Inclusive Education for Students with Visual, Hearing and Physical Disabilities: Barriers and Experiences in Gondar, Northern Ethiopia

Student Number: 150110129

Dissertation presented for the degree of MA in International Development

University of Sheffield

September 2016

Total Pages: 59
Word Count: 14,972

Preface

There are a number of people that deserve special thanks for their role within the creation of thesis; as well as throughout the last year of study. In terms of academic progression, recognition must go to my dissertation supervisor Seth Schindler who not only helped in the formulation of this idea and thesis, but also contribute to a number of my other assignments; including the highlight of my masters course, the field class to India.

Some of the biggest thanks for this research project have to go to everyone at Link Ethiopia, both in the UK and in Gondar. All those at the Link Ethiopia office and within the city itself made me feel very welcome and always ensured I had everything I needed to make me feel comfortable. Jasmine, thank you for all your help in the formulation and creation of an idea and then my research proposal, your help was invaluable both academically and putting my mind at ease by sorting the logistics of the placement. Thanks also go to Elsa, Rory and Zemene in Gondar for understanding my project and getting the best participants possible for its achievement, in spite of the time and geo-political constraints we encountered. However, some of the greatest recognition has to go to Yemsrach for such excellent translation. Not only did you relay the information back to me brilliantly, you also helped keep the discussions on track and ensure I gathered as much in depth data as possible.

A special mention must go to Ilseon, who came to Gondar with me; and without whom the experience would not have been the same. Thanks for keeping me sane throughout the trip, being so laid back when things didn't go to plan and understanding that Sundays are made for staying in bed all day!

Obvious recognition has to go to my participants for being kind enough to speak with such honesty about their situation and experiences, especially those who provided information that as a researcher I had not previously considered. I hope the information relayed in this report is an accurate representation of your situation and in some way can be used by Link Ethiopia to improve the state of the education system for you and other disabled students.

Personal thanks have to go to my friends and family for the continual support they provide. A big thank you must go to my mother and friend Andrew, who not only put up with my insistent request to proof read my work but also provided me with a platform to talk out my ideas. To all my friends, (home, undergraduate, masters and beyond) thank you for rescuing me from the

dissertation writing stress before I went mad; whether you listened to my ideas or just ensured I ate dinner every day.

Without these people I almost certainly would not have reached the point of submission for this work and my year studying at the University of Sheffield would not have been anywhere near as insightful or fun; and for that I cannot thank you all enough.

Abstract

Inclusive education has been firmly on the radar of international policy makers for over 20 years, since the release of Salamanca statement in 1994. However, despite two decades of focus, the situation for disabled students in the developing world remains difficult. The Ethiopian government's official stance regarding the education of its youth is one of inclusion; however the agrarian and traditional nature of the society often results in the achievement of this being difficult. Therefore a research project was designed, in collaboration with the charity Link Ethiopia, to investigate the experiences of visually, audibly and physically disabled students. As well as this investigation considered the barriers such children face to accessing inclusive education. This research took place over the course of 6 weeks and involved the use of focus groups, observations and secondary data in order to gather a breadth of qualitative information. Initial findings emphasise the role sufficient and appropriate resources for individuals in the achievement of inclusive education. Whilst this is obviously vital in individual experience, for large scale change to occur adaptations are needed within institutional policy. The majority of this should be focused upon training all teachers in inclusive techniques, as without this a truly inclusive system cannot operate. From this increase in knowledge a more positive societal attitude should result for teachers, students and subsequently the wider community; as well as more effective resource implementation.

Table of Contents

(1) Introduction

In many developing countries basic services for people with disabilities are viewed not as a right, but a privilege for a select few (Alur, 2001). The right to an education is one of these and UNICEF (2014) estimates suggest 90% of children with one or more disabilities in the developing world do not attend school. In response to this, international programmes were designed and (with varying success) implemented; including Education for All (EfA), the Millennium Development Goals (MDGs), and more recently the Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs). EfA and the MDGs focused mainly on achieving universal access to primary education by 2015, and whilst this will include inclusive practices, the SDGs went further by aiming for the achievement of inclusive and equitable education for all by 2030 (UN, 2016).

Though the above international goals and movements are important, one of the most renowned international education policies is the Salamanca Statement which, upon its conception in 1994, represented the first to focus explicitly on the specific needs of disabled children (Lawson & Gooding, 2005). This statement targeted international governments and endorsed their use of inclusive education for the effective provision of education for all children (Mitchell, 2004). The statement also stressed the efficiency and cost-effective nature of a system for the entire school age population (Mitchell, 2004). However, despite these governmental statements and commitments, official statistics suggest children with disabilities still remain largely unsupported by many international governments (UNESCO, 2013).

Ethiopian authorities have demonstrated a clear move towards inclusive education in policy design, with their official stance being one of education for all children regardless of mental, intellectual, physical, visual or hearing impairments (Ministry of Education, 2015). Despite this official commitment the experiences of many disabled children represents a very different reality (UNESCO, 2007). Numerous disabled children in Ethiopia, especially those from rural regions, are still unable to access inclusive education; due to being unable to access any kind of education or being placed in mainstream schooling without appropriate support (ACPF, 2011).

(1.1) Outline and Rationale

The following report details the findings of a research study in Gondar, Northern Ethiopia, investigating barriers to and experience of inclusive education for students with visual, hearing and physical impairments. The report will initialy outline the theoretical background of the

inclusive education movement and barriers which may stop its implementation. After this point a context will be given within which the research will be situated, followed by methodological, deisgn, and ethical considerations given to this project. The penultimate chapter of this report will outline the findings of the study and analyse their siginifance in relation to the research objectives and acadmic literature. The final section will then outline the conclusions drawn from these results.

It has been claimed that a lack of applicable and recent research in developing regions results in western studies being directly applied in these places (Eleweke & Rodda, 2002). As a result, Winter (2000) argues that developing countries are failing to provided the same levels and quality of inclusive education as their developed counterparts. Therefore, this research aims to contribute a new spatial and temporal context to the existing theories and literature. This research project will also investigate the role of institutions in the achievement of inclusive education to situate the findings within broader international governance and academic theories. Similarly, due to the gender, disability and education intersection arguably having been neglected (Rousso, 2003), this study will also investigate gendered experiences and the findings situated in outstanding feminist understandings.

(2) Literature Review

(2.1) Disability

Disability is an active research area, which has become particularly prominent within political and social fields of academia (Barnes & Mercer, 2011). However, due to the fluidity of the concept vast cultural variations often result, with only physical impairments gaining recognition, and mental and intellectual impairments not even considered within some cultures (Ngui, et al., 2010). Within developing regions, assumptions and attitudes towards disabilities tend to be deeply rooted in the community's value system and slow to change, offering explanations to why many disabled people are viewed as backwards, slow or victims of society (Singal & Muthukrishna, 2014). Global politics acknowledge that achievement of the MDGs, and more recently the SDGs, cannot be realised without focus upon the needs and rights of those with impairment(s) (Singal, 2011).

Disability intersects all aspects of life, culture and society including identity, politics, historical traditions, cultural practices and education to name a few (Barnes & Mercer, 2011). Devlieger et al. (2016) suggest that to gain a full and informed understanding of disability within a society or sub-group, it must be studied as a dynamic and interconnected concept; not one confined to only one societal area. Similarly, it is also important to note that opinions and attitudes are complex, interconnected and individually unique and as such concepts and views of disability cannot be classified as wholly positive or negative within a community (Singal & Muthukrishna, 2014).

(2.1.1) Disability in Academia

Within academic literature, the terms disability and handicap are often used interchangeably; however, they do have markedly different definitions. Whilst disability is the physical, medical or mental impairment, handicap refers to the social and environmental consequences of such a condition (Davis, 2006). The handicap experienced depends upon the societal expectations imposed on the disabled person, with the resulting disadvantage often preventing or limiting the person from fulfilling their expected role in society (Parens & Asch, 2000). Therefore, the socially constructed notion of handicap can be combined with that of relativism for a deeper understanding of identity and disability. The weak relativist position suggests that the level of disadvantage experienced by a person with disability depends upon which capacities, abilities and behaviours are most desired in a society (Ingstad & Whyte, 1995). However, radical relativism is far more closely linked to notions of personhood and how an individual's abilities and identity

exist within different social contexts (Ingstad & Whyte, 1995); a stance that arguably offers a more complex understanding of real life experiences.

(2.1.2) Intersectionality

Although the concepts of disability and handicap may be present in a society, it should not be assumed that those with impairment necessarily identify with these labels (Little, 2010). Notions of personhood which results from the evaluation of one's personal characteristics and sense of self in comparison to society as a whole also relate to individual's sense of identity (Sommo & Chaskes, 2015). Intersectionality combines these two ideas, developing them to produce an understanding of multiple and overlapping identities (Emmett & Alant, 2006) and the role these take within everyday interactions. This theory suggests that the disadvantages experienced by someone with a disability may not exclusively be due to their medical status; age, gender, ethnicity, religion may also impact the levels of oppression experienced by this person (Sommo & Chaskes, 2015). This disadvantage is not only present on an individual scale but may be ingrained in many institutional and systematic levels (Adams, et al., 2016). These disadvantages can be difficult to eliminate as the interconnected and intersectional nature of both systematic function and/or personal identities will remain (Adams, et al., 2016).

It is important to note that personhood and the intersectionality of identity are not static and can change and adapt throughout a person's life, in response to developing experiences, social attitudes and personal understandings (Barnartt, 2010). Intersectionality also stresses the importance of recognising that people do not fit neatly in one categorisation and may occupy more than one minority status (Sommo & Chaskes, 2015), something which traditional theories of disability fail to recognise. In addition to this the various and complex manifestations of disability can make applying intersectionality to disadvantage challenging, with the point at which systematic, physical and social limitations meet being particularly difficult to identify (Sommo & Chaskes, 2015).

(2.1.3) Social Model of Disability

The social model of disability was originally outlined by activists of the Union of the Physically Impaired Against Segregation (UPIAS) in the 1970s before being later developed and academically accredited by Oliver (1990). The basis of this model is the interaction present between a person

living with a disability and the physical, social and institutional environments and the disadvantage this can cause (Mantey, 2015). This theory also operates in connection with those ideas of personhood through its suggestion that personal identity and choices are largely determined by the ideologies in a society (Lang, 2001). Should the previously outlined environments alter their operation to include those living with impairment, equitable participation and opportunities will prevail (Mantey, 2015). This is because the difficulties faced by these people are not the fault of that person or their condition, but that of society and its barriers, be that social, physical or institutional, which it places in the way (Mantey, 2015). Notably this framework received criticism for dismissing the impact personal suffering and physical/emotional pain may have by suggesting that systematic restructuring will alleviate all issues (Morris, 1991).

(2.2) Inclusive Education

The above outlined theories on behaviour, identity, society and the environment have all contributed to the notion of inclusion and the role it may have in reducing social exclusion and negative attitudes towards disability (Save the Children, 2014). The ideas which formed the basis of the above viewpoints were later picked up in the education sector and more specifically within the field of inclusivity; this was likely to have been one of the driving forces behind its rise in popularity.

UNESCO (1994) stated that inclusive education should encompass the drive for universal education, coupled with the idea that all children have the right to learn alongside their peers wherever possible, despite any differences they may have, in a school which caters for everyone (UNESCO, 1994). Advocates for the system suggest that it can remove discrimination, improve educational outcomes and remove barriers towards access and engagement (Lindsay, 2003). The adoption of its principles can be divided into a number of stages (see figure 1) (Flynn & Nitsch, 1980). Whilst conceptualisation of the approach is vital, this theory suggests that even with effective implementation, complete inclusion cannot be achieved until societal acceptance has occurred (Pijl, et al., 2002).

Figure 1: Stages of Inclusive Education Adoption (Pijl, et al., 2002)

To achieve universal education "liberalization, equality enhancement, guaranteed citizenship rights and effective governance" must occur (Mundy, 2007, p. 9). In many countries, including Ethiopia, the need for specific and targeted support is largely unmet and levels of inclusion are significantly diminished (Chataika, et al., 2012). It should also be noted that most academic literature and active research focuses on that which is missing and still to be achieved. Successes and achievements are not acknowledged despite the progress towards equality and inclusion that they represent (DFID, 2004). These factors have resulted in a limitation to knowledge of the true state of inclusion in many regions, creating a glass ceiling in terms of what can be worked upon.

Inclusive education is not an end state but a continuous process, and as such no school, community or nation can definitively state complete achievement of it (Sebba & Ainscow, 1996). All communities, cultures and institutions will face unique and varied challenges during the development of inclusive education. These challenges, or barriers, can be separated into one of 3 sub-categories; social and community, policy and systematic and school specific factors (DFID, 2004); those which are deeply ingrained within the society become the most difficult barriers to overcome (Charema, 2010). However, despite classification being possible, Pijl et al (2002) argue that educational barriers should be considered interconnected and evident at all levels, from an individual level to a societal one; as this is likely the manner in which they will be experienced.

(2.2.1) Ideological Shift

Academic and educational practice across the world has shifted from segregation ideology to integration, before later developing into inclusion (Mittler, 2000). Traditionally education for disabled children has been provided by special schools where impaired children do not have direct physical, social or emotional contact with students within the mainstream educational system

6

(Opretti & Belalcazar, 2008). In developed nations the shift to integration began in the 1980s and saw large numbers of special school students being moved into the mainstream system (Kristensen, et al., 2006) and more latterly in developing countries too (Engelbrecht, et al., 2006). However, for the majority of disabled students this integration resulted in academic and social isolation, as little to no participatory or inclusionary support was provided for them in this new system (Polat, 2011). Many academics acknowledged that despite this integration, having a disability still results in it being highly unlikely that they will be able to benefit from formal education (Moodley & Graham, 2015). Recognition of this failing, resulted in the development of inclusive education; which aimed to increase educational participation by eliminating and/or reducing exclusionary and discriminatory practices (Booth, 2005). Successful inclusion requires a radical transformation of a school system to accommodate all students regardless of "gender, race, language of origin, social background, level of educational achievement or disability" (Mittler, 2000, p. 10).

Tilstone et al, (1998) argue that these changes in global education ideology prove the widespread inclusion of children with disabilities into mainstream schooling is completely possible. However, since this claim was made, the uptake of inclusive education practice in the global south has been slow, possibly due to complex and numerous cultural, systematic and economic variations between and within nations (Polat, 2011). Additionally, confusion of definitions within disability as a whole (see chapter 2.1.2) and the inclusive education movement (Mmbaga, 2002), has resulted in multiple cases of the terms integration and inclusion being used interchangeably, both in academia and politics (Polat, 2011). As such strategies and practices in many regions have encountered issues with development and application (Mmbaga, 2002).

(2.2.2) Social Model

This ideological shift indicated a movement from the 'defect' model of education where a child with impairment is required to change to fit into the 'normal' system; to a social model (as outlined above in chapter 3.1.4) where "society and its institutions… are [viewed as the] oppressive, discriminatory and disabling" force (Mittler, 2000, p. 3) for students with disabilities. A failure within this inclusive system, or a reversion to the defect model, will not impact on just a few people, but will systematically disadvantage those with disability across a whole society (Mantey, 2015). The social model requires the education system, not the child to change, ensuring barriers to participation are effectively removed (Mittler, 2000). However, despite academic

consensus on the inefficiency of the defect model, it is still highly influential in global strategy and education practice and integrative systems remain (Mittler, 2000).

(2.2.3) Alternative Inclusion

Although academic consensus appears relatively widespread, it has been argued that despite the global move towards complete inclusion, it may not be the best educational environment for many students. For example, Wilson (2000) suggests that when we uncritically implement inclusive education we may overlook that a system of separation may be best for those with complex educational needs. For these students one to one attention is vital, both educationally and personally, which is difficult in inclusive environments, especially those in developing countries; this results in people being hugely failed by their education institutions (Wilson, 2000). As a result, it has been suggested that total inclusion should be replaced with responsible and/or partial inclusion which recognises that mainstream education may not be appropriate for everyone and implements the most appropriate form for that person (Hornby, 1999).

Despite clear evidence regarding the positive impact of (or at least some form of) inclusive education on later life, it still remains to be seen is if this global shift in academic and educational practice will result in improved inclusion levels (Mittler, 2000) in developing countries; as demonstrated in the outlined literature, much of the work surrounding the field may be regarded as outdated.

(2.3) Barriers to Inclusive Education

(2.3.1) Social and Community

It has been argued that one of the primary functions of inclusive education is to reduce inequality and address issues of social justice within wider society (Polat, 2011; DFID, 2004; WHO, 2011). Yet, according to Peters (2003), academic literature focusing on the role of the social context within the understanding and implementation of inclusive education is largely lacking (2003).

(2.3.1.1) Societal Attitudes

Traditionally, in many cultures, disability is seen as a curse or a misfortune sent by a deity; often as a result of family sin (Miles , 1995). Social exclusion remains an issue in many cultures and regions across the world and disabled students are often unable to enrol, and therefore benefit from, formal education (UNICEF, 2013). Disabled children may also be kept home due to societal expectations of their abilities and future achievements. Within both the Ethiopian and broader

developing country context, disability often signals low expectations from families and communities, and it is often viewed as pointless to educate disabled children (UNICEF, 2013). However arguably it is not a lack of ability that impedes these children, it is the stigma and lack of family and community understanding. Research has demonstrated that with effective inclusion many can achieve and excel both in the education sector and the wider work force (UNICEF, 2013).

The impact social attitudes have on inclusivity is not solely confined to outside the school compound, and the impact of peer relations should not be underestimated. Students without impairments often have little to no understanding of disability and have the ability to, either intentionally or unintentionally, isolate students who have a disability (Watermeyer, 2006). Whilst inclusion is vital in improving academic attainment and engagement, it also serves to develop student's social skills (Reicher, 2010). Inclusive education needs to ensure social interaction occurs between and amongst all students; something traditional education is largely failing to do, according to Lepage et al's (1998) study which suggests students with disabilities have significantly less social contact with peers than their non-disabled counterparts.

However, it has been argued that in an increasingly globalised world, (Barnes & Mercer, 2011) attitudes and views towards disability are changing. The influx of 'western' ideas to many developing nations especially those surrounding disability, inclusion and education is resulting in a hybridisation of cultures; whereby traditional viewpoints are meeting with new approaches (Goodley, 2011). The increased visibility of those with some form of impairment within the community can go some way to breaking down traditional misconceptions and ideologies about those with a disability (Srivastava, et al., 2015). Therefore, it can be argued that the inclusion of these children in the school system can go a long way to breaking down any traditional societal barriers.

(2.3.1.2) Economic Factors

Although academic achievement is completely possible, the likelihood of disabled students and their families to remain in an inequality trap is significantly higher than that of the general population (World Bank, 2005). This finding can arguably be traced to the human capital theory which suggests that the inability of the differently abled to access and gain from education is directly related to experiences of poverty (Mantey, 2015). The increased exclusion of persons with disability is likely to result in decreased employment opportunities and wage limits for these

students, which is likely to lead to poverty (Mantey, 2015). This poverty will then increase the possibility of unsanitary conditions and poor nutrition, both of which are precursors to disability (Mantey, 2015). This viewpoint suggests disability and poverty are cyclical in nature and whilst unlikely to remove these issues fully, education has been noted to result in the degradation of this cycle (Braunholtz, 2007). However, this human capital theory fails to represent the vast and varied benefits which formal education can afford to students, and may encourage governments to only invest in those who will result in high returns; leading to the possibility of further exclusion for those with a disability (Mantey, 2015).

(2.3.2) Environmental Factors

Academic research has suggested that physical infrastructure improvements in education facilities will result in increased access to education . Eleweke and Rodda (2002) suggest that in a number of low income countries, including those in sub-Saharan Africa, inadquate community services and a lack of infrastructure are the main barrier to societal and educational inclusion. Whilst environmental factors can negatively impact on educational inclusion, with the correct implementation the phyical environment can facilitate societal and educational engagement (Watermeyer, 2006).

Much of the environmental exclusion felt by disabled children is a result of architectual designs not suited to an adapted way of living (Prota, 2012). These include, amongst others, a lack of ramps and braille writing within the physical environment, which can exclude or deter the inclusion of children with disabilities in the school environment and/or community (Gal, et al., 2010). Whilst complete adptation of the physical environment to facilitate independent movement and engagement is generally prefered, the use of social support may go a long way to increasing educational participation for these students. However, it is also important to consider that whilst a physically accessible school compound is highly important, an inaccessible commute will result in these adaptations being void (Gal, et al., 2010). Hence it is important to consider physical accessibility in terms of both the educational environment and public space as a whole.

(2.3.3) Institutional Factors

Rieser (2012) argues that for inclusive education to be a success, the social model of disability must be adopted and the education system cleared of institutional barriers. These system based

problems can range from an inaccessible environment, to teacher's attitudes, to a lack of resources and many others (see figure 2 overleaf).
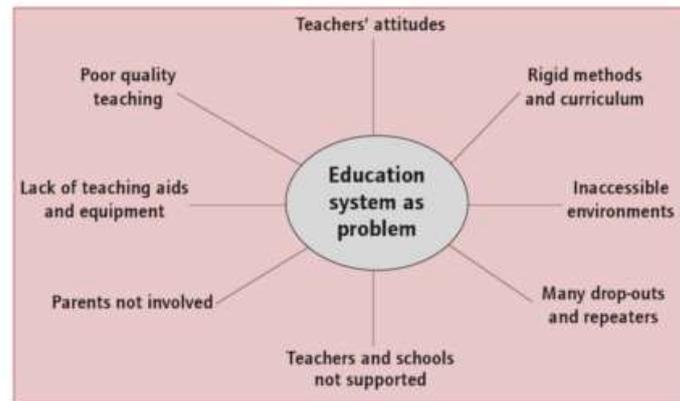
Figure 2: Institutional Barriers to Inclusive Education (Rieser, 2012)

(2.3.3.1) Government Policy

In order to achieve inclusive education for all, institutional systems need to implement and enforce the values, practices and policy ideas set out by UNESCO's (1994) definition outlined in chapter 2.2. The World Bank in 1996 suggested that funding in many African nations was declining to such a point that the educational services provided were also deteriorating (UNESCO, 1996). This is despite governments arguably owing their citizens the greatest standard possible which could be achieved through investment in the sector (Porter, 2001). In 2000, at the outset of the EfA movement, it was estimated that the achievement of universal primary education in Africa would cost an estimated $3 billion (Mittler, 2000). Whilst steps have been made towards EfA there are still huge disparities in provision for general and disability specific education and in a post-financial crisis world this price is likely to have changed very little or even increased (UNESCO, 2013). As a result of these financial shortcomings within governmental institutions, the needs of disabled children in developing countries are being left broadly unmet (Alur, 2001).

Education curriculums within inclusive education, according to Erevelles (2011), may unintentionally serve to justify the exclusion of disabled students from mainstream classes due to its inappropriate and unadaptable nature. Programmes of education should ideally cross the borders of school and society, promoting inclusionary practices throughout the community; however, the teaching curriculum and policy in many regions prevents this (Goodley, 2011). As well as appropriate teaching subjects, institutional policy must include sufficient resources and educator training to ensure achievement of inclusive education. However, regardless of the exact

11

content of governmental policy, it will mean little to the experiences of disabled children unless it aligns and is effectively implemented in all education institutions regardless of location, religion and/or community (Clough & Corbett, 2006).

(2.3.3.2) Teacher Attitudes and Training

It has been suggested that of the previously outlined systematic barriers, teachers can offer one of the most substantial and important steps towards inclusion (Hasting & Oakford, 2003). Mittler (2000) argues that the majority of teachers already possess the skills and knowledge needed to inclusively teach. However, lack of support both within and outside the education system results in many teachers lacking confidence in their own abilities to implement these practices (Charema, 2010).

It has been suggested that those teachers who receive additional training targeted at special needs education not only have a more positive attitude towards disability but also to the use of inclusive teaching styles (Sharma, et al., 2008). Therefore, it can be widely assumed that with sufficient support the attitudes of these teaching staff can be vital to the successful implementation of inclusive policies and subsequent inclusion levels (Charema, 2010). However, the provision of a both conceptually and pedagogically appropriate training plan is challenging in increasingly constrained education budgets (Walton, 2015).

(2.3.3.3) Resources and Materials

Charema (2010) argues that in many regions funding and resource allocation is restricting the progress of educational inclusion for disabled students. Even where education authorities and mainstream teachers are committed to inclusion and inclusive programs, change is often difficult due to stringent time and funding restrictions (Charema, 2010); it has been suggested that without sufficient resources and funding, inclusive change cannot be realised (Charema, 2010). Whilst many of the essential system adaptations may appear too expensive (Farrell, et al., 1999), at an estimated 2.3 times the cost per student of mainstream education (Evans, 1999); it should be noted that in comparison to the support that would be required over these individual's lifetimes without this quality education, these costs are relatively cheap (Charema, 2010). Despite what appears to be widespread agreement in this field, the theorists Florian and Tilstone (1998) suggest that inclusive education does not require the use of materials and new technologies but rather changing social actions and understandings. Whilst this theory develops and adapts the idea of

resource allocation in inclusive education, it is also important to note that this idea is now almost 20 years old and may not hold true in a modernised technological world.

The evidence discussed demonstrates a clear need for education systems to shift their value system and restructure the organisation, resource allocation, system attitudes and curriculum procedures if they are to become fully inclusive (Minou, 2011). Although these concerns and challenges are not exclusive to one country or region, such a shift would signal the assurance of equitable inclusion for all students (Minou, 2011), no matter their disabilities, abilities, gender or difference for the nation that implements such a change.

(2.4) Gender, Disability and Education

It is estimated that only 1% of disabled women globally are literate versus the estimated 3% of those from the disability sub-group as a whole (Groce, 1999). Similarly, female disabled students are significantly more vulnerable to marginalisation within the education system than their male counterparts (Okkolin, et al., 2010). These variations in inclusion and attendance are representative of a double discrimination that faces disabled girls; with negative attitudes towards female achievement combined with negative attitudes towards disability creating deeper issues (Rousso, 2003);. This idea aligns with that of the intersectionality theory (Moodley & Graham, 2015) outlined earlier in chapter 2.1.3.

Feminist theorists have suggested the specific needs related to equality for all female students are not being catered for within the education sector; probably due to the societal and advocacy invisibility of these people (Rousso, 2003). Similarly, there is a notable gap academically regarding the intersection of disability and gender (Rousso, 2001) which as a result makes direct and meaningful comparison for this specific group difficult. However, this gap is not only evident in academia. Legislation and policy can be seen to be making clear steps towards equality and inclusion of disabled students, yet little focus has been given to the role of gender within this field (Rousso, 2003). It should also be noted that female disability is not simply a theoretical field and often results in physical isolation from the community with families still hiding their daughters away in many regions (Lamichhane, 2015). This hiding results in access to inclusive education becoming impossible for these girls due to the cultural stigma that is attached to disability and females (Rousso, 2003). Compounding this issue is the double liability concept that is attached to girls with disability in many cultures, with their presence being viewed as a double burden to the

family and something which can devalue them in the eyes of the community (Ghai, 2006; Fahd, et al., 1997)

The problems that are evident within gender and disability are not independent of those experienced by all children when working towards inclusive education (Rousso, 2003). Societal views of women, even those without disabilities, can be a barrier to inclusive education; however in combination with disability, these girls are placed at even greater educational disadvantage (King & Hill, 1997). In many societies' gender bias results in preferential allocation of resources, opportunities and support for male children in all aspects of education (Stromquist, 2013), including those aimed at disabled students.

Whilst disability and gender have independently been studied in relation to inclusive education in developing countries, there is a significant academic gap in the study of these 3 elements in conjunction with one another (Rousso, 2003).

(2.5) Academic Relevance to Research

The above literature demonstrates the debates surrounding the spread of inclusive education globally and whilst the majority of official sources demonstrate international policy makers making a commitment to its implementation, empirical data suggests this may not be resulting in measurable or experienced change. Theoretical arguments outline a vast range of reasons for this gap in achievement yet reach little agreement as to the true cause. This research aims to uncover the lived reality of inclusive education in the Gondar region of northern Ethiopia for those children experiencing it. Similarly, theories of intersectionality and those surrounding gendered experience of education suggest that disadvantage experienced by females with a disability will be heightened by both these aspects of their personality. However, it is unclear if this argument is based upon a traditional cultural view of disability and/or gender and as such will be irrelevant in this setting; or is this theory reflective of the experiences of girls living in Gondar.

(3) Research Context

(3.1) Ethiopian Context

Ethiopia, located in the east of the continent in the horn of Africa, can be considered a primarily agrarian society, with an estimated 88.5% of residents living in rural areas and primarily working the land (UN, 2001). Although reliable statistics are difficult to find, estimates suggest that within the population of over 95 million people approximately 5 million have some form of disability (International Labor Organization, 2004). Everyday living for a disabled person in Ethiopia can encounter a number of challenges, ranging from social, to physical, economic and beyond. The most obvious in rural areas is poor infrastructure, with many struggling to move around their communities due to poor quality roads, a lack of transportation and inaccessible public buildings (UN, 2001). Other problems include, but are not limited to: a lack of artificial aids and devices, lack of public awareness and cultural stigma (UN, 2001). Those with a disability are also regularly excluded from employment opportunities, sometimes due to the nature of the largely agricultural work, but more often it is despite their being capable of undertaking such work (UN, 2001).

(3.1.1) Gondar

Figure 3: Map showing Amhara and Gondar (Stanfords, 2016)

This research project takes place in and around the city of Gondar, located in the northern Amhara region of Ethiopia (see figure 3). This city, once the capital of the country and still represents a site

of great cultural importance, is located approximately 420km from the now capital Addis Ababa (Encyclopedia of Britannica, 2016). According to the 2007 census, the Amhara region has a total population of 17,221,976 people with 207,044 people residing in Gondar (Central Statistical Agency, 2007).

Gondar has many of the markings of an urban environment; shopping areas, cafes and restaurants, public transport and paved streets. However, the developing nature of the economy means there are often areas that are physically difficult for disabled residents; including large holes in pavements and roads (often unmarked), uneven surfaces and public transport that is inaccessible for those with mobility issues.

This project focused on 3 schools within the city and wider area, which were chosen due to their status as schools enrolling students with a disability, as well as their varied physical locations. School 1 was located in the city centre and was surrounded by urban dwellings; school 2 was located in the outskirts of the urban area and was semi-urban in nature including open green spaces and unpaved pathways. Finally, school 3 was located in a suburb of Gondar known as Azezo and whilst not being in an area that was busy, like school 1, it had all the facilities and accessibility of an urban school. The fact that these schools accept disabled students may cause their reality to be on the better end of the inclusive spectrum compared with other Gondarian schools, however this research focused on those currently including these students (for further information see chapter 6.3).

Although the majority of Ethiopia's population reside in rural areas, an urban location was chosen for this project due to the nature of the education system. The currently favoured system for disabled students in Ethiopia is attendance of a unit school from grades 1 to 3 where specialist skills including sign language, braille and mobility are taught (UNESCO, 2015). After this point the student should be transferred into mainstream classes (UNESCO, 2015). Despite this system of partial inclusion (Wilson, 2000) being introduced in 2006 the resources, assistance and accessibility required are still primarily in urban areas (UNESCO, 2015); and as such disabled students often travel to these areas to gain an education. Subsequently, the participants needed for this study were found to be located primarily in urban regions and therefore so too was this research.

<u>(3.1.2) Education in Ethiopia</u>

With 50% of Ethiopia's population being under the age of 15, education is a huge priority within the country's development (University of Leicester, 2016). However, as is the case in many developing nations, those with a disability are often excluded from education policy and practice (Riddell, et al., 2005), with some estimates suggesting only 0.7% of disabled children are able to access education in Ethiopia (Quinn, 2015). This is despite agreement and subscription to the MDG of universal primary education by 2015 (Bloom, et al., 2006), and the more recent SDGs of inclusive and equitable education.

Both primary and secondary education in Ethiopia are free of charge, and theoretically enrolment is compulsory until the end of the second cycle of primary education, although statistics suggest many do not complete schooling to this point (Bauduy, 2008). The official education statement from the government is "to improve access to quality education in order to make sure that all children, youth and adults acquire the competencies, skills and values that enable them to participate fully in the [social and economic] development of Ethiopia" (Ministry of Education, 2015, p. 14). However, whilst this statement does operate in accordance of the EfA principal, it makes no explicit mention of disabled and SEN students. Similarly, although this plan includes a chapter entitled "Special Needs and Inclusive Education" (Ministry of Education, 2015, p. 26), this section simply acknowledges the previous plan's failings and has no future action plan.

The Ethiopian authorities have acknowledged their failings within the field (Ministry of Education, 2012); yet in 2013 The African Child Policy Forum (ACPF) reported that disabled students in Ethiopia were still facing great difficulties in accessing inclusive education (Link Ethiopia, 2013b). NGOs (Non-Government Organisations) working in Ethiopia are currently responsible for large proportions of the education provision, both for the disabled and wider student population (Rose, 2009).

Exclusion of disabled students and effective monitoring of the problem is made more difficult in the Ethiopian context due to the political structuring of its ministries (Charema, 2010). Multiple ministries are responsible for various elements of general education at a regional level (Charema, 2010). Whereas, special needs and disability education is the responsibility of the Ministry of Education (MoE) and has national level influence (UNESCO, 2015) making collaborative policies between mainstream and specialist education difficult.

(3.2) Collaborative Organisation

Link Ethiopia is an NGO working in Ethiopia to ensure children have equal access to quality education to enable them to reach their potential, expand their communities and make positive life choices (Dillon, et al., 2014). Their work involves working within and alongside local communities to improve access and quality of education for all children regardless of income, ability or culture, and reduce poverty in these areas (Link Ethiopia, 2013a). A key work and funding focus for Link Ethiopia is their flagship disability project. This project involves providing schools with specialist training, resources and equipment whilst providing financial support to disabled students' families (Link Ethiopia, 2013b). They also focus upon increasing access to quality education for girls, as for every 100 boys there are only 77 girls in education in Ethiopia (Link Ethiopia, 2016). Link Ethiopia believes increasing education levels for females will reduce poverty, ill health (including disabilities) and improve standards of living for the women, their families and the next generation (Link Ethiopia, 2016). As a result of Link Ethiopia's areas of focus and the resources this could bring, this research focused upon barriers to inclusive education for disabled children; as well as investigating any variation in experiences for female disabled students compared to their male peers.

(4) Design and Methodology

(4.1) Aims and Objectives

(4.1.1) Aim: To investigate experiences of and barriers to inclusive education for children with physical, sight and hearing impairments in the Gondar region of Northern Ethiopia.

(4.1.2) Objectives:

1. To assess the barriers faced by children with physical, hearing and sight impairments to inclusive education in the Gondar region.
2. To explore variations in gendered experiences and attitudes towards inclusive education for children with physical, hearing and sight impairments in the Gondar region.
3. To establish the role of institutional policy and practice within inclusive education access and practices in the Gondar region.

(4.1.3) Research Questions:

1. What are the understandings of disability within the school and wider community?
2. What are the similarities and differences in inclusionary practices based on student's type of impairment?
3. What areas still need to be improved within inclusive education for disabled students?
4. Are there gendered variations in community attitudes and access to inclusive education?
5. How is government policy regarding inclusive education experienced and implemented at a school level?

Research Method	Research Objective	Research Question
Focus Groups – Children without Disability	1 and 2	1, 2, 3 and 4
Focus Groups – Children with Disability	1 and 2	1, 2, 3 and 4
Focus Groups – Special Needs Teachers	1, 2 and 3	1, 2, 3, 4 and 5
Focus Groups – Mainstream Teachers	1, 2 and 3	1, 2, 3, 4 and 5
Focus Groups – PTA	1 and 2	1, 2, 3 and 4
Observation	1	3
Secondary Data Collection	1 and 2	5

Table 1: Research Methods, Aims and Research Questions (Authors Own)

(4.2) Methodology

This research takes a pragmatic stance to studying inclusive education, focusing on the "real world practices" (Creswell, 2014, p. 6) occurring in the Gondar region. The use of this theoretical

standpoint allowed for the investigation of multiple world views and understandings through a multi-method approach (Creswell, 2014), as outlined in chapter 4.3. Similarly, the project also adopted a structuralist approach towards disability, by investigating it in relation to socio-political and economic systems (Gabel & Peters, 2004). The project investigated the manner in which these systems operate throughout education and the resultant barriers they produce for inclusivity.

(4.3) Data Collection

(4.3.1) Focus Groups

Focus groups in this project discussed the research topics with the following groups of participants:

- Children (both with and without disabilities)
- Teachers (both those who have and have not received specialist training)
- Education Officers
- Parents of Enrolled Students

Interactions with disabled and non-disabled children facilitated data collection regarding attitudes, personal beliefs and experiences of disability within education, Due to time restrictions of school term dates in Ethiopia, the focus groups were conducted in the early research stages. The groups took place with 4 to 7 participants and information was gathered from 45 children considered to have some form of physical, visual or hearing disability impairment; and 31 students with no identified disability or special educational needs. Focus groups durations were approximately 1hour 30 minutes, and whilst a small number of set questions were asked, group discussion and development was actively encouraged. To adhere to child protection practices as well as to create an environment of peer support (Nind, 2008) these discussions were conducted primarily in classroom environments of the studied schools.

The number of audibly and physically impaired students who participated in this research should be noted (5 and 4 respectively) as it is significantly lower than that of the visually impaired participants. This disproportion can be attributed to enrolment numbers, with the number of students with these classifications of disability being significantly lower (see table 2 overleaf). The education office data does not provide the number of audibly impaired students currently enrolled.

Grade Level	Visually Impaired	Physically Impaired
KG Level	25	10
1	29	12
2	16	10
3	12	14
4	9	13
5	7	5
6	11	2
7	8	5
8	11	0
9	12	9
10	18	11
11	15	4
12	15	6
Total	188	104

Table 2: Students Enrolled in School by Impairment 2015/16 (Provided by Gondar Education Office)

Focus groups with teachers, parents and education officers took place in a similar format to those outlined above. However, availability of these participants was at times limited, and focus group numbers ranged from 3 to 6 people; with the education officers representing the smallest group in this range. Whilst this could influence the validity of the data provided by these participants (Sarantakos, 2013), the limited number of participants that fit this categorisation arguably result in this sample being relatively representative. As well as these 3 officers, focus group discussions involved a total of 32 teachers, 5 of whom have never received any form of specialist training; and 9 members of the study schools' parent teacher association (for detailed demographic information of all groups see appendix 1).

This method was chosen due to its ability to gain information on societal themes as well as an individual understanding of inclusion within the school environment. The use of focus groups allows insight into societal interactions, such as those towards disability, that may be unexaminable through alternative methods (Kitzinger, 1995). It has been noted that focus groups are particularly useful in studying disempowered populations who may have internalised views of their own inadequacies (Kitzinger, 1995); and as such was deemed suitable for this specific research.

It could be argued that the dynamic of a group discussion may influence the confidence of some participants to vocalise their opinions and as such impact the validity of any results (McLafferty, 2004). However, this was greatly diminished by the influence of shared experiences and participant's familiarity with one another, subsequently encouraging their contribution (Barr, et al., 2003).

Practical considerations related to this research also influenced the choice of the focus group method. Whilst the original proposal stated interviews would be used to gain insight and information from teachers and parents in the study, in-field time constraints dictated a change. Arguably this alteration not only increased the number of participants but will have also allowed group processes to clarify ideas and explore social dynamics that may not have been uncovered in a one to one interview (Kitzinger, 1995).

To ensure data accuracy, and with verbal informed consent received from all participants (Krueger & Casey, 2015), the focus groups were audio recorded and a full transcription later made from these recordings (Litosseliti, 2003). These transcriptions were carried out in conjunction with researcher notes to accurately identify participants and the data they provided, which can often be difficult by recording alone (Litosseliti, 2003).

4.3.2 Translator Usage

Interactions with participants during these focus groups were facilitated through a translator provided by Link Ethiopia, who spoke both fluent Amharic and English. At the beginning of the primary data collection an in-depth briefing was held with the translator of the objectives of the project, the ideas hoping to be uncovered and the importance of full and accurate translation. This allowed for the understandings of the initial questions and the responses of the participants to be communicated as accurately as possible; with their shared culture, language and community understanding helping with this (Berman & Tyyska, 2011). This reduced cultural misunderstandings of the questions and discussion translation (Davaninezhad, 2009). Nevertheless, despite best efforts from both the researcher and translator there is no way to guarantee total accuracy in the information, with cultural and linguistic differences between the researched, the translator and the researcher open to miscommunication (Temple & Edwards, 2002). However during research where the researcher's first language is not that of the

participants, the use of a translator is still the most effective means of communication (Temple & Young, 2004).

The effectiveness of this translation for those participants who are categorised as audibly impaired may have been compromised. Whilst the assigned translator effectively communicated the opinions, ideas and understandings of all Amharic speaking participants, they were unable to communicate in sign language and as such an alternative translator had to be recruited, who did not speak fluent English. This resulted in a double translation possibly reducing the accuracy and reliability of response recording (Temple & Moran, 2011). Whilst this is not the ideal research situation (and the depth of information gathered may have been negatively affected) the responses are still vital and valid within the context of this research and the themes or general ideas of these participant's responses could be understood despite direct quotation being difficult.

4.3.3 Sampling

A theoretical sampling model was used to select participants for the focus groups ensuring participants reflected a broad range of the desired study population (Kitzinger, 1995); with a variety of ages, genders and social standings being used throughout. Access to the selected participants was achieved through Link Ethiopia acting as a gatekeeper. A gatekeeper is someone through whom a researcher can gain access to research environments and participants (Saunders, 2006). Whilst it has been criticised by some for its negative influence on the objectivity of the study (Broadhead & Rist, 1976), it is a necessary reality in developing country research (Nind, 2008). Similarly, whilst a gatekeeper may have influenced participant profiles (McDonald, et al., 2008), access to schools and professionals would have been extremely difficult without the locally recognised name of Link Ethiopia. The NGO also provided invaluable information regarding the location of various classifications of teachers and of students with the specific impairments required for this research.

Although community research generally requires the use of gatekeepers to ensure participants trust both the researchers and the value of their participating in the study (Bryman, 2001); this does not guarantee cooperative participants (Wanat, 2008). This was experienced during this study when teachers, who had previously agreed to participate in their designated focus group, were unwilling to participate for the whole time required and cut the group short when they felt finished and a number of participants did not turn up to the appointment. In order to maintain

ethical standards within the research, participants have the right to withdraw which cannot be avoided (Krueger & Casey, 2015), though this does result in somewhat incomplete data.

(4.3.4) Observation

This study also included observation of physical accessibility, resource allocation and adaptations in the 3 schools outlined in chapter 3.1.1. A passive participant observation (Spradley, 1980) of the school environments was undertaken; using a research diary and observation of all activities, surroundings and phenomenon. This was completed without any set categories as suggested by Kearns (2005). The observation of these social and environmental concerns being conducted by an outsider, rather than a local, allowed for more objective observation; unaffected by habitual experience and routine observation (Phillips & Johns, 2012).

Observation is vital in discovery of interactions and realities that may not be raised during discussions (Marshall & Rossman, 2006), however it should be acknowledged that it does come with some limitations. Efforts were taken by the researcher to reduce their personal impact, yet it is highly likely that their selective position will have shaped the observations taken (Kitchin & Tate, 2000). Similarly, whilst this technique's low resource requirement is good for projects with a limited time scale, it only provides information on what is occurring, not the underlying factors, attitudes and motives behind it (Flowerdew & Martin, 2005). However, in conjunction with the previously mentioned focus group technique, observation is a highly effective and data rich method.

(4.3.5) Secondary Data

Throughout both the 'in and out' of field research period, secondary data documents were collected and collated to provide an institutional understanding of inclusive education. This method was chosen due to the data it provides on hard to reach populations (Silverman, 2011), such as the educationally excluded being investigated in this study. Project documents from the Ethiopian MoE and UNESCO were used for the data, information or understanding of the inclusive education they provide. Although documentary analysis is not the primary research method used in this research, it does add additional detail and understandings that had not previously been available through primary data collection (Bryman, 2001). In combination with the two previously mentioned (chapters 4.3.1 and 4.3.3) primary methods, the use of secondary analysis has allowed

for the investigation of the official approach, alongside the experienced recounted by the research participants (Ritchie, et al., 2014).

(4.4) Data Analysis

During analysis of this research the above mentioned methods and approaches were integrated and deciphered through methodological triangulation, as is most common in multiple methods research (Denscombe, 2014). Although this method does offer up multiple viewpoints it should not be used to present a complete truth, and was used in this study to triangulate results and ensure confidence in the research conclusions (Denscombe, 2014).

The research analysis used grounded theory, where data informs the analysis, and the analysis subsequently generates new ideas within the data (Denzin & Lincoln, 2011). Data analysis commenced with the use of thematic coding, both manually and electronically using the computer programme NVivo, before combining the two forms to produce key themes. Grounded theory has been notably useful in previous social justice research for deciphering interconnected ideas and themes (Clarke, 1998; Einwohner & Spencer, 2005), and therefore was chosen as most appropriate for this research. The fluid nature of this method and data has resulted in the most suitable form of presentation, and that which was chosen for this report, to combine the raw findings and analytical understandings.

(4.5) Ethical Considerations, Positionality and Limitations

(4.5.1) Limitations

Although a number of limitations, directly relating to the chosen research methods, have been mentioned in the above chapters, other limitations arose during the course of the research. The most notable in terms of the quantity of data collected was the tenuous geo-political situation that developed during the course of the project. The initial research stages operated as planned; however during the last third of the allocated time, violent protests began in Gondar and travel to the study locations ceased for safety reasons. Secondary collection continued during this time but the availability of primary participants (notably teachers who had not received specialist training) was reduced.

A further limitation was that this study did not include some key informants. In order to address inclusion, exclusion also needs to be explored (Booth, et al., 2003); something this study failed to do. Whilst there was an initial plan to discuss the exclusion being experienced by disabled children

with those who were not enrolled in school, access to these students was extremely difficult as their identities being largely unknown to the collaborative organisation and many living in remote rural locations.

Investigation into the gendered experiences of inclusive education occurred in mixed groups during all of the research focus groups. This method of data collection has the potential to produce skewed data where responses given by one gender may influence those of the other (Bernardi & Guptil, 2008). However, Desai and Potter (2006) argue that strength of societal power relations mean, women would provide the same information both with and without the presence of a male. It should be noted that the impact of mixed groups was given full consideration (Dalton & Ortegren, 2011), but time constraints, as well as a limited number of female participants who fit the disabled student category, required its use. That is not to say limited female participant is not representative; it demonstrates the gender disparities present in Ethiopia and the increased exclusion disabled girls may be facing.

The ambiguous nature of the inclusive education concept and the differences people will have in its definition (Lindsay, 2003) Notions and concepts are often ingrained within a person's opinion, and as such some responses may have been given in relation to an alternative definition (Lindsay, 2003). However to mitigate this, all participants were told the UNESCO (1994), definition being used prior to participation.

(4.5.2) Positionality

Throughout the research process full consideration was given to the role research positionality could take. As the researcher was a western, white, woman there were a number of complications and issues that were considered and reflected upon.

The space in which a foreign researcher takes within a society is largely determined by the local community and can impact upon data (Desai & Potter, 2006). This position which is ascribed to a researcher can shape the "questions they ask; how they frame them; … and how they read" (Gregory, et al., 2009, p. 556). As a result of this knowledge, efforts were made prior to the data collection and throughout analysis to remain as impartial as possible (Desai, et al., 2008); however complete objectivity is very difficult, if not impossible within primary qualitative research.

As well as the above mentioned power relations, economic inequality has the ability to impact the research dynamic (Desai, et al., 2008). The economic status represented by a western student in higher education may result in participants feeling intimidated by the research and/or wanting to gain something economically from participation. This was demonstrated in this study where student participants discovered the teachers and parents were receiving economic compensation for their participation and as such wanted the same for themselves.

The positionality of Link Ethiopia's translator is also a key element of consideration within this project. The NGO has a high level of influence within the 3 studied schools and as such some of the participants may have altered their answers to provide information they felt the charity wanted to hear. This can be clearly demonstrated in one interaction with a blind student who, after completion of the focus group asked:

> *"What will you, at Link Ethiopia, be doing with this information to make it better for us?"*
>
> *[M83B: Male, Grade 8, Blind Student]*

In an attempt to mitigate the influence of this as much as possible, it was stressed to all participants that the group was part of an independent academic study and the researcher was a student; not a member of Link Ethiopia staff. Whilst this information was thoroughly explained to participant it was arguably inevitable that on some level they will associate the research with the organisation due to their standpoint in the educational institution and their presence at the point of data collection.

(4.5.3) Ethical Considerations

Both prior to and throughout this research project full ethical consideration was given to the participants, the information they provided and the way in which it was collected. Prior to focus groups beginning it was important to ensure participants were aware of their confidentiality, both in terms of identity and the answers they provided (Gregory, 2003); this was despite many participants wanting to be named in the research. Similarly, participants were also fully informed about the research aims and purpose and asked to give verbal informed consent of their participation (Marshall, 2007). This verbal consent was sought as the foreign alphabet used in Amharic made the translation and creation of a consent form challenging for the British researcher (Brod & Feinbloom, 1990) and inappropriate for some participants due to their visual impairments.

Participant demographics used in this research may also result in ethical concerns. The school students used in this project were (bar a few exceptions) under 18 years of age and many of them could also be categorised as vulnerable due to their disabilities (Shivayogi, 2013). However, these students were impaired only in their physicality and as were mentally capable of giving their informed responses and understandings; as well as any responses given likely to benefit them via Link Ethiopia's work (Shivayogi, 2013). Whilst British child protection requires full consent from a parent or guardian (Moore & Miller, 1999), there is no such requirement in Ethiopia, and consent was sufficiently gained from the academic administration and the child themselves.

During this research project a small contribution (50 birr per person) was given to participants from the parent and teacher groups. This is considered by some authors as bad practice due to its ability to influence and alter the data provided (Grady , 2010). However, it was decided that within the cultural setting this practice was appropriate as a sign of respect for the time which the participants had given to the research (Grady , 2010). Although student participants were not paid for the role, they were provided with light refreshments, again as a sign of appreciation of their contributions.

A complete ethical application was submitted to and accepted by the University of Sheffield prior to research commencement.

(5) Data Presentation and Analysis

The following section identifies and explores the research results and whilst these are subdivided by theme, as stated by Devlieger et al (2016), it is important to note the interconnected nature of these results. As such there are elements which intersect a number of themes and these will be outlined within the appropriate sections.

Thematic analysis of the raw data revealed 8 main themes covering barriers to inclusive education; gendered variations and the impact of institutions in experiences of inclusion. These themes represent a holistic view of the experiences of and barriers to inclusive education in the Gondar region.

(5.1)Resources

Issues of resource number, quality and allocation were mentioned across all participant groups with disabled students of all impairment discussing this issue in particularly great detail. Throughout this study, and as Charema (2010) claimed, a lack of resources was cited as a major failing within the inclusive education system. For those with physical disabilities the main issue is a lack of materials to assist with their daily movement and travel to school, as well as within the compound itself. Students and teachers stated sufficient provision of these resources would facilitate free movement around the school compound and easier access to all classrooms and the inclusive teaching happening within them. Participant M1PT articulated the impact equipment such as wheelchairs, crutches and transportation would have, allowing students to leave their homes in the first place; a key component needed to access inclusive education. However, as was outlined by a 3 of the 4 physically disabled participants, provision of these assistive devices is only half the solution. According to all the physically disabled students these items are expensive to maintain and upkeep is difficult due to the nature of the Ethiopian environment and terrain. Without economic assistance for the purchase and maintenance of this equipment students can fall out of education and be excluded on the basis of inaccessibility. Although at individual level equipment and transportation provision may seem economically ineffective, the cost of these services should be countered against that of support required throughout the lifetime of a disabled student that has not accessed inclusive education (Farrell, et al., 1999).

"Most physical problems need wheelchairs to move but there is a shortage of materials to get them to school even if families have decided to send them"

[Translation of Participant M1PT: Male, Parent]

A well-stocked resource centre for the education of those with special educational needs was observed at school 1 (see images below). Images 1 and 2 show some of the resources available for blind and visually impaired students including braille writing materials and a tape recorder. Image 3 illustrates just some of the sign language resources available for the hearing impaired. Not pictured are a large number of other resources including 3D models for explanation of words to students with hearing impairments and dexterity activities for those with physical and intellectual impairments. The availability of these materials demonstrates a commitment to inclusive practices and teaching, including those with hearing impairments that have traditionally been excluded from specialist training. However, Florian and Tilstone (1998) would argue such expenditure to be unnecessary, and investments would be better spent in social change projects. It should also be noted that the quantity and quality of material observed in this centre was not seen in other institution and as such it is likely an exception to the general situation in Gondar's schools.

Image 1: Tape Recorder:

Image 1: Braille Writing Stylus and Board

Image 2: Sign Language Posters

As is the case in the vast majority of Ethiopian schools, all disabled students who participated were educated in special units and centres from grades 1-3. Here they were taught how to use these resources to facilitate their learning and increase their inclusion and ability to engage with teaching. However, teachers and students alike report an insufficient number of resources results in these being unavailable for most from grade 4 onwards; arguably due to budget constraints in the education system preventing further purchases (Alur, 2001). This negatively impacts their engagement and participation in the lessons, and subsequently their inclusion within the teaching learning processes, as outlined by participant M62B below. However, this finding does not explain why these students in particular are left without, nor the impact this has on their educational achievement.

> *"There is material used in grades 1-3. But after grade 4 there is no more materials available which is impacting our education"*
>
> *[Translation of Participant M62B: Male, Grade 6, Blind Student]*

Disabled students, as a result, employ adaptive strategies to mitigate the impact of this absence. With resources lacking in number to such a point that students are either sharing, or as is often the case, learning without these vital materials, impaired students are becoming highly reliant on their peers. For the visually impaired students this means convincing a student without an

impairment to read for them, for those with hearing impairments getting someone to take notes and for the physically impaired getting assistance with movement. To achieve this there needs to be positive social attitudes and cooperation towards these students' inclusion, as well as peers having the time to help; in some cases the disposable income of students and their families has an influence in gaining assistance. It was suggested by participant M94W that some students are made to pay for these assistive services by their peers, furthering the economic hardship experienced by many disabled children (which is explored in more detail in chapter 5.2).

"They have to give their book and money to get information recorded. They need a tape recorder"

[Translation of Participant M94W: Male, Grade 9, Without Disability]

The lack of appropriate resources is not only an issue within inclusive schools, but also within government policy and implementation. This is particularly noticeable in curriculum specific textbooks, an issue first drawn to the attention of the researcher by participant F4NT [Female, Special Needs Teacher].   The MoE creates textbooks for each subject in their compulsory curriculum; however none of these are produced or provided in braille format, supporting Charema's (2010) claim of insufficient funding being channelled towards inclusive education in the developing world. As a result of these materials not being provided by the government, visually impaired students have to (as outlined above) rely upon sighted classmates to read to them and/or purchase expensive braille textbooks on the private market.

From data analysis it was identified, students with visual impairments experience greater negative impact of a lack of appropriate resources than any other group spoken to. Within all studied schools both students (with and without disabilities) and teachers reported a general shortage of braille writing materials, braille textbooks and/or tape recorders. All of these materials, in appropriate numbers, can significantly increase student participation within the classroom and inclusion in the taught material. This data supports   Eleweke and Rodda's (2002) view that a lack of suitable infrastructure is impacting on inclusion in many countries. As many visually impaired students are unable to read and make notes, tape recorders are vital to their learning and understanding; however the machines currently in place are old, heavy and require mains power for use (see image 1 above). This type of equipment is impractical in an environment where

navigation around the compound's uneven surfaces is already challenging and in a location where power can and regularly does go off at any point.

(5.2) Economic

As well as to the resource allocation detailed in 5.1, students in Gondar face other economic barriers to inclusive education. A number of these issues can be attributed to a lack of appropriate and accessible schools within areas local to the students that require them. Many of Gondar's disabled student population have moved from their rural localities to the city for their education. This move often presents economic challenges to students being unable to pay for rent or food due to isolation from their family support systems. Disabled participants described high living cost experienced in the urban area resulting in some peers having to return to their rural homes, leaving schools which are able to provide inclusive education. Disabled participants stated students will often be forced to self-exclude themselves from lessons in order to earn money for living costs; something which signifies the failure of the system to include and reduce the conditions of poverty for these students (Braunholtz, 2007). Although this exclusion may be out of necessity it may also be due to a family preference. A total of 21 participants across all study groups recounted how many families believe their disabled children will not achieve in later life, as was suggested by Parens and Asch (2000); as such it is perceived that their time would be better served begging and therefore earning money, rather than in school. Much of this comes from society's negative view of disability and the role someone with impairment has within the work force (UNICEF, 2013).

Government policy has taken some steps to mitigate the impact these economic struggles have upon disabled student's education by the allocation of 'per dime'; a monthly payment for those disabled students enrolled and attending schools. However, as was reported by participant F5NT [Female, Special Needs Teacher] this allocation is neither done equally nor is sufficient. The amount allocated varies according to your disability, with visually impaired students receiving the most. Participants did not directly state reasons for this, but it should be noted that there is a large number of disabled people residing in Gondar and the materials they need for mobility and reading are expensive. As a result of the insufficient amount provided many students are living in poor conditions or skipping school to earn enough for their living costs (as exampled by the quote below from Participant F61B). However, it is important to acknowledge that, although not perfect, this programme represents a big step towards equitable access to inclusive education.

"300 Birr is not enough for anything. Just renting is 1000 Birr. Sometimes I think about leaving education to work"

[Translation of Participant F61B: Female, Grade 6, Blind Student]

(5.3) Social:

As has been outlined in chapter 5.2 the majority of participant definitions and views of disability focused on a person's ability to work. Within these views those with physical disabilities were, in general, viewed in a more positive light due to their ability to work and earn an income more easily than that of their visually and hearing impaired peers.

Students without disability in Gondar were found assisting those with disabilities in regards to navigation, travel and reading of materials, in exchange for help with their own academic work (see quote from participant M113W below) This behaviour suggests that the inclusion of disabled students in childhood education could go a long way to reducing exclusionary practices and community attitudes in later life (Srivastava, et al., 2015). The inter-peer cooperation also suggests traditionally held positions of avoidance and curses are diminishing within younger generations (Barnes & Mercer, 2011).

"They [disabled students] have even more knowledge than some normal students so they help us as much as well help them"

[Translation from Participant M113W: Male, Grade 11, Student without Disability]

Similarly, students without disabilities spoke well of their disabled peers, and according to Reicher (2010) such positive socialisation is one of the most important, but unreported functions, of inclusion. Many of these students discussed how the disabled students in school are often higher academic achievers than those without impairment; although data demonstrated this was largely in relation to those with a visual disability. This positive view their peers and the accounts of reciprocal assistance dispute Lepage et al's (1998) views of limited socialisation between these two groups. However, at times, the disabled students' academic achievement has created issues in the school community. Participant M72B stated:

"Sometimes normal children are worried we may become more clever [sic] so will demoralise us and not read to us"

[Translation of Participant M72B: Male, Grade, Blind Student]

The majority of participants, both students and teachers alike, argued that the traditionally negative view of those with disability is beginning to change. According to participants M62W, F61W, M74W and M1E amongst others, where children were previously hidden, many are now being enrolled in schools and integrating in the community. According to Goodley (2011), and the majority of participants, this change in view has occurred due to a positive stance on disability taken by the church, media and government. Whilst the demonstrated progress is good, both UNICEF (2013) and research participants highlighted much is still to be achieved with regards to social attitudes, particularly in rural areas.

"In town people have good impressions of disabled people. If we help them we will be bless by god but rural areas have low awareness. They don't care and will say bad things"
[Translation of Participant M92W: Male, Grade 9, Student without Disability]

(5.4) Training:

It was stated by the education officers that the "lack of skilled man power" [Participant M1E] was the biggest problem facing inclusive education in Gondar. Mittler (2000) argues this is not an issue in inclusive education as the vast majority of teachers already possess the skills and knowledge needed prior to training; all that is needed is a boost in confidence to effectively implement them.

This lack of trained teachers becomes particularly problematic for those students who have a hearing impairment as communication is limited without teachers trained in sign language. Similarly, students with visual disabilities struggle to be included in the learning if teachers have not been trained to communicate via written notes to these students. Although teachers are being trained in special needs teaching, the great shortage means the majority of these are placed in the specialist units. The lack of inclusive teaching that results may also be a reason for the high grade 4 dropout observed in the data provided by the education office (see appendix 2), with students leaving when they can no longer understand the content.

Not only is the teacher training provision insufficient, the issue is exacerbated by increasingly constrained economic budgets and the subsequent resource limitations (Walton, 2015) as outlined in chapter 5.1. Even if teachers are trained in the use of sign language, braille and tape recorders in their inclusive classes, the lack of these items makes the training ineffective and unusable, and inclusive teaching practices suffer.

"We get good training but there are no resources to implement it so it is quickly forgotten"

[Translation of Participant M2ET: Male, English Teacher]

Many of the teachers without specialist training reported being unsure of how to manage disabled children and were unable to teach disabled students in their class. Whereas, SEN trained teachers displayed a much more positive attitude towards disabled students and their capacity to learn in an inclusive environment (as demonstrated in a comparison of from participants F1G and F1AT, seen below). This finding supports Sharma et al's (2008) ideas that with training comes more positive teacher attitudes. Implementation of appropriate training would not only improve the inclusion of these students within education, but would also improve the wider social understanding of disability for teachers, students, parents and all those they come into contact with.

"We are not doing special support of different teaching. Students are helping them better than we are helping them. Teachers don't want to examine them because it takes longer and we get bored so we get the other children to examine them"

[Translation of Participant F1G: Female, Geography Teacher, No Specialist Training]

In my inclusive classes I am running the lesson equally for everyone. If I am using books or notes on the board I am getting students to read for them. I give everyone equal opportunity to answer the questions. I treat everyone equally.

[Translation of Participant F1AT: Female, Amharic Teacher, NGO Trained]

(5.5) Physical Accessibility:

The physical accessibility of the school compound and local area is key for the inclusion of students with physical and visual disabilities in particular. One of the biggest issues observed by the researcher was the uneven roads and surfaces that led up to the 3 study schools. Although schools 1 and 3 were more accessible than the hilly, muddy and rocky terrain surrounding school 2, they also had their issues. Most classrooms studied had at least one small step to cross for access to the compound/classrooms, or as was more common a set of stairs (as exampled in image 4). Additionally, the compounds, whilst being predominantly flat were covered with tree

roots and rocks (see example image 5 below). If these challenging environmental conditions were corrected, or appropriate architectural measure put in place, disabled students in Gondar would witness increased inclusion within schooling (Watermeyer, 2006).

Image 4: Classroom Entrance at School 1

Image 5: Ground Conditions at School 1

However, participant provided data suggested this was not considered an issue for disabled students, despite academic argument suggesting it to be one of the largest barriers to inclusive education (Eleweke & Rodda, 2002). Visually impaired students reported being taught a class known as 'mobility' during grades 1-3 and this, coupled with their familiarity with the compound, resulted in movement within the school being relatively easy. Both visually and physically impaired students reported the main accessibility issues being in areas outside the school compound. As a result, local community assistance is essential for both groups. The commute to the school's location was cited as the biggest barrier to attendance; with long distances, busy roads and constructions altering the routes being most commonly mentioned. This finding corroborates the argument that if the commute is inaccessible any attempts made in school to include disabled students will be worthless (Gal, et al., 2010). If the community does not value or accept these disabled students, they will not assist and as such these children will be unable to attend the classes, no matter how inclusive the teaching in them is.

"The first time they don't know where the school and road is, so need support from normal people.

If they don't get support in this time they will stop attending school"

[Translation of Participant M53B: Male, Grade 5, Blind Student]

(5.6) Teacher Attitudes:

As discussed above, the responses of the specially trained teachers, in comparison with the mainstream teachers, was significantly more positive (see chapter 5.4 for further details). This finding suggests increased and higher quality training will bring about positive attitudinal trends within the education system. However currently, the attitude of teachers towards disability inclusion is highly variable. Whilst it was stated by the majority of disabled participants that their teachers use inclusive practices, encourage student involvement and give extra support; others were reported to be leaving their student's educational needs unmet. This is most clearly demonstrated in a quote from participant F1G who stated that teachers are unwilling to do many tasks that would benefit disabled student due to the extra time this may take:

"We are not doing special support or different teaching. Students are helping them better than we are helping them. Teachers don't want to examine them because it takes longer and we get bored so we get the other children to examine them instead"

[Translation of Participant F1G: Female, Geography Teacher, No Specialist Training]

Similarly, in discussions with deaf students, they reported many of their teachers being unwilling to spend extra time on ensuring understanding; preferring instead to finish the lesson as quickly as possible. Although it is difficult to explain the reasoning behind this for all individuals, participant F1G [Female, Geography Teacher] stated that "it takes longer and we get bored". Although this was discussed in relation to examinations, this attitude will arguably carry across. These views demonstrate a need to challenge the attitudes of teachers; which could be achieved through additional professional and/or societal training surrounding awareness, the needs of disabled people and their rights within society and education. However, it should be noted that the majority of students interviewed did give a generally positive report of their teacher's attitudes.

(5.7) Institutional:

The Ethiopian MoE's official policy, outlined in ESDP V (Ministry of Education, 2015), is one of

inclusive education, and as such it could be assumed that inclusive teaching has been achieved (see appendix 3 for further details). However, interactions with all teachers in this study uncovered that, although this is a stance that is written into official policy, there is no support for the educators to implement policy and as such inclusive education is difficult to achieve (Clough & Corbett, 2006). The difficulties include the lack of inclusive curriculum materials outline in chapter 5.1.

"When the government writes an educational plan it is based on normal students so it is difficult to make these work for disabled students"

[Translation of Participant F3NT: Female, Special Needs Teacher]

Despite an official stance of inclusive education, the system that is actually present is one of partial inclusion (Wilson, 2000), as demonstrated in the themes discussed above. Whilst the majority of advocates, including Lindsay (2003), would argue this exclusion is detrimental to educational, social and personal development; participant opinion aligns with that of theorists Hornby (1999) and Wilson (2000). Although it results in an alternative experience of inclusive education, participants exclusively stated that complete inclusion occurring only after grade 3 has had great benefits. In these grades students learn vital skills such as mobility, braille techniques and sign language, which benefits learning and social progression. However, this is not a provision for those with physical disabilities who have to personally learn and adapt their mobility. Whilst their skills development has undoubtedly increased the success of later inclusion, the resource issues outlined in chapter 5.1 impact significantly and results in students continuing to struggle to be involved in inclusive teaching.

Although a small number of universities and colleges are now offering teacher education targeted at special needs (UNESCO, 2015); the vast majority of teacher training programmes have no mention of it. Education officers and UNESCO (2015) cite the reason for limited government training as the high cost of training all educational personnel; especially in the current global economic climate. As a result, teachers are left without the knowledge or methods needed to implement inclusive teaching, despite any positive attitudes they may hold towards it or the education of disabled students as a whole. Knowledge regarding the practice of inclusive methods is lacking to such a point, that participant M1G [Male, Geography Teacher] was unaware of

government policy for this; and did not know how to implement such ideas.

Discussions with disabled students cited the education commencement age limit as a major cause of exclusion. For many educational institutions the limit for beginning grade 1 is 14 years; although this arguably excludes those who have been unable to access education in their early childhood. Lack of access may have been due to family opinion, social attitudes, economic constraints or distance from a school.

"When you first register they do not expect you to be more than 14. If their age is above the limit because of access problems before, they will have to become beggars"
[Translation of Participant M53B: Male, Grade 5, Blind Student]

(5.8) Gender:

Academic literature widely suggests that female disabled students will experience a double disadvantage within education (Rousso, 2003; Okkolin, et al., 2010). However, data collected from education officers, disabled students, students without disability and teachers alike suggest this not to be the case. The overwhelming majority of participants reported there to be no difference in the inclusion of girls with disabilities in the school or in the community, with participant F3NT (Female, Special Needs Teacher) agreeing with the statement of the education officers, that females may now be prioritised and included more than boys with disability. A number of participants state that the greatest reason for exclusion was not the gender of the person with a disability, but the disability itself and what this represents within the community (as seen in below quote from participant F11B). This is not to say there are no issues, as the experiences of a whole sub-group cannot be summed up by a small portion of the population (Barnartt, 2010).

"We are equal. The biggest difference is being disabled or not"
[Translation of Participant F11B: Female, Grade 11, Blind Student]

Although education officers from the Gondar office stated that girls are equally or possibly even more represented within inclusive education, the data provided suggests a different reality.
As can be seen in table 3, there are significant gender differences in the number of visually impaired students enrolled in education in Gondar. The disparity between the number of male and female students enrolled in education can also be seen in Link Ethiopia's disability programme,

with 77 boys compared to only 34 girls taking part. However, although a small gap remains within the category of physical disability, this is not as great in number and demonstrates little significance. This contradiction with the stance could demonstrate that visual impairments may be found more prominently within the young male population; or that girls are still being hidden away from the community at a greater rate (Lamichhane, 2015). However, a lack of accurate data in Ethiopia regarding disability prevalence makes stating these with certainty difficult.

Grade Level	Visually Impaired			Physically Impaired		
	Male	Female	All	Male	Female	All
KG Level	22	3	25	4	6	10
1	24	5	29	6	6	12
2	12	4	16	5	5	10
3	8	4	12	6	6	12
4	9	0	9	10	2	12
5	4	3	7	2	3	5
6	7	4	11	1	1	2
7	6	2	8	2	3	5
8	9	2	11	2	0	2
9	6	6	12	6	6	12
10	11	7	18	7	5	12
11	8	7	15	1	3	4
12	12	3	15	2	4	6
Total	138	50	188	54	50	104

Table 3: Children Enrolled in Gondarian Schools 2015/16 (Gondar Education Office, 2015)

A small number of responses detail a variation in the experience of male and female disabled students which may represent a reality unconsidered by the general population. *Participant M3ET [Male, Amharic Teacher]* highlighted the difficulties female disabled students often face in asking for help when they have not been fully included, or have not understood an element of the class. This participant addressed the fact whilst this could be a gender difference it is more likely to be a result of societal views towards women and disability, as argued by Rousso (2003). This idea was supported by another teacher who stated traditional values teach women to *"just listen and not have opinions" [Translation of Participant F3ET: Female, English Teacher].*

As a result of this culturally controlled experience of education, some teachers may begin to teach with female disabled students at the forefront of their focus. Whilst this goes some way to mitigate the impact upon these girls' education, it was argued by some male disabled students, including participant M53B quoted below, that this can result in the situation moving too far the other way. This finding contradicts the ideas of Stromquist (2013) who suggests that throughout education males get preferential treatment, resource allocation and support.

"Teachers give priority to female blind students. I would prefer to be equal but they think girls will face more problems"

[Translation of Participant M53B: Male, Grade 5, Blind Student]

These accounts of varied gendered inclusion experiences represent a contradiction to the general community opinion. This may be due to the differences of individual experience, or the result of a difficulty in considering intersecting issues of oppression (Adams, et al., 2016). Although it is likely that gender, disability and inclusive education intersect to create greater oppression for disabled girls, people may only be able to interpret the difficulties faced by the disabled group as a whole, as these are more easily observed.

(6) Conclusion

The overarching aim of this research project was:

To investigate experiences of and barriers to inclusive education for children with physical, sight and hearing impairments in the Gondar region of Northern Ethiopia.

The conclusions of this study are drawn from thematic analysis of the experiences and understandings of those stakeholders who participated in the study. Therefore, while these can be used as a basis of understanding and hypotheses about Gondar, the following conclusions should only be used to represent the participant's truths, and cannot indicate with certainty the reality of all disabled students in all locations (Singal & Muthukrishna, 2014).

(6.1) Barriers

The findings identify a number of barriers to inclusive education for disabled students in the Gondar region. Responses from currently enrolled disabled students identify poor provision of resources, materials and assistive devices to be their greatest issue. It is evident from interactions with disabled students and their specially trained teachers, that the provision of appropriate and sufficient resources will make a large difference in the lives and educational progression of these students, an idea best exemplified by participant M1NT who stated:

"Using resources make what they learn easier to understand and more practical for them"

[Translation of Participant M1NT: Male, Special Needs Teacher]

The lack of resources not only reduces inclusion and engagement of disabled students in lessons, but also impacts on students without disability who have to take time out of their own study to read information to their peers. This finding echoes that of Charema (2010) in that: poor resource allocation and funding negatively impact on individual student inclusion.

For longer lasting and large scale changes to be felt, institutional change is required (Mundy, 2007). A change in the official training programme is needed to ensure all teachers have appropriate knowledge and understanding of inclusive practices for all ages, abilities and genders. Increase in trained personnel would then, as evidenced in this study, improve overall teacher attitudes and subsequently the visibility of disabled students in the local community; as has been suggested by Florian and Tilstone (1998). Institutional policy would need to include assurances of resource provision, alongside improved training, because (as evidenced in this research) these

provisions are interconnected and essential to ensure wholescale effective implementation. However, such a radical overhaul would be costly and, as outlined by Porter (2001) and UNESCO (2013), this money will be difficult to access in developing countries and post-financial crisis world.

Inclusive education is important for economic development and states owe all residents high quality education (Porter, 2001). Although Ethiopia has subscribed to a number of international policies, accountability for inclusive education implementation is often difficult due to economic and social constraints. As such global commitments and national policy are irrelevant unless the inclusive education they outline can be implemented and integrated throughout the system (Clough & Corbett, 2006).

(6.2) Experience

Data gathered in this research project suggests that traditionally held opinions regarding disability, such as those stated by Miles (1995), are beginning to change. In urban areas such as Gondar a combination of government, church and media awareness projects are supporting disabled people to integrate into society and resultant positive opinion shift regarding their education. This has subsequently created positive individual experiences of inclusive education within schools; with teachers and students alike assisting and including disabled students in educational activities. However, it should be noted that much of this change centres on those with physical or visual disabilities, likely due to their ability to work and the high number and visibility of those with visual problems in the community. Whilst it is important to provide inclusive education for these students, it may leave those with less obvious impairments, such as hearing, unsupported in the teaching.

As a region in a developing country, many experiences of inclusive education in Gondar have groundings in the economy. The research data indicates the extent to which students can access and integrate into inclusive education can depend upon the economic situation of immediate family, as was suggested by Mantey (2015). This income can impact transportation, assistive devices, and assistance, with higher incomes allowing the purchase of these items or services and subsequently educational inclusion being easier. However, the negative economic experiences of some students have been alleviated by the introduction of government 'per dime' payments for enrolment. Although participants reported this figure being too low, it has arguably gone a long way to providing a means for students to access inclusive education.

In terms of gender variations, initial findings suggest that the predicted occurrence of double discrimination for girls with disability is not found in Gondar. However, further discussions in the research indicate that whilst not widespread, some girls with disability are being overlooked. It can be suggested that this is due to societal values instilled in girls (King & Hill, 1997) which often deter them from asking for educational help; compounded with the self-esteem and teaching attitudes that result from disability (Rousso, 2003).

(6.3) Further Research and Implications

The above findings and conclusions will be distributed to Link Ethiopia who will subsequently work to improve the scope and outreach of their current Mandela disability projects. Although the results of this research project will not be directly disseminated to the research participants, the impact should be felt, or at least observed by the stakeholders who participated.

As suggested by Booth et al (2003), inclusive education cannot be considered without an understanding of exclusion. Therefore, further research recommendations centre on the addition of those disabled children not accessing school into the study to fully understand the reasons for exclusion. Access to these participants has challenges and they were unable to be included in this project due to time constraints and the difficulties of recruiting participants. Longer studies should spend time integrating themselves into the community and identifying these potential participants. This recommendation is important in order to gain a full understanding of barriers being faced; the experiences and opinions of those that are yet to overcome them are vital to provide that understanding. As well as this, further and deeper research is needed to understand the specific needs and barriers faced by those with hearing impairments, as these students appear relatively unsupported in comparison to those with visual disabilities.

It is imperative that inclusive education is implemented for all, as it not only improves individual lives through positive social relations and poverty reduction (Braunholtz, 2007), but also the development of the nation as a whole (University of Leicester, 2016). A cooperative and educated population will be able to economically contribute and support developmental progress, both for the individuals and the country as a whole (University of Leicester, 2016). Without large steps being made in this field by policy makers and education practitioners, disabled students in Ethiopia will continue to face barriers to achieving their right to inclusive education and the benefits to the population as a whole will not be realised.

(7) References

ACPF, 2011. *Children with Disabilities in Ethiopia: The Hidden Reality,* Addis Ababa: The African Child Policy Forum.

Adams, M., Bell, L., Goodman, D. & Joshi, K., 2016. *Teaching for Diversity and Social Justice.* 3rd ed. New York: Routledge.

Alur, M., 2001. Some Cultural and Moral Implications of Inclusive Education in India - A Personal View. *Journal of Moral Education,* 30(3).

Barnartt, S., 2010. Disability as a Fluid State. *Research in Social Science and Disability,* 5(1).

Barnes, C. & Mercer, G., 2011. *Exploring Disability.* 2nd ed. Cambridge: Polity Press.

Barr, O., McConkey, R. & McConaghie, J., 2003. Views of People with Learning Difficulties about Current and Future Accommodation: The Use of Focus Groups to Promote Discussion. *Disability & Society,* 18(5), pp. 577-597.

Bauduy, L., 2008. *The Educational System of Ethiopia,* 12th Annual Conference: International Education Association of South Afirca - IEASA.

Berman, R. & Tyyska, V., 2011. A Critical Reflection on the Use of Translators/Interpreters in a Qualitative Cross Language Research Project. *International Journal of Qualitative Methods,* 10(2), pp. 178-190.

Bernardi, R. & Guptil, S., 2008. Social Desir-ability Response Bias, Gender and Factors Influencing Organizational Commitment: An International Study. *Journal of Business Ethics,* Volume 81, pp. 797-780.

Bloom, D., Canning, D. & Chan, K., 2006. Higher Education and Economic Development in Africa. In: J. Mckenzie, T. Chataika, E. Swart & M. Lyner-Cleophas, eds. *Access to education in Africa: responding to the United Nations Convention on the Rights of Persons with Disabilities.* s.l.:Disability & Society.

Booth, T., 2005. Keeping the Future Alive: Putting Inclusive Values into Action. *Forum,* 47(2), pp. 151-158.

Booth, T., Nes, K. & Strømstad, M., 2003. *Developing Inclusive Teacher Education,* New York: Routledge Falmer.

Braunholtz, T., 2007. *Chronic Poverty: An Introduction: Policy Brief.* [Online]
Available at: http://www.chronicpoverty.org
[Accessed 1 August 2016].

Broadhead, R. & Rist, R., 1976. Gatekeepers and the Social Control of Social Research. *Society for the Study of Social Problems,* 23(3), pp. 325-336.

Brod, M. & Feinbloom, R., 1990. Feasibility and Efficacy of Verbal Consents. *Research on Aging,* 12(3), pp. 364-372.

Bryman, A., 2001. *Social Research Methods.* Oxford: Oxford University Press.

Bryman, A., 2001. *Social Research Methods.* Oxford: Oxford University Press.

Central Statistical Agency, 2007. *Survery Report(s).* [Online]
Available at: http://www.csa.gov.et/index.php/2013-02-20-14-51-51/2013-04-01-11-53-00/census-2007
[Accessed 10 August 2016].

Charema, J., 2010. Inclusive Education in Developing Countries in the Sub-Saharan Africa: From Theory to Practice. *International Journal of Special Education,* 25(1), pp. 87-93.

Chataika, T., McKenzie, J., Swart, E. & Cleophas, M., 2012. Access to Education in Africa: Responding to the United Nations Convention on the Rights of Persons with Disabilities. *Disability & Society,* 27(3), pp. 385-398.

Clough, P. & Corbett, J., 2006. *Theories of Inclusive Education: A Student's Guide.* London: Paul Chapman Publishing.

Creswell, J., 2014. *Research Design: Qualitative, Quantitative & Mixed Methods Approaches.* 4th ed. London: SAGE Publications.

Dalton, D. & Ortegren, M., 2011. Gender Differences in Ethics Research: The Importance of Controlling for the Social Desirability Response Bias. *Journal of Business Ethics,* 103(1), pp. 73-93.

Davaninezhad, F., 2009. Cross-Cultural Communication and Translation. *Translation Journal,* 13(4).

Davis, L., 2006. *The Disability Studies Reader.* 2nd ed. London: Routledge.

Denscombe, M., 2014. *The Good Research Guide: For Small-Scale Social Research Projects.* Maidenhead: Open University Press.

Denzin, N. & Lincoln, Y., 2011. *The SAGE Handbook of Qualitative Research.* 4th ed. London: SAGE Publications.

Desai, V. et al., 2008. *Doing Development/Global South Dissertations: A Guide for Undergraduates.* IBG: Developing Areas Research Grouop (DARG).

Desai, V. & Potter, R., 2006. *Doing Development Research.* London: SAGE Publications.

Devlieger, P., Miranda-Galarza, B., Brown, S. & Strickfaden, M., 2016. *Rethinking Disability: World Perspectives in Culture and Society.* Antwerp: Garant Publishers.

DFID, 2004. *Education for Children with Disabilities - Improving Access and Quality: Guidance Note.* [Online]
Available at:
https://www.gov.uk/government/uploads/system/uploads/attachment_data/file/67664/edu-chi-disabil-guid-note.pdf
[Accessed 7 April 2016].

Dillon, R., Mersha, Z. & Megerssa, D., 2014. *Disability Project: Year One Report,* Gondar: Link Ethiopia.

Eleweke, J. & Rodda, M., 2002. The Challenge of Enhancing Inclusive Education in Developing Countries. *International Journal of Inclusive Education,* 6(2), pp. 113-126.

Emmett, T. & Alant, E., 2006. Women and Disability: Exploring the Interface of Multiple Disadvantage. *Development Southern Africa,* 23(4), pp. 445-460.

Encyclopedia of Britannica, 2016. *Gonder: Ethiopia.* [Online]
Available at: https://www.britannica.com/place/Gonder
[Accessed 10 August 2016].

Engelbrecht, P., Oswald, M. & Folin, K., 2006. Promoting the Implementation of Inclusive Education in Primary Schools in South Africa. *British Journal of Special Education,* 33(3), pp. 121-129.

Erevelles, N., 2011. 'Coming our Crip' in Inclusive Schools. *Teachers College Review,* 113(10), pp. 2155-2185.

Evans, P., 1999. Globalisation and Cultural Transmission: the role of international agencies in developing inclusive practice. In: *World Year Book of Education: Inclusive Education.* London: Kogan Page, pp. 229-237.

Farrell, P., Balshaw, M. & Polat, F., 1999. *The Management, Role and Training of Learning Support Assistants: Research Report.* London: DfEE.

Florian, L. & Tilstone, C., 1998. *Planning Inclusive Practice.* London: Routledge.

Flowerdew, R. & Martin, D., 2005. *Methods in Human Geography: A Guide for Students Doing a Research Project.* Harlow: Prentice Hall.

Flynn, R. & Nitsch, K., 1980. *Normalization, Social Integration and Community Services.* Austin: Pro-Ed Inc.

Gabel, S. & Peters, S., 2004. Presage of a Paradigm Shift? Beyond the Social Model of Disability Toward Resistance Theories of Disability. *Disability & Society,* 19(6), pp. 585-600.

Gal, E., Schreuner, N. & Engel-Yeger, B., 2010. Inclusion of Children with Disabilities: Teachers' Attitude and Requirement for Environmental Accommodations. *International Journal of Special Education,* 25(2), pp. 89-99.

Goodley, D., 2011. *Disability Studies: An Interdisciplinary Introduction.* London: SAGE Publications.

Grady , C., 2010. Money for Research Participation: Does It Jeopardize Informed Consent?. *The American Journal of Bioethics,* 1(2), pp. 40-44.

Gregory, D. et al., 2009. *The Dictionary of Human Geography.* Hoboken: Wiley-Blackwell.

Gregory, I., 2003. *Ethics in Research.* London: Continuum.

Groce, N., 1999. *An Overview of Young People Living with Disabilities: Their Needs and Their Rights.* New York: UNICEF.

Hasting, R. & Oakford, S., 2003. Student Teachers' Attitudes Towards the Inclusion of Children with Special Needs. *Educational Psychology in Practice,* 23(1), pp. 87-94.

Hornby, G., 1999. Inclusion or Delusion: Can One Size Fit All?. *Support for Learning,* 14(4), pp. 152-157.

Ingstad, B. & Whyte, S., 1995. *Disability and Culture.* Los Angeles: University of California Press.

International Labor Organization, 2004. *Ethiopia Country Profile: Employment of People with Disabilities: The Impact of Legislation (East Africa),* Geneva: International Labor Office.

Kearns, R., 2005. Knowing Seeing? Undertaking Observational Research. In: I. Hay, ed. *Qualitative Research Methods in Human Geography.* 3rd ed. Ontario: Oxford University Press, pp. 241-258.

King, E. & Hill, M., 1997. *Women's Education in Developing Countries: Barriers, Benefits and Policies,* Baltimore: World Bank.

Kitchin, R. & Tate, N., 2000. *Conducting Research in Human Geography: Theory, Methodology and Practice.* 3rd ed. Harlow: Prentice Hall.

Kitzinger, J., 1995. Qualitative Research: Introducing Focus Groups. *British Medical Journal,* 311(7000), pp. 299-302.

Kristensen, K., Omagor-Loican, M., Onen, N. & Okot, D., 2006. Opportunities for Inclusion: The Education of Learners with Special Educational Needs and Disabilities in Special Schools in Uganda. *British Journal of Special Education,* 33(3), pp. 139-147.

Krueger, R. & Casey, M., 2015. *Focus Groups: A Practical Guide for Applied Research.* 5th ed. New Delhi: SAGE Publications.

Lamichhane, K., 2015. *Disability, Education and Employment in Developing Countries: From Charity to Investment,* Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Lang, R., 2001. *The Development and Critique of the Social Model of Disability,* Norwich: University of East Anglia.

Lawson, A. & Gooding, C., 2005. *Disability Rights in Europe: From Theory to Practice.* Oxford: Hart Publishing.

Lepage, C., Noreau, L. & Bernard, P., 1998. Profile of Handicap Situations in Children with Cerebal Palsy. *Scandanavian Journal of Rehabilitation Medecine ,* Volume 30, pp. 263-272.

Lindsay, G., 2003. Inclusive Education: A Critical Perspective. *British Journal of Special Education,* Volume 30, pp. 3-12.

Link Ethiopia, 2013a. *Link Ethiopia Project: Disability Widening Access and Participation,* Gondar: Link Ethiopia.

Link Ethiopia, 2013b. *Link Ethiopia Project: Disability Widening Access and Participation,* Gondar: Link Ethiopia.

Link Ethiopia, 2016. *Why Education?.* [Online]
Available at: https://www.linkethiopia.org/our-impact/why-education/
[Accessed 2 August 2016].

Litosseliti, L., 2003. *Using Focus Groups in Research.* London: Continuum.

Little, D., 2010. Sit Home and Collect the Check: Race, Class and the Social Construction of Disability Identity. In: *Disability as a Fluid State: Research in Social Science and Disability.* Bingley: Emerald Group, p. 183.

Mantey, E., 2015. Accessibility to Inclusive Education for Children with Disabilities: a case study of two selected areas in Ghana. *Deutsche National Bibliothek,* Volume University of Siegen.

Marshall, C. & Rossman, G., 2006. *Designing Qualitative Research.* 4th ed. London: SAGE Publications.

Marshall, P., 2007. *Ethical Challenges in Study Design and Informed Consent for Health Research in Resource Poor-Settings.* Special Topics No.5 ed. Geneva: World Health Organization.

McDonald, K., Keys, C. & Henry, D., 2008. Gatekeepers of Science: Attitudes Toward the Research Participation of Adults with Intellectual Disability. *American Journal of Mental Retardation,* 113(6), pp. 466-478.

McLafferty, I., 2004. Focus Group Interviews as a Data Collecting Strategy. *Journal of Advanced Nursing,* 48(2), pp. 187-194.

Miles , M., 1995. Disability in an Eastern Religious Context: Historical Perspectives. *Disability & Society,* 10(1), pp. 49-69.

Ministry of Education, 2012. *Special Needs/Inclusive Education Strategy,* Addis Ababa: MoE.

Ministry of Education, 2015. *Education Sector Development Programme V (ESDP V),* Addis Ababa: Federal Ministry of Education.

Minou, T., 2011. New Trend in Education of Children with Disabilities. *Procedia Social and Behavioural Sciences,* Volume 15, pp. 1955-1959.

Mitchell, D., 2004. *Special Educational Needs and Inclusive Education: Major Themes in Education.* 2nd ed. Oxon: Routledge Falmer.

Mittler, P., 2000. *Working Towards Inclusive Education.* London: Fulton Publishers.

Mittler, P., 2000. *Working Towards Inclusive Education: Social Contexts.* London: David Fulton.

Mmbaga, D., 2002. *The Inclusive Classroom in Tanzania: Dream or Reality.* Stockholm: University of Stockholm: Institute of International Education.

Moodley, J. & Graham, L., 2015. The Importance of Intersectionality in Disability and Gender Studies. *Disability & Gender,* 29(2), pp. p24-33.

Moore, L. & Miller, M., 1999. Initiating research with doubly vulnerable populations. *Journal of Advanced Nursing,* 30(5), pp. 1034-1040.

Morris, J., 1991. *Pride Against Prejudice.* London: The Women's Press.

Mundy, K., 2007. Education for All: Paradoxes and Prospects of a Global Promise. *International Perspectives on Education and Society,* Volume 8, pp. 1-30.

Ngui, E., Khasakhala, L., Ndetei, D. & Roberts, L., 2010. Mental Disorders, Health Inequalities and Ethics: A Global Perspective. *International Review of Psychiatry,* 22(3), pp. 235-244.

Nind, M., 2008. Conducting Qualitative Research with People with Learning Communication and other Disabilities: Methodological Challenges. *ESRC National Centre for Research Methods,* Volume 12.

Okkolin, M., Lehtomaki, E. & Bhalalusesa, E., 2010. The Success Education Sector Development in Tanzania - Comment on Gender Balance and Inclusive Education. *Gender and Edducation,* 22(1), pp. 63-71.

Oliver, M., 1990. *The Individual and Social Models of Disability. Paper presented at Joint Workshop of the Living Options Group and the Research Unit of the Royal College of Physicians,* s.l.: s.n.

Opretti, R. & Belalcazar, C., 2008. Trends in Inclusive Education at Regional and Interregional Levels: Issues and Challenges. *Prospects,* pp. 113-135.

Parens, E. & Asch, A., 2000. *Prenatal Testing and Disability Rights.* Washington DC: Georgetown University Press.

Peters, S., 2003. *Inclusive Education: Achieving Education for All by Including Those with Disabilities and Special Education Needs,* World Bank: Disbaility Group.

Phillips, R. & Johns, J., 2012. *Fieldwork for Human Geography.* London: SAGE Publications.

Pijl, J., Meijer, C. & Hegarty, S., 2002. *Inclusive Education: A Global Agenda.* 2nd ed. London: Routledge.

Polat, F., 2011. Inclusion in Education: A Step Towards Social Justice. *International Journal of Educational Development,* Volume 31, pp. 50-58.

Porter, G., 2001. *Disability and Inclusive Education. A Paper Prepared for the Inter-American Development Bank Seminar on Incluison and Disability,* Santiago, Chile, March 16 2001: s.n.

Prota, M., 2012. *Childhood Disability: Issues and Implications for an Effective Rehabilitation Process.* Milan: EDUCatt.

Quinn, J., 2015. *Education for Children with Disabilities in Ethiopia.* [Online]
Available at: http://borgenproject.org/education-children-disabilities-ethiopia/
[Accessed 10 August 2016].

Reicher, H., 2010. Building Inclusive Education on Social and Emotional Learning: Challenges and Perspectives - A Review. *International Journal of Inclusive Education,* 14(3), pp. 213-246.

Riddell, S., Tinklin, T. & Wilson, A., 2005. *Disabled Students in Higher Education: Perspectves on Widening Access and Chaning Policy.* New York: Routledge.

Rieser, R., 2012. *Implementing Inclusive Education: A Commonwealth Guide to Implementing Article 24 of the UN Convention on the Rights of Persons with Disabilities.* 2nd ed. London: Commonwealth Secretariat.

Ritchie, J., Lewis, J., McNaughton Nicholls, C. & Ormston, R., 2014. *Qualitative Research Practice.* 2nd ed. London: SAGE Publications.

Rose, P., 2009. NGO Provision of Basic Education: Alternative or Complementary Service Delivery to Support Access to the Excluded?. *Compare,* 39(2), pp. 219-233.

Rousso, H., 2001. *Strong Proud Sisters: Girls and Young Women with Disabilities.* Washington DC: Center for Women Policy Studies.

Rousso, H., 2003. Education for All: A Gender and Disability Perspective. *Background Paper Prepared for the Education for All Global Monitoring Report 2003/4.*

Sarantakos, S., 2013. *Social Research.* Basingstoke: Palgrave Macmillan.

Saunders, M., 2006. *The SAGE Dictionary of Social Research Methods.* London: SAGE Publications.

Save the Children, 2014. *Save the Children Stands for Inclusive Education.* [Online]
Available at: http://www.savethechildren.org/atf/cf/%7B9def2ebe-10ae-432c-9bd0-
df91d2eba74a%7D/STANDING%20FOR%20INCLUSIVE%20EDUCATION%20POSITION%20PAPER_0.
PDF
[Accessed 11 August 2016].

Sebba, J. & Ainscow, M., 1996. International Developments in Inclusive Schooling: Mapping the
Issues. *Cambridge Journal of Education,* 26(1), pp. 5-18.

Sharma, U., Forlin, C. & Loreman, T., 2008. Impact of Trainign on Pre-Service Teachers' Attitudes
and Concerns about Inclusive Education and Sentiments about Persons with Disabilities. *Disability
& Society,* 23(7), pp. 773-785.

Shivayogi, P., 2013. Vulnerable Population and Methods for their Safeguard. *Perspectives in
Clinical Research,* 4(1), pp. 53-57.

Silverman, D., 2011. *Qualitative Research.* London: SAGE Publications.

Singal , N. & Muthukrishna, N., 2014. Education, childhood and disability in countries of the South
– Re-positioning the debates. *Childhood,* 21(3), pp. 293-307.

Singal, N., 2011. Disability, Poverty and Eeducation: Implications for Policies and Practices.
International Journal of Inclusive Education, 15(10), pp. 1047-1052.

Sommo, A. & Chaskes, J., 2015. Intersectionality and the Disability: Some Conceptual and
Methodological Challenges. *Disability and Intersecting Statuses,* pp. 47-59.

Spradley, J., 1980. *Participant Observation.* Orlando: Harcourt College Publishers.

Srivastava, M., de Boer, A. & Pijl, S., 2015. Inclusive education in developing countries: a closer
look at its implementation in the last 10 years. *Educational Review,* 67(2), pp. 197-195.

Stanfords, 2016. *Gondar City and Amhara Region.* [Online]
Available at: http://www.stanfords.co.uk/Gondar-City-and-Amhara-Region_9788441627079
[Accessed 10 August 2016].

Stromquist, N., 2013. *Women in the Third World: An Encyclopedia of Contemporary Issues,* Oxon:
Routledge.

Temple, B. & Edwards, R., 2002. Interpretors/Translators and Cross-Language Research: Reflexivity
and Border Crossings. *International Journal of Qualitative Methods,* 1(2), pp. 1-12.

Temple, B. & Moran, R., 2011. *Doing Research with Refugees: Issues and Guidelines.* Bristol: The
Policy Press.

Temple, B. & Young, A., 2004. Qualitative Research and Translation Dilemma. *Qualitative
Research,* 4(2), pp. 161-178.

Tilstone, C., Florian, L. & Rose, R., 1998. *Promoting Inclusive Pracitce.* London: Routledge.

UN, 2001. *Country Paper: Ethiopia.* [Online]
Available at: http://www.un.org/esa/socdev/enable/disid2001h.htm
[Accessed 10 August 2016].

UN, 2016. *Sustainable Development: Goal 4.* [Online]
Available at: https://sustainabledevelopment.un.org/sdg4
[Accessed 6 April 2016].

UNESCO, 1994. *World Conference on Special Needs Education: Access and Equality.* Salamanca, 7-10 June, UNESCO.

UNESCO, 1996. *Learning: The Treasure Within: Report of the Delors Commission on Education for the 21st Century,* Paris: UNESCO.

UNESCO, 2007. *Ethiopia: Regional Seminar "Poverty Alleviation, HIV and AIDS Education and Inclusive Education: Priority Issues for Inclusive Quality Education in Eastern and Western Sub-Saharan Africa",* Nairobi: UNESCO.

UNESCO, 2013. *Education for All is affordable – by 2015 and beyond,* Paris: UNESCO: Global Monitoring Report.

UNESCO, 2015. *The Right to Education for Persons with Disabilities: Overview of the Measures Supporting the Right to Education for Persons with Disabilities Reported on by Member States,* Paris: UNESCO.

UNICEF, 2013. *Community Based: Briefing Note.* [Online]
Available at: http://www.unicef.org/ethiopia/2014-12-15-NUTRITION-based.pdf
[Accessed 16 December 2015].

UNICEF, 2014. *All Children in School by 2015: Global Initiative on Out-of-School Children,* Kathmandu: UNICEF.

University of Leicester, 2016. *Where is Gondar?.* [Online]
Available at: http://www2.le.ac.uk/institution/gondar-information-hub/about-gondar
[Accessed 10 August 2016].

Walton, E., 2015. Global Concerns and Local Realities: The "Making Education Inclusive" Conference in Johannesburg. *Intervention in School and Clinic,* 50(3), pp. 173-177.

Wanat, C., 2008. Getting Past the Gatekeepers: Differences Between Access and Cooperation in Public School Research. *Field Methods,* 20(2), pp. 191-208.

Watermeyer, B., 2006. *Disability and Social Change: A South African Agenda.* Cape Town: HSRC Press.

Wilson, J., 2000. Doing Justice to Inclusion. *European Journal of Special Needs Education,* 15(3), pp. 297-304.

Winter, S., 2000. *Peer Power as an Instructional Resource: Paper Presented to International Special Education Congress.* Manchester, July 24-28.

World Bank, 2005. *The World Development Report 2006: Equity and Development.* Washington DC: World Bank.

(8) Appendices

(8.1) Focus Group Demographics

Focus Group Number	Participants	Sub-Group	Group Size	School
1	M1E (Education Equality Assurance) M1C (Curriculum Development Coordinator) M2C (Curriculum Development Coordination and Implementation)	Education Officers	3	N/A
2	M73B (Male, Grade 7) M56B (Male, Grade 5) M31B (Male, Grade 3) M32B (Male, Grade 3) M33B (Male, Grade 3)	Visually Impaired	5	School 1
3	F10P (Female, Grade 10, Leg) M10P (Male, Grade 10, Hand) M11P (Male, Grade 10, Legs and Mobility) M9P (Female, Grade 9, Arm)	Physically Impaired	4	School 2
4	F10B (Female, Grade 10) F11B (Female, Grade 11) F12B (Female, Grade 12) M10B (Male, Grade 10) M11B (Male, Grade 11) M12B (Male, Grade 12)	Visually Impaired	6	School 3
5	M84B (Male, Grade 8) M85B (Male, Grade 8) M86B (Male, Grade 8) M74B (Male, Grade 7) M64B (Male, Grade 6) M65B (Male, Grade 6)	Visually Impaired	6	School 1
6	M83B (Male, Grade 8) M101B (Male, Grade 10) F91B (Female, Grade 9) F101B (Female, Grade 10) F121B (Female, Grade 12) F62B (Female, Grade 6)	Visually Impaired	6	School 1
7	M52B (Male, Grade 5) M53B (Male, Grade 5) F61B (Female, Grade 6) M72B (Male, Grade 7) M54B (Male, Grade 5) M55B (Male, Grade 5)	Visually Impaired	6	School 1

8	F51H (Female, Grade 5) M31H (Male, Grade 3) M51H (Male, Grade 5) M41H (Male, Grade 4) F31H (Female, Grade 3)	Hearing Impaired	5	School 1
9	M61B (Male, Grade 6) M81B (Male, Grade 8) M71B (Male, Grade 7) M51B (Male, Grade 5) M82B (Male, Grade 8) M62B (Male, Grade 6) M63B (Male, Grade 6)	Visually Impaired	7	School 1
10	F2T (Female, Teacher) M1T (Male, Teacher) F1P (Female, Parent, Grade 7 Child with a Disability) M2P (Male, Parent) M3P (Male, Parent)	PTA	5	School 2
11	M1P (Male, Parent) M1PT (Male, Teacher and Parent) F1PT (Female, Teacher and Parent) F1T (Female, Teacher)	PTA	4	School 1
12	M31W (Male, Grade 3) M61W (Male, Grade 6) M73W (Male, Grade 7) F41W (Female, Grade 4) F42W (Female, Grade 4) F43W (Female, Grade 4)	Students without Disability	6	School 1
13	F73W (Female, Grade 7) M74W (Male, Grade 7) F61W (Female, Grade 6 - Adult Student approx. 40 years) F62W (Female, Grade 6) M62W (Male, Grade 6) M63W (Male, Grade 6)	Students without Disability	6	School 2
14	F81W (Female, Grade 8) F82W (Female, Grade 8) F71W (Female, Grade 7) M71W (Male, Grade 7) M72W (Male, Grade 7) F72W (Female, Grade 7) F83W (Female, Grade 8)	Students without Disability	7	School 1
15	F111W (Female, Grade 11) M111W (Male, Grade 11)	Students without	6	School 3

	M112W (Male, Grade 11) F112W (Female, Grade 11) M113W (Male, Grade 11) M114W (Male, Grade 11)	Disability		
16	M91W (Male, Grade 9) M92W (Male, Lots of Friends who are Blind, Grade 9) M93W (Male, Grade 9) M94W (Male, Grade 9) M95W (Male, Grade 9) M96W(Male, Grade 9)	Students without Disability	6	School 3

17	F4ET (Female, English Teacher of 33 years) M1GT (Male, Geography Teacher of 22 years) F1AT (Female, Amharic Teacher of 34 years) F2AT (Female, Amharic Teacher of 36 years)	Trained Teacher (NGO)	4	School 1
18	F1NT (Female, Teaching 22 years in Special Needs) F2NT (Female. 21 years, 7 of these in Special Needs) F3NT (Female, 21 years, 3 of these in Special Needs) F4NT (Female, 20 years, 2 of these in Special Needs) F5NT (Female, 22 years, 17 of these in Special Needs)	Trained Teacher (Official)	5	School 1
19	F1ET (Female, English Teacher of 20 years) F1CT (Female, Civics Teacher of 19 years) F2ET (Female, English teacher of 30 years)	Trained Teacher (NGO)	3	School 3
20	F6NT (Female, 16 years, Special Needs for 1 year) F7NT (Female, 15 years, Special Needs for 7 years) F8NT (Female, 3 years, Special Needs for 3 years) F9NT (Female, 21 years, Special Needs for 2 years)	Trained Teacher (Official)	4	School 1
21	M1ET (Male, English Teacher of 30 years) F1ST (Female, Social Science Teacher of 33 years) M1BT (Male, Biology Teacher of 11 years) F1GT (Female, Geography Teacher of 31 years) F2GT (Female, Geography Teacher of 31 years)	Trained Teacher (NGO and SEN Teachers)	5	School 1
22	M2ET (Male, English Teacher of 10 years) F2CT (Female, Civics Teacher of 19 years) M3ET (Male, English Teacher of 6 years) F3ET (Female, Now teaches English for 8 years, before Amharic, Maths, Science – Total 33 years) F3CT (Female, Now teaches civic for 8 years, before lots of different subjects - Total 27 years)	Trained Teacher (NGO)	5	School 2 and 3
23	M1G (Male, Geography Teacher for 13 years) M2G (Male, Geography Teacher for 10 years) M1A (Male, Amharic Teacher for 10 years) F1G (Female, Geography Teacher for 20 years) F1S (Female, All subject teacher for 35 years)	Not Specially Teacher	5	School 2 and 3

Grade Level	Blind			Hearing Impaired			Hand Problems			Leg Problems			Hand and Leg Problems		
	Male	Female	All	Male	Female	All	Male	Female	All	Male	Female	All	Male	Female	All
KG Level	22	3	25	4	6	10	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
1	24	5	29	3	4	7	0	0	0	3	2	5	0	0	0
2	12	4	16	5	2	7	0	0	0	0	2	2	0	1	1
3	8	4	12	6	6	12	1	0	1	1	0	1	0	0	0
4	9	0	9	7	2	9	0	0	0	2	1	3	1	0	1
5	4	3	7	0	0	0	0	0	0	2	2	4	0	1	1
6	7	4	11	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	1	2	0	0	0
7	6	2	8	1	1	2	0	0	0	1	2	3	0	0	0
8	9	2	11	0	0	0	0	0	0	2	0	2	0	0	0
9	6	6	12	0	3	3	0	0	0	6	3	9	0	0	0
10	11	7	18	1	0	1	0	1	1	6	4	10	0	0	0
11	8	7	15	0	0	0	1	1	2	0	2	2	0	0	0
12	12	3	15	0	0	0	0	0	0	2	3	5	0	1	1
Total	138	50	188	27	24	51	2	2	4	26	22	48	1	3	4

(8.3) ESDP V

The fifth Education Sector Development Plan (ESDP) outlines the trajectory for education in Ethiopia for the year 2015/16. The plan contains sectors ranging from general background to more specific elements and barriers to provision including the role of HIV/AIDS, gender and inclusive education. Whilst these were main focuses of progress in ESPD IV, this plan has integrated all cross cutting issues into the broader plan in an attempt to make a greater influence.

Part of this plan is the School Improvement Programme (SIP) which aims to improve school's identification and prioritisation of student's specific needs and from these implement effective actions outlined in the SIP. Whilst this is a new element to the plan, there have been four previous ESDP's which has implemented policies and programmes with varying success. The Ministry of Education (MoE) has used this plan to recognise the failures they have encountered within inclusive education previously.

"- Lack of awareness

- Lack of knowledge, skills and commitment to implement activities, to support special needs education; which is true from the federal to the school level

- Lack of reliable data to help understand the status of children with special needs and target suitable interventions

- No clear structure for coordination and administration of special needs education issues from federal to woreda and school levels

- Absence of a financing mechanism to support special needs education and inclusive education

- Poor school infrastructure, facilities and adapted teaching and learning materials for special needs education – along with the absence of standards and guidelines

- Weak pedagogical skill of teachers for special needs education

- Lack of career structure to support itinerant teachers who are expected to work in inclusive education resource centres and surrounding satellite schools" (Ministry of Education, 2015, p. 26)