2004; UNESCO, 2011a).

While there is potential for these type of reforms to be misunderstood, misinterpreted and ineffective; in the context of the Middle East, the modernisation of education is taking place fast (Brown, 2005; Gaad, 2010). The conceptualising of this type of education reform as a strength for inclusive education is based on the recognition that inclusive education aligns well with and fits within the agenda of modernisation (Gaad, 2010). To increase the chances of receptiveness and policy ownership, it is important to heed to the advice of (UNESCO, 2011a) and ensure that modern policies are converged with traditional perspectives.

With modernisation rapidly taking place, in many countries in the Middle East region it is accompanied by significant investment (Weber \& City, 2011). Review of education strategy from one of the participating countries noted the plan for:
increasing financial allocations for the education sector in line with the requirements of development and modernisation*

If inclusive education is recognised as a component of general modernisation efforts there is less likelihood that the issue will be side-lined as a 'luxury' (Alborz,

2013; Amr, 2011; Gaad, 2010; Lei \& Myers, 2011) and the very real possibility that policy could be accompanied by financial arrangements and become a reality (Weber \& City, 2011).

Not all the countries in the region or those who participated in the study were economically positioned to invest significantly into modern education initiatives. Some were operating under tight financial constraints and had many competing priorities. However, along with their modernisation of education agendas, there were some innovative plans for securing the associated funds noted throughout the data collection process. The proposition raised a number of times was that of encouraging private sector investment into the modernisation of education. This could particularly target those organisations having education activities, activities for the disabled and those who have a stake in the countries' young populations. Aligning budgets for schools with their school needs following a bottom-up approach is also suggested in the strategies, as it is believed to be more efficient and avoids what was reported in the literature as policies driven by what is fundable (Maas, 2012). Therefore, whether the funding is readily available or not, if inclusive education 'joins the band-wagon' of the drive towards modernisation of education, there are more opportunities to benefit from innovative funding mechanisms.

### 8.6 Overall Research Question

How do national education policies and access to schooling in participating Middle Eastern countries align with the inclusive education expectations of the United Nations Convention on the Rights of Persons with Disabilities?

This research question has provided direction for the overall inquiry of this study in the context of the countries selected to participate; Bahrain, Iraq, and Jordan. A detailed answer can be seen in Table 8-7 which displays a compilation of the barometer ratings for each country colour coded to indicate when the analysis found the policies and access to schooling to be supportive of inclusive education as assessed through the lens of the UNCRPD.

Table 8-7: Overall Inclusion Barometer ratings showing strengths across all dimensions
Indicators
Right to inclusive
education
strengths across all three dimensions in line with each Indicator


It can be seen in the above table that strengths were identified to some degree according to every Indicator. In some cases they were stronger than others or more supportive for progressive implementation of inclusive education, and some Indicators show more incidences of strength than others. While the findings represented by these barometer ratings present the surface level facts about the points of alignment, there was more complexity noted as these strengths were aligned with the guiding research questions and compared with literature. This categorical answer to the research question provides a basis from which the answers to the three guiding research questions branched out. They were a level of answers which were less linear in light of the endeavour of the study to contribute to the combating of oppression and exclusion of children who are disabled in education in the wider Middle East. Although organised according to the three dimensions and research questions, true to reality, strengths often intersect, complement or contradict each other, and rarely can be assigned exclusively to just one Indicator or dimension.

The strengths as discussed in this chapter can be visualised as the radii of a spider's web (see Figure 8-2). This metaphor is adapted from Walton and Nel (2012) where it is used to measure what counts as inclusion. Here it is seen to represent the strengths identified and how they can contribute to the overall spinning of a growing web of inclusion. One radius alone is insufficient to support the web, and even multiple radii may not complete it. But with more strands and more
connections the web is strengthened. This representation of the findings is not linear as the comparison of the Indicators and data in Chapters 5-7 was, nor is it like the barometer suggesting a progression from unsupportive to supportive of inclusive education. Instead it finds the data and Indicators intersecting and connecting asymmetrically in more organic ways.

In practice, inclusive education at classroom, school and system levels is messy and contradictory. Schools can be sites of multiple inclusions and exclusions in time and place... inclusion and exclusion are enacted moment-by-moment by teachers and learners. (Walton \& Nel, 2012, p. 6)


Figure 8-2: Web of Strengths for inclusive education

### 8.7 Conclusion

Through application of the strengths approach, this chapter has attempted to delve into the findings that resulted from the methodological comparison of the UNCRPD and data from three countries in the Middle East. In delving, some strengths were able to be unearthed along with their flavour, their localness and their grounding in context, culture, religion and tradition. In place of the traditional list of recommendations, in this discussion emerges a web of possibility. The fibres of the web are drawn out of the findings with the potential for inclusive education to arise from them and to carry weight for the developing inclusive education agenda.

This discussion necessarily involved a degree of speculation and extrapolation of what in some cases was only hinted towards or was only found in pockets of the data. This provides even more reason to draw attention to these possibilities as they may otherwise remain hidden or undiscovered and the comparison to the Literature Review served to confirm and provide a theoretic grounding for the strengths found.

## CHAPTER NINE

## CONCLUSION

This chapter begins with a brief overview of this study by situating it alongside recent events, identifying the theories and research stance which informed the process, and briefly outlining the structure of the research process. The contributions this study offers to current knowledge are divided up into the implications for the United Nations Convention on the Rights of Persons with Disabilities (UNCRPD), implications for policy, for practice and for progress, and the implications in terms of the P2i Toolkit used. Some limitations of the findings are then mentioned and then this chapter, and indeed the manuscript, concludes with raising possibilities for future research and then offering some final thoughts.

### 9.1 SITUATING THE CONCLUSIONS

This study took place between 2012 and 2014 which was a time of significant tension and unrest in the wider Middle East region. During this time civil uprisings took place in Bahrain and Syria; there were major protests in Algeria, Iraq, Jordan, Kuwait, Morocco, Israel and Sudan; minor protests were seen in Mauritania, Oman, Saudi Arabia, Djibouti, Western Sahara and Palestine; sectarian clashes in Syria, Lebanon, and Iraq; insurgency in Sinai and Iraq; civil war in Syria which spilled into Lebanon; and rulers were forced from power in Tunisia, Egypt (twice), Libya and Yemen. The study finishes in a particularly disturbed time with Iraq facing a surge of violence through an offensive by a Jihadist group, continued fighting between government and rebels in Syria, and the 2014 escalation of the Israel-Palestinian conflict. Clearly, the main concerns of those in the participating countries were with issues on a different level than education for children who are disabled. Nevertheless, the study went ahead with the participation of key informants from Bahrain, Iraq and Jordan and as a result has allowed some deep insights into inclusive practices in the unique context of the Middle East.

Although the research was initially being conducted from Iraq, the researcher decided to return to New Zealand in 2013 and maintain contact with the participants remotely. The transformative stance adopted by the researcher framed the intentions of the study to contribute in the struggle towards increased rightsbased access to an inclusive education for children who are disabled in the Middle East region. This research was also informed by the social model of disability which interprets disability as largely a social construct (Oliver, 1983) and by policy theory which defines policy as intertwined with its context (Bernstein, 2000; Singh \& Taylor, 2007; Weaver-Hightower, 2008). The United Nations Convention on the Rights of Persons with Disabilities (United Nations, 2006a) and particularly Article 24 provided a structure to the P2i Toolkit and eventually the analysis. Data was collected from the three countries through participants involved in inclusive education at national, regional and local levels. The study itself was a negotiation of the words, nuances, silences, implications, ideas, connections, intentions and aims of policies, plans, reports, regulations, strategies, and legislation combined with the opinions, interpretations and expectations of the key informants. These findings were explored through the three dimensions of policy, practice and progress. The literature about exclusionary forces in education policy and practice both in the Middle East and larger international context served to guide the analysis and as a result a useful perspective of inclusive education from a distinct Middle East perspective was uncovered. This seemingly complex method of approaching the research questions, in fact, allowed an intrinsically multifaceted interplay of data to be deconstructed and reconstructed in a simple way that would allow for sense making to occur.

### 9.2 IMPLICATIONS FOR MONITORING OF THE UNCRPD

Although the UNCRPD is signed or ratified by all of the countries in the Middle East, it is a government level commitment and cannot be assumed to also reflect the commitment of those who are required to implement its goals. Thus, the convention and the obligation to provide an inclusive education is, in some ways,
imposed upon schools and teachers. However, this study suggests that it need not be received that way. Due to the progressive realisation provision recognising the time and resources needed to bring implementation into alignment, an opportunity is afforded to negotiate starting points and develop existing practices. The UNCRPD can effectively aid in identifying strengths, instead of measuring gaps. Literature often reports the Middle East to be lagging behind in international standards for inclusive education. The broad base of this study surveyed the entire spectrum of inclusive education from policy through to practice and progress. Through interconnection, comparison, correlation of strengths and all their messiness, the context of the Middle East is now reported to have a unique foundation and basis upon which inclusive education can be built, is being practiced, can be further developed and grounded on, and through which policy can be connected to local realities and understandings. This study contributes optimism.

### 9.3 Implications for policy

The findings served to confirm that, as literature reports, there exists a robust commitment to inclusive education at the policy level in the Middle East which does not consistently filter down into practice. When practice doesn't line up with policy it is common to blame those responsible for implementation, or put it down to resistance of society to something that is 'good for them'. In those countries with centralised administration of education provision, findings suggested that there is weakness or absence of local policy and that this could be contributing to the policy-practice disconnect. A contribution of this study was in identifying the strong parts of existing policies which could be developed further in lower level regional or local policies and guidelines. Another implication with potentially wide impact is the recognition that it may not be necessary or desirable for policy development to remain the exclusive domain of political figures.

- The preference of people with disabilities for the rights-based approach and their successful advocacy at various levels offers the opportunity for more participatory approaches to be used in developing policy.
- Empowering parents of children who are disabled to channel their preference for inclusive education into negotiating policy texts which guide how such an education could be administered is a further avenue with potential to increase the integration of policy and context.
- Further still, a bottom-up approach to policy whereby the inclusion that is already taking place is documented and scrutinised to inform local and national policy development is another possibility worthy of consideration.


### 9.4 Implications for practice

The contribution of this study to the practice of inclusive education for students who are disabled is found in the developing recognition that rights-based activities do not necessitate a total change in belief and attitude, or an elimination of provision rooted in other motivations. Instead, it is offered that the pockets of practice and the attitudes towards education of children who are disabled, if well harnessed, can be used as a hotbed for wider and more rights-based provision.

- If the obligation towards charity is where services begin, people with their immediate needs met may be able to learn of, and even advocate for their rights. According to a rights-based approach it is preferable that access to services is equitable and not susceptible to the fluctuating goodwill of donors and the benevolent (Axelsson \& Barrett, 2009). However, in transitional times with governments facing limited financial resources or conflicting priorities, services provided by any approach are a starting point that might at least ensure that some have their immediate needs met. The implication here is that to discount services due to the motivation of charity may have the adverse effect of disempowering individuals with impairments and as such, a loss of rights. While agreeing with the literature in opposing the charity-model of disability, the findings of this study offer a different
interpretation on how to respond to the ongoing existence of the model. The benefits of accepting the existence of the charity model and transforming it from within appear more enabling than a stance of disapproval and determination to rid society of such paradigms.
- Charitable organisations filling the gaps in service provision may compel governments to take increased responsibility. Services which ultimately will become the domain of government may initially be sustained by other groups and organisations. When governments are eventually in a position to take over responsibility, there is an opportunity for them to have a model for imitation, to absorb the existing expertise, and to build on good practice and track records already developed. There are also opportunities for governments to benefit from the expertise involved in designing these services, be it disabled peoples' organisations, or international organisations with internationally standardised approaches. Governments would be welladvised to gain from this advantage.
- The tradition of interdependence need not conflict with developing independent citizens. On the contrary, maximising the strength of communities pulling together may be what prevents marginalisation and supports the integration of people who are disabled. When inclusive education is connected with the promotion of the development of students as self-reliant and independent, the model begins to have a particularly Western flavour, unfamiliar, and often undesirable to the tastes of those in the Middle East. Processes of inclusive education which keep the interconnectedness of society and students central serve to gain more favour and as a result, have more impact.
- Parents enrolling children who are disabled into schools and refusing any diagnosis or associated special assistance may be a force that necessitates inclusive education to develop from the bottom-up. It may be that inclusive education processes will be driven more and more by the demand of parents; and in turn further reinforced by classroom teachers who request resources and system support for managing the diversity inadvertently
found in their classrooms. Development of inclusion from this angle has exciting implications for developing professional learning and development of teachers, providing resources and writing supporting policy from a distinctly needs-driven, bottom-up approach. The result could be far more effectual than the top-down approaches currently employed where those far detached from day-to-day realities of the classroom attempt to seek to spell out what counts as inclusiveness. Brown (2005) reaches a similar conclusion which this study serves to reinforce and further develop. He proposes that it may be parental preference for inclusion that succeeds in driving the inclusive education agenda forward.


### 9.5 IMPLICATIONS FOR PROGRESS

This study contributes a 'web of strengths' as a way of conceptualising progress towards the increased inclusive education for children who are disabled. This aligns with the UNCRPD recognition that if a country documents any efforts, it is significant. It also aligns with the understanding that inclusive education is not a state of being, but instead a process of continual flexibility, adjustment, accommodating and redefining the appearance of schools and teaching. Instead of hoping that one size might fit all, schools must be continuously 'refitted' environmentally, socially, and pedagogically in response to the unique individuals they serve. This study suggests that the Middle East context supports the accuracy of the following observation of two English primary school classrooms:
'Inclusion' is not a target to be hit, or a goal to be reached; nor is it the final destination of a road of continuous linear improvement. Rather, inclusion is an ongoing process: marked out by struggle and negotiation, and worked out through interpersonal actions and relations in a wider social and political context. (Benjamin, Nind, Hall, Collins, \& Sheehy, 2003, p. 556)

The implication here is that ongoing monitoring and evaluation of education and its inclusiveness can be measured using the P2i Toolkit and framed within the
strength's approach to produce an assessment that is politically motivating and empowering.

### 9.6 Implications for the P2I Toollit

This study also offers a contribution to the P2i Toolkit which was used. As a replication, the successful application of the 'Pathways to Inclusion' instrument (European Association of Service Providers for Persons with Disabilities, 2009) and the 'Inclusion Barometer' (Sozialverband Deutschland, 2009) to the context of the Middle East adds to its theoretically validity as a monitoring tool for the UNCRPD.

- The strength found in the P2i Toolkit was that it was based on opinion rather than observation. This reduced surveyor bias of what inclusive education was and how it should be flavoured and was found to be particularly important with a researcher not of Middle Eastern heritage.
- The detailed breakdown of the data guided by the P2i Toolkit allowed for the noticing of nuances and hidden factors which may not have otherwise been revealed.
- The structured matching of the 'ideal' with the 'findings' allowed the analysis not only to note surface level matches and mismatches, but also to note more complex realities such as mismatches which may actually be matches that have been misunderstood.
- The analysis of this study offers a further method of presenting the findings in the form of a web of strengths extending out in diverse ways and with increasing connections. Beyond the barometer rating and the definitive supportive/hindering paradigm, this 'web of strength' may be incorporated into future development of the P2i Toolkit.


### 9.7 LIMITATIONS

The concept and practice of the P2i Toolkit meant that there were limitations to the findings and conclusions. With multiple understandings of inclusive education, the Indicators used to represent a standard expectation of what inclusive education should look like could be contested, as also could the ratings allocated as a result of the analysis. However, the P2i Toolkit is not put forward as a singular model for measuring support for inclusive education, but rather as a lens for focusing our attention on strengths that can further the enablement of children who are disabled in schools in the Middle East. Even with these limitations the P2i Toolkit has potential to be further fine-tuned and contextualised for monitoring the UNCRPD in the Middle East, and for contributing to the on-going discourse of inclusive education in the region.

In a study across countries, differences in political interest, definitions of key terms, and data availability are vast. Other researchers in the Middle East have bemoaned not only the scarcity of education statistics and data in the region, but also the reliability of what might be found (Amr, 2011; Brown, 2005; Gaad, 2010). Therefore, while the study lends itself to comparison between countries and regions, this was done with caution knowing that the results within the limits of this one study will not represent a complete picture of each case.

The 'strengths approach' was chosen as the theory within which the discussion chapter was framed. Consequently it contains little mention of the factors hindering progressive realisation of inclusive education. This intentional omission may present as a limitation if the reader is particularly interested in knowing the barriers. However, in the presentation of the findings (Chapters 4-7), no attempt is made to ignore, dismiss or cover up the gaps and shortcomings as they were reported. One need only to look back to the findings, compare barometer ratings and read the narrative reports to easily identify the outcomes from the angle of weaknesses or 'room for improvement'. Further still, as any time such weaknesses
were identified they were also aligned with the Indicators, the Indicators can be directly utilised to provide guidance as to how recommendations would be framed if the outcomes were presented from a deficit approach.

While it need not lessen the potential impact of the strengths identified, it deserves to be mentioned that in most cases the strengths were not reflective of all participating countries and schools. Even responses between different informants varied in this regard. Some strengths may reflect only one country or even only one isolated situation. Furthermore, the ethical obligations to the anonymity of the informants prevented identifying the source country of each strength.

### 9.8 Further research

Although research is intended to answer questions, there are always further questions which are created. This is not to say that research questions are never answered, but that the answers can provide a grounding and direction for future research. Transformative researchers, committed to contributing in the struggle for increasing the inclusiveness of society, must beware of the "political cul-de-sac" (Barton, 1997, p. 240) where questions are only asked and the conversation is not moved forward into dismantling oppression. If enablement is not a result, research into inclusive education may inadvertently contribute to the disabling discourse. Therefore, the questions raised through this research are offered as a next step in advancing the investigation.

The broad base and overview this study provided was unable to offer much depth into the strengths for inclusive education that were noted in various countries and contexts. Further research opportunities are presented to explore individual strengths more and to increase understanding of them and their potential for developing policy, practice and as a result, the progress of inclusive education. This could aid in progression towards practical advice for implementation.

- The strengths identified in terms of the ethos of caring raise questions about transitioning from the charity model to a rights-based or social model of disability. Some of these questions raised are: What pathways and strategies have successfully supported the process of a rights-based service emerging out of a service initiated under the charity model for disability? What steps need to be taken? What support needs to be given? These questions are possibly best approached by, or with the participation of, people who are disabled.
- The presence of children who are disabled in schools raised the question of how can, or how are, bottom-up approaches initiating inclusive education in the Middle East where educational administration is centralised? The further question would be: Can the parentally initiated inclusion of children who are disabled facilitate the development of inclusive education?
- A question arising from findings of the traditional value placed on interdependence in Middle Eastern communities is: How would a practical framework look that promotes rights-based approaches within, rather than in opposition to, the traditionally held practices of interdependence, the collective paradigm and group identity?
- In the bid to further develop the basis for building inclusive education up out of the existing practices in the Middle East, it would be interesting to investigate more intensively how whole class teaching is enabling children who are disabled in regular classrooms.


### 9.9 Final Comments

This study has served to confirm the understanding that inclusion is a journey, yet not in a straight line, nor with one path, and not as a journey with a destination. Instead, it is a continual negotiation of tradition, ambition, power, culture, expectation, belief, and ability fraught with contradiction, and a balancing of agendas, resources, identities, priorities and needs. There are moments of inclusion also characterised by exclusion, there is exclusion disguised as inclusion, and
sometimes inclusion is mistaken as exclusion. The metaphor of an asymmetric web was used to demonstrate the significant findings of this study. Each radii of the web represented a strength for inclusive education found in policy, practice or progress, or some combination thereof. The value of the web as a metaphor is in representing the unexpected strength despite apparent fragility, the near invisibility of the threads, the lack of symmetry, and the susceptibility to changing climates and predators. In as much, the conclusions drawn in this chapter could be described as 'hesitant conclusions'. It cannot be confidently concluded that the strengths for inclusive education found are reflective of anything more than an isolated opinion or observation, nor that they are replicable, applicable or relevant to other situations. However, it is with confidence that this study can conclude that inclusive education for children who are disabled is alive and well in the Middle East, that it has grounding in local traditions and belief, and that it is possible for inclusive education to be distinctly Middle Eastern while also aligning with international standards for practice. Having begun with a citation from the UNCRPD claiming that human rights conventions are transformative, this manuscript is concluded with a voice from the Middle East claiming that transformative power is also to be found within the context and perspectives unique to the Middle East region. The words of Mahmoud Darwish, the late renowned Palestinian poet, capture the indomitable spirit in the region and the belief in the possibility of transforming and rising above circumstances (Khalidi, 2008).

The Prison Cell

(Mahmoud Darwish)

It is possible... It is possible at least sometimes... It is possible especially now

To ride a horse
Inside a prison cell
And run away...
It is possible for prison walls
To disappear,
For the cell to become a distant land
Without frontiers:


What did you do with the walls?
I gave them back to the rocks. And what did you do with the ceiling?

I turned it into a saddle. And your chain?
I turned it into a pencil.
The prison guard got angry.
He put an end to my dialogue.
He said he didn't care for poetry,
And bolted the door of my cell.
He came back to see me
In the morning,
He shouted at me:
Where did all this water come from?
I brought it from the Nile.
And the trees?
From the orchards of Damascus.
And the music?
From my heartbeat.
The prison guard got mad;
He put an end to my dialogue.
He said he didn't like my poetry,
And bolted the door of my cell.
But he returned in the evening:
Where did this moon come from?
From the nights of Baghdad.
And the wine?
From the vineyards of Algiers.
And this freedom?
From the chain you tied me with last night.

The prison guard grew so sad...
He begged me to give him back
His freedom.

Translated by Ben Bennani
(Nye, 2008, pp. 48-49)

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## APPENDICES

## Appendix A: Correspondence between the Indicators and the UNCRPD

| \# | Indicator | UNCRPD |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 1 | ...inclusive education on preschool, primary school and secondary level | Article 24, section 2a |
| 2 | ...free primary inclusive education | Article 24, section 2a,b |
| 3 | ...equal access to regular schools in the community | Article 24, section 2b |
| 4 | ...equal access to tertiary education | Article 24, section 5 |
| 5 | ...participation in decision making on inclusive education | Article 7, section 3 |
| 6 | ...assessment procedures supportive of inclusive education | Article 24, section 1b |
| 7 | ...accommodation of individual access and learning requirements (architectural) | Article 24, section 2c,d,e |
| 8 | ...accommodation of individual access and learning requirements (personal/technical) | Article 24, section 2c,d,e |
| 9 | ...accommodation of educational measures | Article 24, section 2c,d,e |
| 10 | ...facilitation of learning of Braille, sign language and other forms of communication and orientation | Article 24, section 3 |
| 11 | ...training of teachers and staff and employment of qualified teachers | Article 24, section 4 |
| 12 | ...monitoring of inclusive education | Article 33, section 2 |
| 13 | ...activities of professional associations and measures for awareness raising of governments | Article 8 |
| 14 | ...perspectives on progression of inclusive education | Article 4, section 2 |

Appendix B: Set of criteria for combining multiple ratings into one barometer rating

| Rating | Criteria | Examples |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| To gain a rating of '4' | The ratings for more than half of the data should be ' 4 ' | $[1,1,4,4,4][1,2,4,4,4][1,3,4,4,4][1,4,4,4,4]$ $[2,2,4,4,4][2,3,4,4,4][2,4,4,4,4][3,3,4,4,4]$ $[3,4,4,4,4][4,4,4][3,4,4][2,4,4][1,4,4]$ $[1,4,4,4][2,4,4,4][3,4,4,4][4,4,4,4][4,4,4]$ $[4,4,4,4,4]$ |
| To gain a rating of ' 3 ' | The ratings will be more than half ' 3 ' | $[1,1,3,3,3][3,3,3,3,4][1,3,3][1,3,3,3][2,3,3,3]$ $[3,3,3,3][3,3,3,4,4][3,3,3][2,3,3,3,3]$ $[1,3,3,3,3][1,2,3,3,3][3,3,4][3,3,3,4]$ $[1,3,3,3,4][2,2,3,3,3][2,3,3,3,4][2,3,3][3,3,3]$ $[3,3,3,3][3,3,3,3,3]$ |
|  | The rating will be half ' 4 ' and half any combination of ' 2 ' or ' 1 '. | [1,2,4,4] [1,1,4,4] [2,2,4,4] |
|  | The ratings will be more than $50 \%$ any combination of ' 3 ' and ' 4 ' (unless more than half are ' 4 ') | $\begin{aligned} & {[2,3,3,4][2,3,4,4][1,1,3,3,4]} \\ & {[1,2,3,3,4][1,3,3,4,4][2,2,3,3,4][2,3,3,4,4]} \\ & {[2,3,4][1,3,3,4][1,3,4,4][1,3,4][1,1,3,4,4]} \\ & {[1,2,3,4,4][2,2,3,4,4][3,3,4,4]} \end{aligned}$ |
| To gain a rating of ' 2 ' | The ratings will be all ' 2 ' or, | [2,2,2,2] [2,2,2] [2,2,2,2,2] |
|  | The ratings will be more than half ' 2 ' | $\begin{aligned} & {[2,2,2,4][2,2,2,3][1,2,2,2][2,2,3][2,2,2,4,4]} \\ & {[2,2,2,2,3][1,1,2,2,2][1,2,2][2,2,2,2,4]} \\ & {[1,2,2,2,2][1,2,2,2,3][1,2,2,2,4][2,2,4]} \\ & {[2,2,2,3,3][2,2,2,3,4]} \end{aligned}$ |
|  | The ratings will be more than half any combination of ' 1 ' and ' 2 ' (unless more than half are ' 1 ') | $[1,2,2,4][1,2,2,3][1,1,2,4][1,1,2,3][1,1,2,2]$ $[1,2,2,4,4][1,2,2,3,4][1,2,2,3,3][1,1,2,4,4]$ $[1,2,3][1,1,2,2,3][1,1,2,2,4][1,1,2,3,3]$ $[1,1,2,3,4][1,2,4]$ |
|  | The ratings will be half any combination of ' 3 ' and ' 4 ' and half any combination of ' 2 ' or ' 1 ' | $\begin{aligned} & {[2,2,3,4][2,2,3,3][1,2,3,4][1,2,3,3][1,1,3,3]} \\ & {[1,1,3,4]} \end{aligned}$ |
| To gain a rating of ' 1 ' | The ratings for more than half should be ' 1 '; | $[1,1,1,1,2][1,1,1,1,3][1,1,1,1,4][1,1,1,2,2]$ $[1,1,1,2,3][1,1,1,2,4]$ $[1,1,1,3,3][1,1,1,3,4][1,1,1,4,4]$ $[1,1,1][1,1,2][1,1,3][1,1,4][1,1,1,1][1,1,1,2]$ $[1,1,1,3][1,1,1,4]$ |

## Appendix C: Ethics approval

## MASSEY UNIVERSITY

TE KUNENGA KI PUREHUROA

3 October 2012

Karen Chesterton
PO Box 36
Sulaimany
IRAQ

Dear Karen
Re: HEC: Southern B Application - 12/25
Inclusive education in the Middle East: A policy review
Thank you for your letter dated 28 September 2012.
On behalf of the Massey University Human Ethics Committee: Southern B I am pleased to advise you that the ethics of your application are now approved. Approval is for three years. If this project has not been completed within three years from the date of this letter, reapproval must be requested.

Please note that travel undertaken by students must be approved by tho supervisor and the relevant Pro Vice-Chancellor and be in accordance with the Policy and Procedures for Course-Related Student Travel Overseas. In addition, the supervisor must advise the University's Insurance Officer.

If the nature, content, location, procedures or personnel of your approved application change, please advise the Secretary of the Committee.

Yours sincerely


Dr Nathan Matthews, Chair
Massey University Human Ethics Committee: Southern B
cc Dr Alison Kearney School of Curriculum \& Pedagogy PN900

A/Prof Helen Southwood, HoS
School of Education
aLbany

Dr Mandia Mantis School of Education
ALBANY
Mrs Roseanne MacGillivray Graduate School of Education PN900

Appendix D: Confidentiality Agreement

## Inclusive Education in the Middle East: A Policy Review

 CONFIDENTIALITY AGREEMENT$\qquad$
$\qquad$ agree to keep confidential all information concerning the project "Inclusive Education in the Middle East: A Policy Review".

I will not retain or copy any information involving the project.

## Signature:

Date:

## Appendix E: Information Sheet - Questionnaire

MASSEY UNIVERSITY
COLLEGE OF EDUGATION
Ki xupenga o TE METAURAVGA Centennial Drive
Private Bag 11222
Palmerston North
New Zealand

## Inclusive Education in the Middle East: A Policy Review

## INFORMATION SHEET - Questionnaire for Experts

## Researcher Introduction

My name is Karen Chesterton. I am writing to you to invite you to parficipate in a research project that I am conducting as part of my Education Doctorate at Massey University in Palmerston North, New Zealand. I live in lraq and will be conducting the research from there.
Project Description and Invitation

- The project secks to investigate how national education policies and access to schooling in participating Middle Eastern countries compares to the inclusive education expectations of the United Nations Convention on the Rights of Persons with Disabilities. It will involve an analysis of inclusive education implementation and poicy in three countries in the Middle East for the purpose of identifying strengths and offering recommendations for ongoing improvement in the inclusiveness of education policies in the region. Participants will be asked to comment on some aspects of the political situation in their country.
- This project will involve questionnaires and interviews which have been developed and used previously in Europe. These tools will be used in this research project to help to understand the degree of progress achieved towards inclusive education in the Midde East. Three questionnaires will be sent to different participants in your country. Each questionnaire investigates policy from a different level, either national/regional or local; and considerss the different issues of legislation, practice or progress. Two further people in the same country will participate in interviews to investigate local practice and progress.
- You are invited to parficipate in this research by completing a quesfionnaire which investigates (........................................). Completing this questionnaire should take no longer than (.-.......).
- As this research is part of a doctoral thesis, results from this project will be published. However, no identifying information will be included in any publications.
Participant Identification and Recrultment
- I have contacted [name of orgarization] which works with disabled people in [name of county]. They have suggested your name as someone with the relevant experience to provide information.
- The criteria for selecting countries was that the official language be Arabic and that they are dissimilar from other countries selected in order to provide increase the diversity of the information. Countries will not be compared in the analysis.
- Participants for this questionnaire are required to be professionals in the field of education preferably with education of children with disabilities, OR a government official or other leader in the fild of inciusive education with access to policy and statistics, OR an indusive educational professional or acadernic (with exception of school principals)
- Seven participants are to be involved from three countries providing different perspectives from the levels of national or regional and local, and also school levels.


## Project Procedures

- You are being invited to complete a questionnaire which you will return to me by email.
- You will be asked to return your questionnaire responses within six weeks.
- You may contact me or my translator at any time to discuss the questions or the research process.


## Data Management

- Results from the questionnaires along with other data sources will be used to compare to the UN Convention and a rating given which helps to identily meaningful ways to promote the ongoing implementation process.
- The data will be aligned with the criteria of the UN Corvention and I will analyze it with the support of the translator. The translator will be required to sign a confdentiality agreement.
- Data will all be stored in electronic form in a password protected computer accessible only to the supervisor and myself. After the project is completed the data will be stored for five years and then deleted by the superviscr.
- The final report will be published.
- You are enfitled to a summary of the findings fromyour country included in this research. You can indicate that you would like to receive this on the consent form and it will be sent to you.
Possible Risks to Participants
- You may feel uncomfortable if you feel compelled to provide negative information about your country in your responses. However you can decline to answer any question and the final report will focus mainly on strengths and steps forward. You are also fee to withdraw from this project at any point
- Anonymity cannot be fully guaranteed, but every effort will be made to ensure that no identifying information will be used. No names wiil be used
- You may be concerned that your identity will be revealed in the report Your name will not be included in the research report and it is only known to the organization who nominated you that you might participate. IH you indicate so on the consent form, your general position or tille may be included. You are also free to remain completely uridentified. The report will list the three cauntries involved, but when presenting the results, countries will be coded as Country A, Country B, and Cauntry C. Data which overtly identifies the country or area will not be ind uded.
Participant's Rights
You are under no obligation to accept this invitation. If you decide to participate, you have the right to:
- decline to answer any particula question;
- withdraw from the study within six weeks;
- ask any questions about the study at any fime during participation;
- provide information on the understanding that your name will not be used;
- be given access to a summary of the project findings when it is concluded.

Project Contacts
Researcher:
Karen Chesterton
Karen chesterton.10massev.ac.nz
Ph: +964 7501157718
Translator:
Rukhosh Ali Darwesh
uuxosh 67(i)yahoocam
Ph: +964 7711554004
Supervisor:
Alison Kearney
ackeamevormassevaant
You are irvited to contact me and/or my translator or supervisor if you have any questions about the project.

## Committee Approval Statement

This project has been reviewed and approved by the Massey University Human Ethics Committee: Southern B, Application 12/25. If you have any concerns about the conduct of this research, please contact Dr Nathan Matthews, Chair, Massey University Human Ethics Committee: Southern B, telephone $063505799 \times 8729$, email humanethicsouthb@massey.ac.nz

طرة عجلية لتكرلـزِ عبلية التنفيد الجارلة.

 الانتهاء ميز المشرو -
 سيته ارسالها لـك

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حقوة الششارك


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الياحئة: كارلدّ تثيسترّتون

: ويلـاليل


:
الـثراثt: أليسون كرينى
ac.koamey@massoy.ac.nZ

تسريِ موالقة "المِينة

 +64 (0)63505799 88729 الهاتض
humanethicsouthb/amassov,ac.nZ 1

## Appendix F: Information Sheet - Interview

MASSEY UNIVERSITY
COLLEGE OF EDUCATION
rie supenga o Te mitaurenvga
Centennial Drive
Private Bag 11222
Palmerston North
New Zealand

## Inclusive Education in the Middle East: A Policy Review

## INFORMATION SHEET - Interview for Experts

## Researcher Introduction

My name is Karen Chesterton. I am writing to you to invite you to parficipate in a research project that I am conducting as part of my Education Doctorate at Massey University in Palmerston North, New Zealand. I live in lraq and will be conducting the research from there.
Project Description and Invitation

- The project secks to investigate how national education policies and access to schooling in participating Middle Eastern countries compares to the inclusive education expectations of the United Nations Convention on the Rights of Persons with Disabilities. It will involve an analysis of inclusive education implementation and policy in three countries in the Middle East for the purpose of identifying strengths and offering recommendations for ongoing improvement in the inclusiveness of education policies in the region. Participants will be asked to comment on some aspects of the political situation in their country.
- This project will involve questionnaires and interviews which have been developed and used previously in Europe. These tools will be used in this research project to help to understand the degree of progress achieved towards inclusive education in the Midde East. Three questionnaires will be sent to different participants in your country. Each questionnaire investigates policy from a different level of angle, either national/regional or local and looks at issues of legislation, practice or progress. Two further people in the same country will participate in interviews to investigate local practice and progress.
- You are invited to parficipate in this research by completing a interview which investigates (...........................................).
- As this research is part of a doctoral thesis, results from this project will be published. However, no identifying information will be included in any publications.
Participant identification and Recrultment
- I have contacted [name of orgarization] which works with disabled people in [name of county]. They have suggested your name as someone with the relevant experience to provide information.
- The criteria for selecting countries was that the official language be Arabic and that they are dissimilar from other countries selected in order to provide increase the diversity of the information. Countries will not be compared in the analysis.
- Participants for this interview are required to be professionals in the field of education preferably with education of children with disabilities, OR a govermment official or other leader in the field of inclusive education with access to policy and statistics, OR an indusive educational professional or acadernic (with exception of school prinapals) and representing local level issues.
- Seven participants are to be involved from three countries providing different perspectives from the levels of national or regional and local, and also school levels.


## Project Procedures

- You are being invited to participate in an interview via Skype or other internet video conference which will be sound recorded electronically. If intemet of conferenaing is not available, telephone can also be used. The interview will be directly with me through the support of an Arabic translator as needed. The questions can be sent to you by email to be reviewed before the interview.
- The interview will be conducted on a day and time suitable to you which you may identify during a six week period. The interview should take between $1 / 2$ to 1 hour.
- You may contact me or my translator at any time to discuss the questions ar the research process.

Data Management

- Results from the interview will be used to compere to the UN Corvention and a rating given which helps to ideniffy meaningful ways to promote the ongoing implementation process.
- Recorded interviews will be transcribed. The tanscription will be sent to you for you to read and amend if needed. The data wil/ be alligned with the criteria of the UN Convention and I will analyze it with the support of the translator. The trans/ator will be required to sign a confidentiality agreement
- Data will all be stored in electronic form in a password protected computer accessible only to the supervisor and myself. After the project is completed the data will be stored for five years and then deleted by the supervisar.
- The final report will be published.
- You are entitled to a summary of the findings from your country included in this research. You can indicate that you would like to receive this on the consent form and it will be sent to you.
Possible Risks to Participants
- You may feel uncomfortable if you feel compelled to provide negative information about your country in your responses. However you can decline to answer any question and the final report will focus mainly on strengths and steps forward. You are also free to withdraw from this project at any point.
- Anonymity cannot be fully guaranteed, but every effort will be made to ensure that no identifying information will be used. No names will be used
- You may be concerned that your identity will be revealed in the report Your name will not be included in the research report and it is only known to the organization who nominated you that you might participate. I you indicate so on the consent form, your general position or title may be included. You are also free to remain completely uridentified. The report will list the three countries involved, but when presenting the results, countries will be coded as Country A, Country B, and Cauntry C. Data which overtly identifies the country or area will not be induded.
Participant's Rights
You are under no obligation to accept this invitation. If you decide to participate, you have the right to:
- decline to answer any particular question;
- ask for the recorder to be turned off at any fime during the interview.
- withdraw from the study within six weeks;
- ask any questions about the study at any fime during participation;
- provide information on the understanding that your name will not be used;
- be given access to a summary of the project findings when it is concluded.

Project Contacts
Researcher:
Karen Chesterton
Kchasterton 10massenaac.az
Ph: +964 7501157718

## Translator:

Rukhosh Ali Darwesh
ruxosh 67(0yahoo.com
Ph: +964 7711554004

## Supervisor:

Alison Kearney
ackeamevomasseyaant
You are invited to contact me andlor my translator or supervisor if you have any questions about the project
Committee Approval Statement
This project has been reviewed and approved by the Massey University Human Ethics Committee: Southern B, Application 12/25. If you have any concerns about the conduct of this research, please contact Dr Nathan Matthews, Chair, Massey University Human Ethics Committee: Southern B, telephone $063505799 \times 8729$, email humanethicsouthb@massey.ac.nz

مقدمة الباحثة



تتريف الشروqع و الدعوة










توظيف و اختيـار الشاركين

 الدول فـ التحليل.



اجراءات المشروع


لـرابعقيا حيل المابلبة



ادارة الييانات






سيتم تشر تقرلر الإهانى .
 ارسالها لـ








حقوق المشارك



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ع4) أتصا


: وريايلي +9647501157718

ruxosh 67@vahoo.com 1

a.c.kearnev@massev.ac.nz. برلد

تسربِ موالتقة الجالجنة

 الهاتف 68729
humanethicsouthb@massey.ac.nz

## Appendix G: Information Sheet - School Principals



MASSEY UNIVERSITY
COLLEGE OF EDUCATION
IE RUPENGA O TE Mithureavga Centennial Drive
Private Bag 11222
Palmerston North
New Zealand

## Inclusive Education in the Middle East: A Policy Review

## INFORMATION SHEET - Questionnaire for School Principals

## Researcher introduction

My name is Karen Chesterton. I am writing to you to invite you to perficipate in a research project that $I$ am conducting as part of my Education Doctorate at Massey University in Palmerston North, New Zeland. Ifive in Iraq and will be conducting the research from there.

## Project Description and Invitation

- The project seeks to investigate how national education policies and access to schooling in participating Mddle Eastern countries compares to the inclusive education expectations of the United Nations Convention on the Rights of Persons with Disabilities. It will involve an analysis of inclusive education implementation and policy in three countries in the Middle East for the purpose of identifying strengths and offering recommendations for ongoing improvement in the inclusiveness of education policies in the region. Participants will be asked to comment on some aspects of the political situation in their country.
- This project will involve questionnaires and interviews which have been developed and used previously in Europe. These tools will be used in this research project to help to understand the degree of progress achieved towards inclusive education in the Midde East. Three questionnaires will be sent to different participants in your country. Each questionnaire investigates policy from a different level of angle, either national/regional or local and looks at issues of legislation, practice or progress. Two further people in the same country will participate in interviews to investigate local practice and progress.
- You are irvited to parficipate in this research by completing a questionnaire which investigates (..........................................). Completing this questionnaire should take no longer than1 hour.
- As this research is part of a doctoral thesis, results from this project will be published. However, no identifying information will be induded in any publicationa


## Participant Identification and Recrultment

- I have contacted [name of orgarization] which works with disabled people in [name of country]. They have suggested your name as someone with the relevant experience to provide information.
- The criteria for selecting countries was that the official language be Arabic and that they are dissimiar from other countries selected in order to provide increase the diversity of the information. Countries will not be compared in the analysis.
- Participants for this questionnaire are required to be school principals.
- Seven participants are to be involved from three countries providing different perspecives from the levels of national or regional and local, and also school levels.


## Project Procedures

- You are being invited to complete a questionnaire which you will return to me by email.
- You will be asked to return your questionnaire responses within six weeks.
- You may contact me or my translator at any time to discuss the questions or the research process.


## Data Management

- Results from the quesfionnaires along with other data sources will be used to compare to the UN Convention and a rating given which heips to identify meaningful ways to promote the ongoing implementation process.
- The data will be aligned with the criteria of the UN Corvention and I will analyze it with the support of the translator. The translator will be required to sign a confidentiality agreement.
- Data will all be stored in electronic form in a password protected computer accessible only to the supervisor and myself. After the project is completed the data will be stored for five years and then deleted by the supervisor.
- The final report will be published.
- You are entitled to a summary of the findings from your country included in this research. You can indicate that you would like to receive this on the consent form and it will be sent to you.
Possible Risks to Particlpants
- You may feel uncomfortable if you feel compelled to provide negative information about your country in your responses. However you can decline to answer any question and the final report will focus mainly on strengths and steps forward. You are also free to withdraw from this project at any point.
- Anonymity cannot be fully guaranteed, but every effort will be made to ensure that no identifying information will be used. No names will be used
- You may be concerned that your identity will be revealed in the report Your name will not be included in the research report and it is only known to the organization who nominated you that you might participate. Wyou indicate so on the consent form, your gener al position or title may be included. You are also free to remain completely uridentified. The report will list the three countries involved, but when presenting the results, countries will be coded as Country A, Country B, and Cauntry C. Data which overtly identifies the country or area will not be induded.


## Particlpant's Rights

You are under no obligation to accept this invitation. If you decide to participate, you have the night to:

- decline to answer any particular question;
- withdraw from the study within six weeks;
- ask any questions about the study at any fime during participation;
- provide information on the understanding that your name will not be used;
- be given access to a summary of the project findings when it is concluded.


## Project Contacts

Researcher:
Karen Chesterton
Kchesterton. 10massery.ac.nz
Ph: +964 7501157718

## Translator:

Rukhosh Ali Darwesh
ruxosh 67@yahoo.com
Ph: +964 7711554004

## Supervisor:

Alison Kearney
a c.keamev(rmassey.acriz
You are irvited to contact me andlor my translator or supervisor if you have any quesfions about the project.

## Committee Approval Statement

This project has been reviewed and approved by the Massey University Human Ethics Committee: Southern B, Application 12/25. If you have any concerns about the conduct of this research, please contact Dr Nathan Matthews, Chair, Massey University Human Ethics Committee: Southern B, telephone $063505799 \times 8729$, email humanethicsouthb@massey.ac.nz

مقدمة الباحثة

 تصريف المشريع و الدلدعوة


 بلـدهـر.





$\qquad$

تِوظليف و اختيـار المشاركين
-
 الدول المى التحليل.


اجراءات الششروع

-

ادارة البيانـات



 الانتهاء ميز المشرو -
 سيته ارسالها لــ

-






حقوت إمشارك


-
-



الباحثلة: كارالز تشيسترّتون



ruxosh_67@yahoo.com
: بري

a.c.kearnev@massey.ac.nz: برلد اצكترونئى

تصسربع موالفةلة الماجنة"

 +64 (0)63505799×8729 الهاتف
humanethicsouthbomassey.ac.nz

## Appendix H: Consent Form - Questionnaire



COLLEGE OF EDUCALION
TE RUFENGA S TE MATAURANGA

## Inclusive Education in the <br> Middle East: A Policy Review

PARTICIPANT CONSENT FORM - INDIVIDUAL QUESTIONNAIRE

I have read the Information Sheet and have had the details of the study explained to me. My questions have been answered to my satisfaction, and I understand that I may ask further questions at any time.

I agree to participate in this study under the conditions set out in the Information Sheet and in the knowledge that I have been nominated by ( $\qquad$ ...).

Please select:

- I request to remain anonymous in the research report
- I request to have my general position used in the research report
- I would like to request a summary of the results

Signature:
Date:

Full Name - printed

Page 1 of 1


Appendix I: Consent form - Interview

TE RUPENGA © TE MATAURANG

## Inclusive Education in the Middle East: A Policy Review

## PARTICIPANT CONSENT FORM - INDIVIDUAL INTERVIEW

I have read the Information Sheet and have had the details of the study explained to me. My questions have been answered to my satisfaction, and I understand that I may ask further questions at ary time.

I agree/do not agree to the interview being sound recorded.

I agree to participate in this study under the conditions set out in the Information Sheet and in the knowledge that I have been nominated by ( $\qquad$ ..).

Please select:

- I request to remain anonymous in the research report
- I request to have my general position used in the research report

I I would like to request a summary of the results

Signature: Date:

Full Name - printed


Appendix J: Transcriber's Confidentiality Agreement

MASSEY UNIVERSITY
COLLEGE OF EDUCATION
if rupenga o tr mitauranga

## Inclusive Education in the Middle East: A Policy Review

 TRANSCRIBER'S CONFIDENTIALITY AGREEMENTI $\qquad$ agree to transcribe the recordings provided to me.

I agree to keep confidential all the information provided to me.

I will not make any copies of the transcripts or keep any record of them, other than those required for the project.

## Signature:

Date:

Page 1 of 1

## Appendix K: Authority for Release of Transcripts

## Inclusive Education in the Middle East: A Policy Review

## AUTHORITY FOR THE RELEASE OF TRANSCRIPTS

I confirm that I have had the opportunity to read and amend the transcript of the interview conducted with me.

I agree that the edited transcript and extracts from this may be used in reports and publications arising from the research.

## Signature:

Date:
Full Name - printed

# مراجعة سياسة : <br> التعليه الجامع فى شرق الاوسط 

صلامبة اطلاق النصوص (النسني)

أُوكد ان تيدت لى الفرصة لقراء: و وتطيل نص المعابلة التى اجريت معى.

. . . . . .

الاسم الكامل- المطبيعع

## Appendix L: Legislation Questionnaire A

## Legislation instrument (Tool A) - Researcher to complete

| 1 Consistency for the right to inclusive education <br> There is consistency across different laws on national and regional/federal state level for the <br> right to inclusive education (e.g education law, antidiscrimination law, <br> disability laws, children's rights law, etc.). | Yes <br> Yo |
| :--- | :--- |
| References: |  |
| Comments: |  |$\quad$| No |
| :--- |

Developed for the P2i project by: Center for Planning and Evaluation of Social Services, University of Seigen

| 7 Accommodation of the individual's access requirements <br> By statutory legislation, it is assured that the architectural conditions are accommodated to <br> individual's requirements | Yes <br> Ro |
| :--- | :--- |
| References: |  |
| Comments: |  |



## Appendix M: Policy Questionnaire B1

## Policy instrument (Tool B) - National level expert to complete

 For each statement below please select a number between 1 and 6 to indicate how well you believe the criteria is reflected in national policy. 1 indicates the least positive and 6 the most positive.
## B1: Assessing inclusive education in policies on national level

1.Following the United Nations convention, there is an effective policy of national govermment to insure an inclusive education system at all levels and life long leaming (expressed eg, in govemment papers and action plans etc.).

| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 |  |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | Positive |

2. There is effective national legislation for inclusive education.
$\begin{array}{llllll}1 & 2 & 3 & 4 & 5 & 6\end{array}$
000000 Positive
3. By legislation, all persons with disabilities have free access to qualitative inclusive primary and secondary education.

| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 |  |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | Positive |

4. By legislation, reasonable accommodation of the individual's requirements is to be provided

| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 |  |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | Positive |

5 By legislation, persons with disabilities are to receive the support required, within the general education system, to facilitate their effective education;

| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 |  |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | Positive |

6 By legislation, effective individualized support measures are to be provided in environments that maximize academic and social development, consistent with the goal of full inclusion.
$\begin{array}{llllll}1 & 2 & 3 & 4 & 5 & 6\end{array}$
$\begin{array}{lllllll}1 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & \text { Positive }\end{array}$
7 By legislation, appropriate measure are to be taken to enable persons with disabilities to learn life and social development skills to facilitate their full and equal participation in education and as members of the community.

| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 |  |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | Positive |

8 National categorization procedures for special educational needs and disability status support inclusive education,

| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 |  |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | Positive |

Developed for the P2i project by: Center for Planning and Evaluation of Social Services, University of Seigen
9. Pupils with disabilities are included in national school evaluation procedures conceming literacy and numeracy.
$\begin{array}{lll}1 & 2 & 3 \\ 0 & 0 & 0\end{array}$ 4
0 5
0 O Positive
10. By legislation teacher training systematically includes competences for teaching in inclusive educational settings.

$$
\begin{array}{lllllll}
1 & 2 & 3 & 4 & 5 & 6 & \\
0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & \text { Positive }
\end{array}
$$

11. In can be expected that until 2015 in a national perspective the school system will be much more inclusive than today.
$\begin{array}{llllll}1 & 2 & 3 & 4 & 5 & 6\end{array}$
000000 Positive

## 

 رشم 1 يشير الى اله ايجابية و الرفم 6 يشير الى اكثر ايجابي2

تقيمر سياسات تقليه الجامع على مستوى الوطتى


7 الجتماعبة لتسهيل مشاركتهم الكاملة و عالى قدم المساواة فى مجال التعليم وكاعضاء فى المجتمع
$\begin{array}{llllll}6 & 5 & 4 & 3 & 2 & 1\end{array}$
(الايبايى 0

| 6 | 5 | 4 | 3 | 2 | 1 |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 |

Developed for the P2i project by: Center for Planning and Evaluation of Social Services, University of Seigen

|  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  | 6 | 5 | 4 | 3 | 2 | 1 |
| الإبعابی | $\bigcirc$ | $\bigcirc$ | $\bigcirc$ | $\bigcirc$ | $\bigcirc$ | $\bigcirc$ |
|  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
|  | 6 | 5 | 4 | 3 | 2 | 1 |
| الإيهابي | $\bigcirc$ | $\bigcirc$ | $\bigcirc$ | $\bigcirc$ | - | $\bigcirc$ |
|  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
|  | 6 | 5 | 4 | 3 | 2 | 1 |
| الايجابى | $\bigcirc$ | $\bigcirc$ | $\bigcirc$ | - | $\bigcirc$ | - |

## Appendix N: Policy Questionnaire B2

## Policy instrument (Tool B) - Regional level expert to complete

 For each statement below please select a number between 1 and 6 to indicate how well you believe the criteria is reflected in regional policy. 1 indicates the least positive and 6 the most positive.
## B2: Assessing inclusive education in policies on regional level that has

 political authority on education and schools1.Following the United Nations convention, there is an effective policy of regional government to insure an inclusive education system at all levels and life long learning (expressed eg, in govemment papers and action plans etc.).

| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 |  |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | Positive |

2. There is regional legislation for inclusive education.

| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 |  |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | Positive |

3. By regional legislation, all persons with disabilities have free access to qualitative inclusive primary and secondary education.

4. By regional legislation, reasonable accommodation of the individual's requirements is to be provided.

| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 |  |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | Positive |

5. By regional legislation, persons with disabilities are to receive the support required, within the general education system, to facilitate their effective education;
$\begin{array}{llllll}1 & 2 & 3 & 4 & 5 & 6 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0\end{array}$
6. By regional legislation, effective individualized support measures are to be provided in environments that maximize academic and social development, consistent with the goal of full inclusion.

| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 |  |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | Positive |

7. By regional legislation, appropriate measure are to be taken to enable persons with disabilities to learn life and social development skills to facilitate their full and equal participation in education and as members of the community.

| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 |  |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | Positive |

Developed for the P2i project by: Center for Planning and Evaluation of Social Services, University of Seigen
8. Pupils with disabilities are included in regional school evaluation procedures conceming literacy and numeracy.
$\begin{array}{lllllll}1 & 2 & 3 & 4 & 5 & 6 & \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & \text { Positive }\end{array}$
9. Regional categorization procedures for special educational needs and disability status support inclusive education.
$\begin{array}{lllllll}1 & 2 & 3 & 4 & 5 & 6 & \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & \text { Positive }\end{array}$
10. By legislation teacher training systematically includes competences for teaching in inclusive educational settings

| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 |  |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | Positive |

11. In can be expected that until 2015 the regional school system will be much more inclusive than today.
$\begin{array}{llllll}1 & 2 & 3 & 4 & 5 & 6\end{array}$
00000 Positive

## 

 رشم 1 يشير الى القل ايجابية و الرشم 6 يشير الم اكثر ايجابية


|  <br> (وضصت من خلال الاوداق و الثطط العطلبة لمكومة الغ) |  |  |  |  |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 6 | 5 | 4 | 3 | 2 | 1 |
| O الإيبايى | - | $\bigcirc$ | $\bigcirc$ | $\bigcirc$ | $\bigcirc$ |
| 2- هناله: |  |  |  |  |  |
| 6 | 5 | 4 | 3 | 2 |  |
| O الايبابى | $\bigcirc$ | $\bigcirc$ | $\bigcirc$ | $\bigcirc$ | $\bigcirc$ |
|  |  |  |  |  |  |
|  |  |  |  |  |  |
| 6 | 5 | 4 | 3 | 2 | 1 |
| O الايبايى | $\bigcirc$ | $\bigcirc$ | $\bigcirc$ | $\bigcirc$ | $\bigcirc$ |
| 4- تلبية منطلبات الفردية اللعقولة من غلال تكريعات المحالية. |  |  |  |  |  |
| 6 | 5 | 4 | 3 | 2 | 1 |
| O الإيبايى | $\bigcirc$ | $\bigcirc$ | $\bigcirc$ | 0 | $\bigcirc$ |
|  |  |  |  |  |  |
| 6 | 5 | 4 | 3 | 2 | 1 |
| O الايبابى | $\bigcirc$ | $\bigcirc$ | $\bigcirc$ | $\bigcirc$ | $\bigcirc$ |
|  الاجنماعى وتنفتّ مع هدف الادراه الكامل |  |  |  |  |  |
|  |  |  |  |  |  |
| 6 | 5 | 4 | 3 | 2 | 1 |
| O الايبابى | $\bigcirc$ | $\bigcirc$ | $\bigcirc$ | $\bigcirc$ | $\bigcirc$ |
|  <br>  |  |  |  |  |  |
|  |  |  |  |  |  |
| 6 | 5 | 4 | 3 | 2 | 1 |
| O الإبجابى | $\bigcirc$ | $\bigcirc$ | $\bigcirc$ | $\bigcirc$ | $\bigcirc$ |
|  |  |  |  |  |  |
| 6 | 5 | 4 | 3 | 2 | 1 |
| O الإيبايى | $\bigcirc$ | $\bigcirc$ | - | - | $\bigcirc$ |

[^4]| 9 |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  |  | 6 | 5 | 4 | 3 | 2 | 1 |
|  | الايبابيى |  | 0 | $\bigcirc$ | $\bigcirc$ | $\bigcirc$ | $\bigcirc$ |
|  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
|  |  | 6 | 5 | 4 | 3 | 2 | 1 |
|  | الإيجابي | $\bigcirc$ | $\bigcirc$ | $\bigcirc$ | $\bigcirc$ | $\bigcirc$ | $\bigcirc$ |
|  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
|  |  | 6 | 5 | 4 | 3 | 2 | 1 |
|  | الايبابيى |  | - | $\bigcirc$ | $\bigcirc$ | O | $\bigcirc$ |

## Appendix O: Policy Questionnaire B3

## Policy instrument (Tool B)-Local level expert to complete

For each statement below please select a number between 1 and 6 to indicate how well you believe the criteria is reflected in local policy. 1 indicates the least positive and 6 the most positive.

## B3: Assessing incluslveness of local educational landscapes

1. Following the United Nations convention, there are policies of local government for inclusive education (expressed eg, in govemment papers and action plans).
```
1
0}0000 0 Positiv
```

2.There is a systematic local approach to make educational infrastructure barrier-free (school buildings, youth clubs, leisure time facilities etc.).

```
1
```

3.The policy for inclusive education is backed by the most important key actors of the local 'disability field'.
$\begin{array}{lllllll}1 & 2 & 3 & 4 & 5 & 6 & \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & \text { Positive }\end{array}$
4. Assessment procedures for special needs and categorization lead to individualized learning arrangements in inclusive settings.
$\begin{array}{ll}1 & 2 \\ 0 & 0\end{array}$
$\begin{array}{ll}3 & 4 \\ 0 & 0\end{array}$
$5 \quad 6$
0 O Positive
5. Appropriate classroom conditions (size, teacher and therapeutical support, equipment and assistive technologies) can be made available in inclusive settings according to the children's individual needs.

```
1
O O O O O O Positive
```

6. Leaming processes in literacy and numeracy of all children are systematically evaluated.

7. Appropriate assistance is available for participating in family and leisure time activities with educational potential.

| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 |  |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | Positive |

8. The individual learning process conceming "literacy' and 'numeracy' is systematically evaluated.

| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 |  |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | Positive |

Developed for the P2i project by: Center for Planning and Evaluation of Social Services, University of Seigen
9. Phases of transition of children with special education needs are well planned and supported (eg. from primary to secondary school, other individually relevant transitions).
$\begin{array}{ll}1 & 2 \\ 0 & 0\end{array}$
3
0
4
0
5
0
6

10,There is good cooperation both on individual case level and on local system level between the youth welfare, the health and the education sector to support inclusive education.
$\begin{array}{llllll}1 & 2 & 3 & 4 & 5 & 6\end{array}$
00000 Positive
11. There is a local policy to support transitions of adolescent persons with disabilities in vocational training and employment.

| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 |  |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | Positive |

12. Local policies on inclusive education refer without restriction to children with severe disabilities and complex needs.

| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 |  |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | Positive |

13. There are examples of good practice of inclusive education in the local educational landscape.
$\begin{array}{llllll}1 & 2 & 3 & 4 & 5 & 6\end{array}$
$\bigcirc \quad 0 \quad 0 \quad 0 \quad 0 \quad 0 \quad$ Positive
14. There are good local possibilities for teacher training 'on the job'.
$\begin{array}{llllll}1 & 2 & 3 & 4 & 5 & 6\end{array}$
00000 Positive
15. Most important provider organizations have a clear and active policy to support inclusive education.
$\begin{array}{lllllll}1 & 2 & 3 & 4 & 5 & 6 & \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & \text { Positive }\end{array}$
16. In can be expected that until 2015 the local school system will be much more inclusive than today.
$\begin{array}{llllll}1 & 2 & 3 & 4 & 5 & 6\end{array}$
00000 Positive


Developed for the P2i project by: Center for Planning and Evaluation of Social Services, University of Seigen

|  |  |  |  |  |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  | $6 \quad 5$ | 4 | 3 | 2 | 1 |
| 6الابجابى | $\bigcirc$ | $\bigcirc$ | $\bigcirc$ | $\bigcirc$ | $\bigcirc$ |
|  |  |  |  |  |  |
|  | 65 | 4 | 3 | 2 | 1 |
| 6 الابجابى | $\bigcirc$ | $\bigcirc$ | $\bigcirc$ | $\bigcirc$ | $\bigcirc$ |
|  |  |  |  |  |  |
|  | 65 | 4 | 3 | 2 | 1 |
| 6 الابيابى | $\bigcirc$ | $\bigcirc$ | $\bigcirc$ | $\bigcirc$ | $\bigcirc$ |
|  |  |  |  |  |  |
|  | 65 | 4 | 3 | 2 | 1 |
| 6 الابجابى | $\bigcirc$ | $\bigcirc$ | $\bigcirc$ | $\bigcirc$ | $\bigcirc$ |
| 14 |  |  |  |  |  |
|  | 65 | 4 | 3 | 2 | 1 |
| 6 الإبابى | $\bigcirc$ | $\bigcirc$ | $\bigcirc$ | $\bigcirc$ | $\bigcirc$ |
|  |  |  |  |  |  |
|  | 65 | 4 | 3 | 2 | 1 |
| 6 الإبابى | $\bigcirc$ | $\bigcirc$ | $\bigcirc$ | $\bigcirc$ | $\bigcirc$ |
|  |  |  |  |  |  |
|  | $6 \quad 5$ | 4 | 3 | 2 | 1 |
| 6 الإبجابى | $\bigcirc$ | $\bigcirc$ | $\bigcirc$ | $\bigcirc$ | $\bigcirc$ |

## Appendix P: National Education Landscape Questionnaire C1

## National Education landscape (Tool C1) - National level expert to complete

C1: Situation of Inclusive Education in Practice
1 Priority of inclusive education on pre-school level (age 3-5/6)
Children with disabilities or SEN not in regular pre-schools or child care services percentage:
This can be assessed as

|  | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| Very high | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 |

References:
Comments:
2 Priority of inclusive education on primary-school level
Children with disabilities or SEN not in regular primary schools:
.
This can be assessed as
$\begin{array}{lllll} & 1 & 2 & 3 & 4 \\ \text { Very high } & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0\end{array}$
References:
Comments

3 Priority of inclusive education at secondary school level
Percentage of children with disabilities or SEN not in regular secondary schools:
essed
$\begin{array}{lllll} & 1 & 2 & 3 & 4 \\ \text { Very high } & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \text { Very low }\end{array}$

References:
Comments

Developed for the P2i project by: Center for Planning and Evaluation of Social Services, University of Seigen

4 In practice, inclusive education of children with SEN in primary schools is for their parents related with:
-direct costs

| Very high | $\bigcirc$ | - | 3 | $\stackrel{4}{\circ}$ None |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| -indirect costs |  |  |  |  |
|  | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| Very high | $\bigcirc$ | $\bigcirc$ | $\bigcirc$ | O None |
| References: |  |  |  |  |
| Comments |  |  |  |  |

Comments
5 Participation of parents in decision making on inclusive education
In decision making processes, if parents articulate a preference for inclusive education it is followed.

```
Never Sometimes Often Always
```

References
Comments
6 Assessment procedures support inclusive education
"The practiced procedures of assessment of special educational needs support inclusive education"
No rather not ratheryes Yes
$\begin{array}{llll}0 & 0 & 0 & 0\end{array}$
References:
Comments
7 Equal access to community schools
Persons with disabilities or SEN have access to the schools in their community on an equal basis with others.

```
None Some Most All
```

0000
References:
Comments

```
8 Accommodation of the individual's access requirements
In practice architectural conditions in schools are accommodated to individual requirements of
persons with SEN
No rather not ratheryes Yes
O 0 0 0
References:
Comments
9 Accommodation of the individual's learning requirements
In practice staff to support the learning process is accommodated to individual's requirements
No rather not ratheryes Yes
O O
References:
Comments
10 Accommodation of the individual's learning requirements
In practice classroom sizes are accommodated to individual's requirements
No rather not ratheryes Yes
O O O O
References
Comments
11 Accommodation of the individual's learning requirements
In practice adaptive technology is accommodated to individual's requirements
No rather not rather yes Yes
O O O O
References:
Comments
12 Accommodation of the individual's learning requirements
In practice functional assistance and care provision are accommodated to individual's requirements,
No rather not ratheryes Yes
O O O O
References:
Comments
```

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## 13 Accommodation of educational measures

In practice educational measures are accommodated to individual's requirements (i.e. individual curricula, didactical adaption, teaching methods, testing)

No rather not ratheryes Yes
000
References:
Comments
14 Facilitation of learning of Braille and sign language
In case of demand, it is practice, that the learning of Braille and sign language is facilitated.
No rather not rather yes Yes
$\bigcirc \quad 0 \quad 0 \quad 0$
References:
Comments
15 Facilitation of learning of augmentative and alternative forms of communication and orientation
In case of demand, in practice the leaming of augmentative and alternative forms of communication and orientation is facilitated

No rather not rather yes Yes
$0 \quad 0$
References:
Comments

## 16 Training of teachers and staff

Training of teachers is oriented to the requirements of inclusive education (inclusive teaching methods, incorporation of disability awareness, the use of appropriate augmentative and alternative modes, means and formats of communication, educational techniques and materials to support persons with disabilities).

No rather not ratheryes Yes
0000
References:
Comments

| 17 Employment of qualified teachers |  |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| $\begin{array}{cc} \text { No } & \text { rather not } \\ \text { O } & \text { O } \end{array}$ | rather yes <br> ○ | Yes 0 |
| References: |  |  |
| Comments |  |  |
| 18 Equal access to tertiary education <br> By statutory legislation, it is assured that persons with disabilities have access vocational to lifelong learning without discrimination and on an equal basis with others. |  |  |
| $\begin{array}{cc} \text { No } & \text { rather not } \\ \mathrm{O} & \mathrm{O} \end{array}$ | rather yes | Yes 0 |
| References: |  |  |
| Comments |  |  |
| 19 Monitoring of development of inclusive educationThere is a systematic national data collection and monitoring on progress of inclusive education. |  |  |
|  |  |  |
| $\begin{array}{cc} \text { No } & \text { rather not } \\ \text { O } & 0 \end{array}$ | $\begin{gathered} \text { rather yes } \\ \hline \end{gathered}$ | Yes 0 |
| References: |  |  |
| Comments |  |  |

## تكمل خيبر على سنتوى الوطنى صورةَ تعليم للوطتى(لكاقس1 1 )

C1 تعليم الجامِ في حالة اللعلية


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العراهع :

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## Appendix Q: National Education Landscape Questionnaire C2

```
    National Education landscape (Tool C2)-National level expert to complete
C2: Progression towards Inclusive Education
1 Development of inclusive education on pre-school level
Percentage of children not in regular pre-schools or child-care services on preschool level
2002 : ... %
2005:.... %
2008: ......%
2011:......%
This development can be assessed as
Bad rather bad positive very positive
O O O O
References:
Comments
2 Development of inclusive education on primary school level
Percentage of children not in regular primary schools
2002 : ... %
2005:..... %
2008: ......%
2011:.....%
This development can be assessed as
Bad rather bad positive v
References:
Comments
3 Development of inclusive education on secondary school level
Percentage of children not in secondary schools
2002:... %
2005:..... %
2008: .....%
2011:......%
This development can be assessed as
Bad rather bad positive very positive
O O
References:
Comments
```



## 8 Development of architectural barrier freeness of regular schools

How do you assess the development of architectural conditions in regular schools to realize accessibility for persons with SEN since 2007?

No development very little rather positive very positive
0
References:
Comments

9 Development of accommodation of staff to the individual's learning requirements
How do you assess the development of availability of appropriate staff in respect to individual's requirements for learning of persons with SEN in inclusive settings since 2007?

No development very little rather positive very positive
0
References:
Comments

## 10 Development of classroom sizes

How do you assess the development of accommodation of classroom sizes in inclusive settings according to individual's requirements since 2007?

No development very little rather positive very positive
0
References:
Comments

## 11 Development of accommodation of adaptive technology

How do you assess the development of availability of adaptive technology in inclusive settings according to individual's requirements since 2007?

| No development very little | rather positive | very positive |  |
| :--- | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 |

References:
Comments

```
12 Development of availability of functional assistance and care provision
How do you assess the development in respect to provide functional assistance and care in inclusive
settings according to individual's requirements since 2007?
No development very little rather positive very positive
O
References:
Comments
13 Development of accommodation of educational measures
How do you assess the development of accommodation of educational measures in inclusive settings
since 2007 (i.e. individual curricula, didactical adaption, teaching methods, testing)?
No development very little rather positive very positive
O O O O
References:
Comments
14 Development of facilitation of learning of Braille and sign language
How do you assess the development with respect to the facilitation of leaming of Braille and sign
language in inclusive settings, if this is necessary because of individual requirements?
No development very little rather positive very positive
O
References:
Comments
15 Development of facilitation of learning of augmentative and alternative forms of communication and orientation
How do you assess the development with respect to the facilitation of learning of augmentative and alternative forms of communication and orientation in inclusive settings, if this is necessary because of individual requirements?
No development very little rather positive very positive
References:
Comments
```

```
16 Development of teacher training
Has teacher training become more oriented to inclusive education since 2007?
No not much mostly Yes
O O O O
References:
Comments
17 Development of equal access to vocational training
How do you assess the development of equal access of persons with SEN to vocational training
since 2007?
No development very little rather positive very positive
O O O
References:
Comments
18 Development of equal access to life long learning
How do you assess the development of equal access of persons with SEN to life long learning
service since 2007?
No development very little rather positive very positive
O O O O
References:
Comments
19 Development of monitoring systems on inclusive education
How do you assess the development of the monitoring systems on inclusive education?
Very negative rather negative rather positive very positive
    O O O O
References:
Comments
```

20 Development of activities of professional associations to promote inclusive education
How do you assess the development of commitment and activities of professional associations
(like associations of special teachers, special schools, teacher unions) to promote inclusive education?
Very negative rather negative rather positive very positive

References:
Comments
21 Development of measures for awareness raising of governments to promote inclusive education
How do you assess the development of measures for awareness raising of governments to promote inclusive education?
$\begin{array}{cccc}\text { Very negative rather negative rather positive } & \text { very positive } \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0\end{array}$
References:
Comments

## 22 Perspectives on progression

It can be expected that by 2015 the percentage of persons with SEN that are not included in regular schools

Higher than 2011 the same lower much lower than 2011
$\begin{array}{llll}0 & 0 & 0 & 0\end{array}$
References:
Comments



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## Appendix R: School Questionnaire D

## Local Education landscape instrument 1 (Tool D) - School Principal to complete

Questionnaire for experiences and estimations about inclusive education of persons with disabilities at the educational organisations in the district of

1. To which district does your school belong?
2. Your school can be categorized as:
[] Pre schoolNursery shool center/Kindergarten
[] Primary school
[1 Special school
[ ] High school
[1 Secondary school
[1 Grammar school
[] Comprehensive school
[] Vocational school
[] Professional school
[] Other:
3. How many stud
4. Are there experiences with the inclusive education of persons with disabilities in your school?
[ ]a Yes []b No
5. How many students with disabilities are enrolled in your school? (numerical) persons
6. Within the past decade, the number of students with disabilities attending your school has
[] Increased [] Remained static
[] Decreased
7. In which form do you practice inclusive education of persons with disabilities in your school?
(multiple answers possible)
[] The respective persons are part of the study group without further support
[] The respective persons are part of the study group with support
[1] Group or class of integration
[1 Other forms:
8. In your school, are there educational offers differentiated by their aims in which persons with disabilities do study on a different curriculum level but in the same study group/class?
[] Yes []No
9. If so, for how many students? (numerical) persons
10. Does the administration of your school supply further personal and material resources to promote the potential of inclusion?
[] Yes []No
11. If so, the following ones:
12. In your view, the experiences with inclusive education of persons with disabilities have been from the school's point of view:
Predominantly negative [ ] [ ] 2 [ ] [ ] 4 Predominantly positive
13. Are you aware of inquiries in terms of the admission of persons with disabilities that have been rejected during the past five years?
[1 No
[1 Yes. Approximately how many? (numerical)
14. If so, what are the crucial reasons for the dismissal?
$\qquad$
$\qquad$

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16. How do you estimate the demand of inclusive offers in schools of your type within your catchment area? (multiple answers possible)
[] The demand is basically covered
1 There is a significantly higher demand at the moment
[1 expect a higher demand for the future
[] lam not able to give such an estimation
17. Is the inclusion of persons with disabilities a topic within your school? (multiple answers possible)
[] No, rather not
Yes, initiated by the inquiries of concerned persons or their families
1 Yes, initiated by internal considerations about the conceptual further development
] Yes, initiated by the expectations of the supporting organization or polifical players
[] Yes, initiated by the discussion about the UN Convention on Rights of Persons with Disabilities
[] Yes, as
18. How do you evaluate the current situation of the inclusion of persons with disabilities in your
school in terms of
.. staff situation
the spatial conditions
.. the organizational conditions of school
19. The essential personal and material prerequisites need to be met to realize inclusion. What are the most urgent necessities for change in your school with regard to the inclusion of persons with disabilities?
20. Does your school cooperate with regard to the inclusion of persons with disabilities to

Organisations of early intervention
Not any [ ] [ [ 2 [ 13 [ 14 Intense
Day care facilities for children
Not any [ ]1 [ ] [ ] 3 [ 14 Intense
Services of the disabled care
Not any [ ]1 [ ]2 [ ] [ 14 Intense
Services of the Youth welfare
Not any [ ] [ [ ] 2 [ $]$ [ $] 4$ Intense
The public health department
Not any [ ]1 [ ]2 [ ] 3 [ 4 Intense
The youth welfare office
Not any []1 [ ] [ [ 3 [ 14 Intense
The social welfare office
Not any [ ]1 [ ] 2 [ 3 [ 14 Intense
The education authority
Not any [ ] [ ] 2 [ ] 3 [ 4 Intense
The Employment Agency
Not any []1 []2 [ 3 [ 14 Intense
Pediatricians
Not any [ ]1 [ ]2 [ ] [ ] 4 Intense
Working groups/self-help groups about inclusive education
Not any []1 [ ] [ [ 3 [ 14 Intense
Counseling services for persons with disabilities and their relatives
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[^5]21. Does the transition in successive schools rsp. in vocational trainings differ comparing graduates with disabilities and non-disabled ones?
[] No [] Only for few, as
[1 Yes, almost for all
22. If not, why not?
23. How do you evaluate the demand of qualification of your college with regard to the inclusion of persons with disabilities?
Rather low []1 [ ] 2 [ 3 [ 14 Rather high
24. Does concrete planning exist in your school to considerably enlarge the inclusive education for persons with disabilities?
No, as
$\qquad$

Yes in the following areas: (multiple answers possible)
[] Further conceptual development
[] Qualification by education and training of colleagues
${ }_{1} 1$ Constructional changes
Employment of experts
Acquirement of special promotion material
[] Other
25. How do you value the political commitment of the most important policy-makers in your area to implement an inclusive education as a regular system?
Rather low []1 [ ]2 [ ]3 [ 14 Rather high
26. Can you imagine that $80-90 \%$ of all pupils with special needs are taught in regular schools of the educational system in this administrative district within a time frame of five years - as the Convention on the Rights of Persons with Disabilities does require it?

## Yes, if

$\qquad$
$\qquad$
No, as
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27. I would like to make the following comments:
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ם اتوفع ارتفاع الطلب فی الثستقبل


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# 17. هل الارج الاششخاص ذوي الآعاقة موشوععا داخل مؤستكم <br> الاجابات متقلدة مسكنة <br> اليسربدلا Y $\quad$ Y $\square$ <br> $\square \square \square \square \square \square$ <br> $\square \square$ <br> $\square \square \square \square \square$ <br>  $\square$ 

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## Appendix S: Local Education Landscape Interview E

## Local Education landscape instrument 2 (Tool E)-Parent interview

## Interview Questionnaire

Assessing inclusion experiences and trends in local educational landscapes

## Part I: Conceptual Introduction

Introductory impulse for the interview given by interviewer:
"The enacting of the Corvention on the Rights of Persons with Disabilities by the United Nations (UN)
has initiated the discussion how the chances of the participation of people with disabilities can be improved It constitutes a challenge for all organizations to change their offer into an inclusive one. Indusive means that there is access to the offers for everybody regardless of the origin, sex and also regardless of her or his individual impairment. In terms of the field of education the possibiity of Iifelong learning in an indusive education system is required.
This interview is supposed to give us a better understanding, how the legal parameters about the education of people with disabilities have been implemented in
which regional specific principles of realization have been (and still are) important. At the end of the interview I will ask you for the perspectives and challenges you see arising from the approach of inclusion".

1. At first please elaborate how you and [name of the organization] are involved in the support of people with disabilities.
2 What do you think of the developments in education of persons with disabilities, service systems and disability politics in the districts $\qquad$
2. How do you assess the way transition from one educational institution to another is practiced in this region?
How far are the local educational institutions linked in terms of the transition from one educational institution to the next?
Are there regular rounds of talks or meetings to inform the parents and preparing as well as accompanying actions for all leamers in transition situations? Are there transitional planning meetings which involve all key players?
How do you rate the cooperation between preschool institutions, services of early childhood intervention, pediatricians, therapists and other people respectively institutions that are significant for the school career of a child with special needs?
3. How do you assess perspectives of people with disabilities/special needs after secondary

## school graduation?

How are the graduating pupils prepared for the transition from school to work?
Who is involved in the actions of preparation and accompanying young persons with disabilities in transition processes?
How do you evaluate the current situation of transition from school to work?
How do you evaluate the cooperation of professionals being involved in tssupport activities ?
How can the chances of people with disabilities in terms of schooling and labour market be concretely improved here in this district?

## 5. Which agencies/organization in this district are most relevant for developing inclusive

education in your field? How do you cooperate with them?
6. How do you assess the political attention of the discussion on integration/ inclusion in your

## district?

Which role does the aspect of inclusion play at local government level/ at the level of the particular educational institution?

Has the debate changed?
Which have been the most significant stages of the discussion?
How do politicians, educational organizations and public perceive inclusion?
Are there important political groups/parties that campaign for an inclusive orientation at local
level? If so, which people / boards / associations / parties / institutions are these forerunners?
Is the UN Convention on the Rights of Persons with Disabilities a relevant theme at local level?
Has the local govermment made funding available for promoting the concept/philosophy of
inclusion in the community?
How satisfied are you at the moment with the current forms of cooperation and networking in your
local surroundings in terms of integration / inclusion of people with disabilities?
How could things be improved?
7. Final question: Do you think it is realistic for your region that in ten years $\mathbf{8 0 - 9 0 \%}$ of all pupils with special needs are taught in regular schools?
Which prerequisites have to be created and established so that the idea of an inclusive educational system and an inclusive community from the Convention on the Rights of Persons with
Disabilities of the UN will be put into action?

## مبورة اداة تميم المعلي22 (اداة E ) متابلة خبير المحى

استيان إلمابابل2
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## Appendix T: Typical Learning Career Interview F

## Local Education landscape instrument 3 (Tool $F$ ) - local level expert interview

## Typical learning career



Mary,
5 years old, Down-Syndrome.
She has severe cognitive impairments and needs support in many activities in daily life.
What would the expected typical learning career of Mary in 2012 look like (vocational training included)?
Transition to school
Primary school
Transition to secondary school
Secondary school
Learning in non school settings
Vocational training
Will her learning career in five years be different from today?


## Peter,

5 years, tetraspastic. He is limited in his mobility and needs a wheel chair. He depends on supported communication. His IQ is below 70 and he depends on personal assistance...

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What would the expected typical learning career of Peter in 2012 look like
(vocational training included)?
Transition to school
Primary school
Transition to secondary school
Secondary school
Learning in non school settings
Vocational training
Will his learning career in five years be different from today?


Paul,
5 years old, slow learner with language development disorder. Paul comes from a migrant family with a socially disadvantaged background. He expresses dissocial behavior.

What would the expected typical learning career of Paul in 2012 look like
(vocational training included)?
Transition to school
Primary school
Transition to secondary school
Secondary school
Learning in non school settings
Vocational training
Will his leaming career in five years be different from today?




خيسى سنوات شثل رباعى
 على شساعدة الثشخصبية

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[^7]
## Appendix U: Ratification table

Core Human Rights Conventions and Covenants
Date of Ratification of Accession (as indicated by 'a')

|  | Bahrain | Iraq | Jordan |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| United Nations Convention on the Rights of Persons with Disabilities. New York, 13 December 2006 | 22 Sep 2011 | $\begin{aligned} & 20 \mathrm{Mar} \\ & 2013 \mathrm{a} \end{aligned}$ | $\begin{aligned} & 31 \mathrm{Mar} \\ & 2008 \end{aligned}$ |
| International Convention on the Protection of the Rights of All Migrant Workers and Members of their Families. <br> New York, 18 December 1990 |  |  |  |
| Convention on the Rights of the Child. New York, 20 November 1989 | $\begin{aligned} & 13 \mathrm{Feb} \\ & 1992 \mathrm{a} \end{aligned}$ | $\begin{aligned} & 15 \text { Jun } \\ & 1994 \mathrm{a} \end{aligned}$ | $\begin{aligned} & 24 \text { May } \\ & 1991 \end{aligned}$ |
| International Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Racial Discrimination. <br> New York, 7 March 1966 | $\begin{aligned} & 27 \text { Mar } \\ & \text { 1990a } \end{aligned}$ | 14 Jan 1970 | $\begin{aligned} & 30 \text { May } \\ & 1974 \mathrm{a} \end{aligned}$ |
| Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination against Women. <br> New York, 18 December 1979 | $\begin{aligned} & 18 \text { Jun } \\ & \text { 2002a } \end{aligned}$ | $\begin{aligned} & 13 \text { Aug } \\ & \text { 1986a } \end{aligned}$ | 1 Jul 1992 |
| Convention against Torture and Other Cruel, Inhuman or Degrading Treatment or Punishment. New York, 10 December 1984 | 6 Mar 1998a | 7 Jul 2011a | $\begin{aligned} & 13 \text { Nov } \\ & 1991 \mathrm{a} \end{aligned}$ |
| International Covenant on Civil and Political Rights. <br> New York, 16 December 1966 | $\begin{aligned} & 20 \mathrm{Sep} \\ & 2006 \mathrm{a} \end{aligned}$ | 25 Jun 1971 | $\begin{aligned} & 28 \text { May } \\ & 1975 \end{aligned}$ |
| International Covenant on Economic, Social and Cultural Rights. New York, 16 December 1966 | $\begin{aligned} & 27 \mathrm{Sep} \\ & 2007 \mathrm{a} \end{aligned}$ | 25 Jan 1971 | $\begin{aligned} & 28 \text { May } \\ & 1975 \end{aligned}$ |
| International Convention for the Protection of All Persons from Enforced Disappearance. New York, 20 December 2006 |  | $\begin{aligned} & 23 \text { Nov } \\ & 2010 a \end{aligned}$ |  |

## Appendix V: Compilation of Barometer Ratings

| Country X | Policy | Practice | Progress |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
|  | Indicators |  |  |
| 1 | Right to inclusive education |  |  |
| 2 | Free primary inclusive education |  |  |
| 3 | Equal access to community schools |  |  |
| 4 | Equal access to tertiary education |  |  |
| 5 | Participation in decision making |  |  |
| 6 | Assessment procedures |  |  |
| 7 | Architectural conditions |  |  |
| 8 | Staff and technology to support the learning process |  |  |
| 9 | Accommodation of educational measures |  |  |
| 10 | Facilitation of other forms communication |  |  |
| 11 | Qualified teachers |  |  |
| 12 | Monitoring |  |  |
| 13 | Awareness raising |  |  |
| 14 | Progression of inclusive education |  |  |
|  | Country Y |  |  |
|  | Indicators |  |  |
| 1 | Right to inclusive education |  |  |
| 2 | Free primary inclusive education |  |  |
| 3 | Equal access to community schools |  |  |
| 4 | Equal access to tertiary education |  |  |
| 5 | Participation in decision making |  |  |
| 6 | Assessment procedures |  |  |
| 7 | Architectural conditions |  |  |
| 8 | Staff and technology to support the learning process |  |  |
| 9 | Accommodation of educational measures |  |  |
| 10 | Facilitation of other forms communication |  |  |
| 11 | Qualified teachers |  |  |
| 12 | Monitoring |  |  |
| 13 | Awareness raising |  |  |
| 14 | Progression of inclusive education |  |  |
|  | Cout |  |  |


| Country Z |  |  | Policy |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| Indicators | Practice | Progress |  |
| 1 | Right to inclusive education |  |  |
| 2 | Free primary inclusive education |  |  |
| 3 | Equal access to community schools |  |  |
| 4 | Equal access to tertiary education |  |  |
| 5 | Participation in decision making |  |  |
| 6 | Assessment procedures |  |  |
| 7 | Architectural conditions |  |  |
| 8 | Staff and technology to support the learning process |  |  |
| 9 | Accommodation of educational measures |  |  |
| 10 | Facilitation of other forms communication |  |  |
| 11 | Qualified teachers |  |  |
| 12 | Monitoring |  |  |
| 13 | Awareness raising |  |  |
| 14 | Progression of inclusive education |  |  |

Appendix W: Set of criteria for transforming data to align with the barometer rating



[^0]:    ${ }^{1}$ 'Middle East' is used to refer to the countries of the Arabian Peninsula, Cyprus, Egypt, Iraq, Iran, Israel, Jordan, Lebanon, Palestinian territories, Syria, and Turkey.

[^1]:    ${ }^{2}$ Although the term 'full inclusion' is used in literature (Brantlinger, 1997; Chow et al., 1999; Eleweke \& Rodda, 2002; Florian, 1998; Kavale, 2002; Rose, 2002) and even in the UNCRPD (United Nations, 2006a), it will not be used in this manuscript because according to the definition of inclusive education adhered to where inclusion is for all at all times, it seems inherent in the concept that inclusion must be full. Although 'full' may add emphasis and be used to mean 'inclusion in all its essence', the use of the prefix is suggestive that there are alternative forms of inclusion such as 'partial inclusion', 'part-time inclusion', and 'social inclusion' all of which are inconsistent with the definition of inclusive education. While inclusion can progressively improve, it cannot be partial and so equally does not need to be called 'full'.

[^2]:    Hindering for progressive implementation
    Partly hindering for progressive implementation
    Partly supportive for progressive implementation
    Supportive for progressive implementation

[^3]:    ${ }^{3}$ According to Schulze (2010), Article 24, para 2 (d) of the UNCRPD is worded so as to maintain the option of non-inclusive settings and the wording of para 3 (c) designates the availability of this option in the case of children who are blind, deaf or deafblind. In a submission to the final negotiation committee meeting of the UNCRPD, the phrase chosen for para $2(\mathrm{~d})$ is deemed to represent a "failure of the Convention so far to declare an unequivocal prohibition on segregation in education on the basis of disability"(The Centre for Studies on Inclusive Education, 2006, p. 2).

[^4]:    Developed for the P2i project by: Center for Planning and Evaluation of Social Services, University of Seigen

[^5]:    Not any [ ]1 [ ]2 [ ] [ ] 4 Intense
    Specialist counseling about integration at school
    Not any [ ]1 [ ] 2 [ ] [ [ 44 Intense
    Vocational schools
    Not any [ ]1 [ ] [ ] 3 [ 4 Intense
    Other

[^6]:    Developed for the P2i project by: Center for Planning and Evaluation of Social Services, University of Seigen

[^7]:    Developed for the P2i project by: Center for Planning and Evaluation of Social Services, University of Seigen

