Inclusive education is a global movement that affects all countries, and all aspects of life. The most vulnerable in our society are often the ones who are excluded from educational and other opportunities, and their experiences need to be chronicled to bring about change. This book provides a global snapshot of the situation for children and adults with intellectual disabilities, bringing together experiences of inclusion across the lifespan from a variety of cultures and countries.

Scholars, practitioners and families will find this book interesting because it profiles practices that have been proven to be successful, as well as the many challenges to inclusive practice worldwide. By capturing many voices from many cultures, the contributors document not just notable similarities but also stark differences in how countries develop inclusive practices, shape educational policies and strengthen advocacy.

Despite their varied approaches to the issue, all engaged in the movement towards inclusion are united in their determination to ensure that children and young people are fully engaged in education. This book provides an excellent overview of current research in inclusive practices and also presents the realities faced by people and families around the world.
A Long Walk to School
STUDIES IN INCLUSIVE EDUCATION
Volume 7

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Scope
This series addresses the many different forms of exclusion that occur in schooling across a range of international contexts and considers strategies for increasing the inclusion and success of all students. In many school jurisdictions the most reliable predictors of educational failure include poverty, Aboriginality and disability. Traditionally schools have not been pressed to deal with exclusion and failure. Failing students were blamed for their lack of attainment and were either placed in segregated educational settings or encouraged to leave and enter the unskilled labour market. The crisis in the labor market and the call by parents for the inclusion of their children in their neighborhood school has made visible the failure of schools to include all children.

Drawing from a range of researchers and educators from around the world, Studies in Inclusive Education will demonstrate the ways in which schools contribute to the failure of different student identities on the basis of gender, race, language, sexuality, disability, socio-economic status and geographic isolation. This series differs from existing work in inclusive education by expanding the focus from a narrow consideration of what has been traditionally referred to as special educational needs to understand school failure and exclusion in all its forms. Moreover, the series will consider exclusion and inclusion across all sectors of education: early years, elementary and secondary schooling, and higher education.
A Long Walk to School

Global Perspectives on Inclusive Education

Edited By

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It is not beyond our power to create a world in which all children have access to a good education. Those who do not believe in this have small imaginations.

Nelson Mandela
2007
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FOREWORD

For more than 60 years the global community has been saying fine things about educating all children. The Universal Declaration of Human Rights adopted by the UN in 1948 affirmed that everybody was entitled to receive education. This declaration, and numerous subsequent statements and conventions, did not exclude children with disabilities or learning difficulties (any more than it excluded girls). It really declared an intention to educate every single child. Each newborn infant is unique and precious, and no society can claim to be fully developed or even properly civilised so long as it maintains educational wastelands for some groups of children.

So where are we in relation to this 60-year-old commitment? And the more recent Millennium Development Goals (MDGs) and Education for All (EFA) goals that promised universal primary education by 2015? In a nutshell, nowhere near. The latest UNESCO estimates, through the Global Monitoring Reports, indicate that there are 75 million children not attending school, while many of those who do go to school are receiving an education of low quality. The latter are taught in very large classes with few resources and poorly trained teachers. They graduate from school with limited literacy skills, never mind a broader preparation for adult life. Children with disabilities and learning difficulties feature disproportionately among those who are doubly disadvantaged in this way.

The material assembled in this book points to some of the reasons for this lamentable state of affairs. Given its scope and geographical coverage – it ranges across Europe, North and South America, Africa and Asia – it would be surprising if the situations and initiatives described here were not highly diverse. This diversity is instructive but it is also a concern. We can expect provision in Bangladesh to be different from provision in Italy, but when we read, for instance, that transition planning in Canada lacks consistency ‘across schools, school boards, and provinces’ (Chapter 6), we are driven to ask why such diversity exists.

If we really sought to learn from each other’s experience through books such as this, and were determined to follow best practice, would there be such variability? Education as a whole, let alone inclusive education, is still too much of a cottage industry. Local conditions and resources are, of course, constrictive, but they must not become an excuse for languishing in the status quo. Much local practice is less than optimal and needs to be challenged.

Several contributors to this book refer to the paucity of research in the area. They are right to do so, but let us not forget how much we know already. Certainly, more – and better – research is needed, but if special-educational provision routinely took account of what we know in relation to pupil assessment, curriculum differentiation, good teaching, classroom support, teacher education and so on, the situation of children with disabilities and learning difficulties would be transformed.

While there is much in education that we can and must do, our best efforts come up against one brute reality, namely poverty. The countries covered in this book vary greatly in national wealth, but a strong association between poverty and disability is found in all, from the richest to the poorest. That this perverse example
FOREWORD

of the Matthew principle – the notion that more will be given to those who already have – is so pervasive is saddening, but it may serve as a stimulus for us to promulgate the values underlying inclusive education ever more robustly. We are citizens as well as educators and the manifest inequities in access to educational and social goods must be of concern to us all.

The long walk to EFA started long before Nelson Mandela’s historic departure from Robben Island and, like his journey, has been a tortuous one. The idealists who secured the UN Declaration in 1948 would probably be dismayed at our slow progress – the intervening years have, after all, seen unprecedented advances in medicine, science and technology, agriculture and so on – but we need to maintain their vision and find better ways to achieve it. This book should be a welcome addition to our backpack as we move along the way. Its identification of key issues and distillation of experience from around the world will help us to tread more surely and walk a little more quickly.

Seamus Hegarty
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This book is the result of a couple of years of hard work. We wanted to develop a manuscript that reflected the progress made over the last decade in inclusive practice. The purpose was to illustrate how inclusive practice is a global movement, and also focuses on a person’s life span. The title *A Long Walk to School* illustrates how far we still need to go.

We invited international experts to speak from the experiences gained both in their countries and others where they have collaborated. Each contributed knowledge on specific topics, all of them addressing the main strands of this book: building capacity and changing systems in order to promote inclusive practice and the lessons that have been learned about the local factors that help or hinder this global pursuit.

The four chapters comprising the first part of the book identify efforts to build capacity so that educational systems can promote inclusion. Focusing on low-income countries, Roy McConkey and Alice Bradley review the experiences gained to date in countries such as Lesotho, Tanzania and Kenya. They comment that only political action will ensure that laws are enacted to guarantee the rights of children and their families to education and that many bodies must share responsibility in creating inclusive education. Common challenges persist: unskilled teachers, large class sizes, inflexible curricula, unsuitable teaching methods and lack of resources for schools.

Liliana Mayo and Judith LeBlanc give an account of a centre in Lima, Peru, that, despite similarly large classes and limited resources and a similar dearth of training and assistance for teachers, prepares students to take their rightful places in the wider community by educating families and employers and working closely with them – for example, supporting students as they make the transition from education to adult life and work.

Shirin Munir paints the vast and complex landscape of Bangladesh – one of the world’s most densely populated and poorest countries – to discuss the interplay of poverty with the quest for wider inclusion. She makes the case for ensuring that all have access to education, not least because the very large population of persons with disabilities can, if given equal opportunities, contribute to the task of nation-building.

Kenneth Kuen-Fung Sin defines the mission of inclusive education in Hong Kong as the enhancement of the capacity of all schools to cater for student diversity.
Schools there are guided by five principles: early identification; early intervention; a whole-school approach; home–school cooperation; and cross-sector collaboration.

Five other chapters focus on extensive, complex educational systems that nonetheless merit review and evaluation to adapt to changing political and social environments in promoting inclusion.

In a comprehensive chapter, Barbara LeRoy traces the landmarks of legislation and policy that have promoted inclusion over more than 35 years in the United States. It is striking to note that while general education and special-education teacher training were historically completely separate fields of study, the steady emergence of inclusive education has led to more inclusive and integrated teacher preparation.

Vianne Timmons and Maryam Wagner focus on the post-secondary-school population of students with disabilities and suggest that options for this group of young people are limited in Canada. They suggest that the absence of a federal educational policy in that country, where education is organised instead at provincial level, acts as an impediment to inclusive models of transition.

Writing from another prosperous country, Marcella Deluca suggests that inclusion practices on behalf of young people with special needs must extend beyond classrooms and into the realm of evaluation and assessment. She exhorts the research community in Italy to produce meaningful comparisons about the achievement and life outcomes of students with disabilities if that country is to live up to its promises of equality of educational opportunity for all.

Michael Shevlin and Hugh Kearns present evidence that initial teacher-education courses in Ireland have to date been influenced by the disability-deficit paradigm. They comment that it is not clear to what extent opportunities exist for student teachers to critique the more traditional approaches to special education.

Finally, Patricia Noonan Walsh and Louise Hall adopt the interactive framework of the International Classification of Functioning, Disability and Health Children and Youth Version (ICF-CY), suggesting that if it is truly universal in import, this structure creates enough space to consider the life-long development and functional participation – the latter defined in the ICF-CY as ‘involvement in a life situation’ – of students with disabilities in the context of their families, schools and societies.

We hope you enjoy the perspectives presented and recognise that inclusive practice has many factors and is a complex endeavour. We need to keep vigilant, promoting inclusive practice and researching the benefits and challenges. Inclusive practice impacts all children and is the only way to ensure we have an inclusive world to live in for the generations to come.
PART I:
BUILDING CAPACITY
ROY MCCONKEY AND ALICE BRADLEY

1. PROMOTING INCLUSIVE EDUCATION IN LOW-INCOME COUNTRIES

INTRODUCTION

The number of children aged five to fourteen years with significant disabilities is rising throughout the world. This is due to increases in the overall world population but also to medical advances, which mean that more of these children survive into their teenage years than ever before (UNESCO, 1994). The majority of these children (over 80 per cent) live in less developed regions of the world (Helander, 1993).

The increase in the overall child population poses many challenges to low-income countries, the foremost of which is the pressure on school enrolments (Lomofsky and Lazarus, 2001). A review paper prepared for the World Education Forum held in Senegal in April 2000 estimated that 113 million children had no access to primary education. Particularly disadvantaged were girls, working children and those with disabilities. Nonetheless, at the end of the forum, world leaders declared their aspiration to make education available to all the world’s children by 2015.2

In many countries, however, children with disabilities have been excluded from education systems either by default or by design. Many of these children drop out of school early because they cannot keep up with the other children or are refused a place at the local school because of their impairments.

Special Schools

A favoured solution in nearly all countries has been to provide special schools for ‘different children’ and usually for pupils with specific disabilities such as hearing impairment, visual impairment and intellectual disabilities (formerly known as mental retardation). Often these schools were begun by voluntary and religious organisations in response to needs in a particular locality. Experience has taught us that this approach can mean that many children with disabilities in less affluent countries get no education at all (Peters, 2004). Among the reasons are:

− Special schools are a high-cost option which many poorer countries, who struggle even to provide educational access for non-disabled children, cannot afford.
− Special schools tend to be located in urban centres and serve more affluent families who can afford the fees, whereas the majority of needy children live in rural areas.
MCCONKEY AND BRADLEY

− It is not viable in rural areas to provide special schools for all the different impairments that children may experience.
− The expertise of specialist teachers based in special schools is not shared with teachers in mainstream schools, who have few opportunities to learn how best to teach children with difficulties in learning.
− Equally, the value of providing special schools in more affluent countries is questioned for these and other reasons (Ainscow, 1991):
− Inclusive schools provide children with more educational and social opportunities than they receive in special schools.
− Parents increasingly opt to send their children to mainstream schools as special schools can stigmatise them.
− Disabled activists have been critical of the education they received in special schools and argue that it sustains discriminatory attitudes within society (albeit with the best of intentions).

Ordinary Schools

UNESCO issued a final report – the Salamanca Statement – following the World Conference on Special Needs Education in 1994. This concluded that children with special educational needs must have access to ordinary schools. They argued that:

Regular schools with this inclusive orientation are the most effective means of combating discriminatory attitudes, creating welcoming communities, building an inclusive society and achieving education for all. Moreover, they provide an effective education to the majority of children and improve the efficiency and ultimately the cost-effectiveness of the entire education system. (UNESCO, 1994, 10)

However, the UNESCO statement does recognise that certain children may best be taught in special classes or schools because of their particular needs in communication – namely those who are deaf, deaf-blind or severely intellectually disabled. But as these are but a small proportion of the total numbers of children with disabilities, the vast majority should take their place in mainstream schools.

However, inclusive education is not achieved simply by incorporating these children into primary-school classes. Rather, teachers, schools and educational systems need to change so that they can better accommodate the diversity of pupils’ needs and ensure that children with disabilities are included in all aspects of school life. It also means identifying the physical and social barriers within and around the school that hinder learning and actively seeking to reduce or remove these barriers (Peters, 2004).

Even then, creating an inclusive school community cannot take place without the wider community, service structures and society being committed to this goal and working to support teachers and education officials in making it a reality.
Sadly, this dimension to inclusive education has been undervalued to date; this may account for the mixed results attained in the effort to make these aspirations a reality (O’Brien, 2001).

Thus, establishing an inclusive educational system within any country will not be achieved quickly and the extra challenges faced by low-income countries are especially daunting. It will require changes of attitude, increases in professional skills and competencies and the motivation to adopt more inclusive approaches throughout the whole of society, not just at school level. That said, much has been and can be achieved at local level by community activists, sympathetic teachers and motivated parents. This chapter reviews the experiences gained to date in countries such as Lesotho, Tanzania and Kenya.

A MODEL FOR CREATING INCLUSIVE EDUCATION

This chapter provides a model of what has proven to work in making education more accessible for children with disabilities in low-income countries in particular (Hegarty and Alur, 2002; Eleweke and Rodda, 2002; Peters, 2004). The model is summarised in Figure 1.1. We identify the influences that are key to initiating inclusive education, the conditions needed for advancing it and the factors that produce the desired outcomes.

The three core components are:

The **rights** of children and families to education. Political action is needed to ensure that legislation is enacted to guarantee the implementation of rights.

The **responsibilities** of different groups within society. The following are examples of groups who have a responsibility in creating inclusive education: family members, community-based rehabilitation (CBR) workers, health and social-service staff and educational personnel.

The **realities** and challenges in making educational systems more inclusive. Among the challenges commonly experienced are unskilled teachers, large class sizes, inflexible curricula, unsuitable teaching methods and lack of educational resources and supports to schools.

However, as Figure 1.1 shows, rights, responsibilities and realities are interlinked in initiating and advancing inclusive education. We are also reminded that inclusive education is not an end in itself but rather a means to an end, in that the outcomes are not solely of benefit to the individual pupils, notably in creating a better quality of life for them and their families, but also help to nurture a more equitable and just society for all (McConkey and O’Toole, 2000).

Nonetheless, we conclude that for the foreseeable future many children with disabilities in low-income countries will continue to receive a poor education or none at all. Radical changes are needed in widening educational opportunities beyond schools, in enlisting the resources of more educators and in redefining the function and methods of education with all citizens, young and old (Bennell, 1999).
Figure 1.1. The processes influencing the development, advancement and outcomes of inclusive education.
PROMOTING INCLUSIVE EDUCATION

RIGHTS TO EDUCATION

In most countries, disabled people, be they children or adults, often do not receive their fair share of national resources and rarely receive the extra help that their particular needs require – even within those nations that proclaim themselves to be socialist republics. One step towards changing this state of affairs is to ensure that the country’s constitution and/or legislation protects and furthers the rights of disabled citizens. The groundwork for this has been done in that nearly all world governments are signatories to two important declarations of rights.

The Convention on the Rights of the Child states that:

Recognising the special needs of a disabled child, assistance … shall be provided to ensure that the disabled child has effective access to and receives education … conducive to the child achieving the fullest possible social integration and individual development. (UNICEF, 1989, Article 23)

The new draft Convention on the Rights of Persons with Disabilities (2007) states:

States Parties shall ensure an inclusive education system at all levels … and that … persons with disabilities are not excluded from the general education system on the basis of disability, and that children with disabilities are not excluded from free and compulsory primary education, or from secondary education, on the basis of disability. (UN, 2007, Article 24)

Both these declarations make clear how important it is for all citizens to participate fully in their communities and for children especially to have the opportunity to grow into their culture, absorb its values and beliefs and contribute to its development.

The age-old problem, though, is translating the rhetoric into practice. To that end, the UN produced the Standard Rules on the Equalisation of Opportunities for Persons with Disabilities. The rules are intended to form an instrument for nation states to use in formulating policy and practices that ensure that the rights of children with disabilities and their families are upheld. The rules are grouped

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Key Points on Inclusive Education

- All children with disabilities have a right to education.
- This should happen as far as possible in mainstream schools – nursery, primary and secondary.
- Certain children, because of their particular impairments, may require special assistance.
- Teachers and mainstream schools need to adapt their ways of working to meet the children’s needs.
- Inclusive schooling must be rooted in communities and service systems that value the social inclusion of people with disabilities and actively support schools in attaining this goal.
thematically and cover areas such as medical care, support services, education, employment and economic policies. For example, rule six in the ‘Education’ section states:

Education for persons with disabilities should form an integral part of national educational planning, curriculum development and school organization …

In states where education is compulsory, it should be provided to girls and boys with all kinds of disabilities, including the most severe. (UN, 1994, 23)

However, the rules go on to note that education is wider than schooling and they identify groups worthy of extra consideration. They state:

Special attention should be given to the following areas:

a) very young children with disabilities;

b) pre-school children with disabilities;

c) adults with disabilities, particularly women. (UN, 1994, 24)

The rules also make a vital observation that is well attested in practice:

Integrated education and community-based programmes should be seen as complementary approaches in providing cost-effective education and training for persons with disabilities. National community-based programmes should encourage communities to use and develop their resources to provide local education to persons with disabilities. (UN, 1994, 24)

The Standard Rules, allied with the rights statements, provide essential information for advocates and lobbyists seeking to influence national legislation and policies on education. International experience has shown that the advocacy of parents and people with disabilities is essential to policy formulation. Yet at a local level many people will continue to question whether a child with disabilities should have the same rights as an able-bodied child. To this question three answers can be given.

Firstly, if some children are denied the right to education, it will open the possibility of denying others this right on whatever grounds the more powerful in society may decide – for example, those of different religious persuasion or ethnic grouping.

Secondly, denying young people the opportunity to improve themselves ensures that they continue to be a burden to their families and the community rather than having the opportunity to become self-reliant and to contribute to nation-building.

Thirdly, and somewhat selfishly, disability can arise in any family at any time, either through birth or because of an accident to a beloved child. Denying education to others means potentially denying it to your own family.

National Legislation and Policies

The need for national legislation and policy directives is well attested in both the industrialised and the developing world. Without these, the promotion of disabled children’s rights to education and of inclusive education is severely impaired. Three outcomes can be sought.
Legal and constitutional provisions. State laws and/or the constitution should make explicit reference to all children’s right to education. Where this is ambiguous or unspecific, test cases can be brought to clarify the situation. For example, in Ireland, parents took their case to the Supreme Court, which declared the right of all children to primary education. Such laws ensure that government officials in educational systems cannot act arbitrarily in making provision for children with disabilities. Often parliamentarians with disabilities or who have relatives with a disability have been to the fore in arguing for legislation, as in Uganda and Lesotho.

Specific legislation on education for children with special educational needs. In many industrialised and some developing countries, laws have been passed defining the educational entitlements of children with disabilities and the procedures to be followed in assessing and meeting their needs. Such legislation is often preceded by the publication of a White Paper that conveys the government’s intentions but is open to consultation and change (Lomofsky and Lazarus, 2001). In South Africa, for example, their White Paper outlines:

> what an inclusive education and training system is, and how we [South African government] intend to build it. It provides the framework for establishing such an education and training system, details a funding strategy and lists the key steps to be taken in establishing an inclusive education and training system for South Africa. (South Africa Department of Education, 5)

Specific laws ensure that common procedures are in place throughout the country and that the costs for these provisions are included in departmental budgets. Examples of legislation from other countries are a useful starting point in proposing new laws within a country.

National policy statements. A third outcome is policy directives issued by the government to all schools. Although they lack the force of legislation, they do set down the guidelines educational personnel are expected to follow. These can also cover topics in more depth and detail than would happen with legislation. Often these guidelines emerge from a ‘committee of experts’ and interested parties who are assigned the task of reviewing existing provision and developing strategies for improved educational services. Thus, the establishment of such a committee can be a major step towards change in educational systems.

The reports produced by national committees make very informative reading. For example, the European Agency for Development in Special-Needs Education (EADSNE, 2003) undertook a 30-country study focused on five areas of inclusive education: 1) policies and practice; 2) funding of special-needs education; 3) teachers and special educational needs; 4) information and communication technology; and 5) early intervention.

One caution must be entered. Laws and policy guidance can become outdated if they are not regularly reviewed and adapted according to changing needs and experience gained over the years.
Promoting Rights

Disability issues are not a priority for governments in most low-income countries, faced as they are with many other problems, like unemployment, HIV/AIDS and housing shortages. However, this can be changed if there is constant, consistent and cooperative advocacy within countries (McConkey and Alant, 2005). This has to be directed at the general public, the media, influential groups in society, government officials and, most crucially, politicians at a local and national level (Richler, n.d). Among the most effective lobbyists have been:

Disabled persons’ organisations. People with physical and sensorial disabilities have been to the fore in promoting rights to education as many feel they were unfairly discriminated against in the education they received in both special and mainstream schools. They assert that this disadvantaged them in accessing tertiary education and job opportunities. In South Africa, the National Coalition of Disabled People’s Organisations succeeded in having a policy unit set up in the President’s Office to deal specifically with disability issues. Moreover, disabled activists have been elected to parliament in Lesotho and Uganda. This provides a powerful lever on government.

Parents’ associations. Mothers of children with disabilities – and to a lesser extent fathers – have come together in local and national associations to give one another mutual support but also to educate their countryfolk about the needs of their children.

In Lesotho, southern Africa, one of the first actions of a programme designed to promote inclusive education within the country was to encourage the development of a national association of parents – the Lesotho Society of Mentally Handicapped Persons (McConkey et al., 2000). However, they opened their membership to other interested persons, such as professional workers, and the association now covers a variety of disabilities. They were most influential in educating local communities about the needs of children with disabilities, in interesting the media in disability issues and in encouraging schools to consider enrolling children with disabilities.

NGOs. In many countries, educational initiatives for children with disabilities have been instigated by NGOs. These model projects have had an important role to play in demonstrating that these children could learn and benefit from education. Their role has also been crucial in expanding educational opportunities, both in terms of pre-school provision and after formal schooling ends, through vocational training projects, as an example. NGOs, especially when they come together into national federations, have a key function in promoting national policies and new ways of working. They may also be able to access international funding to support educational developments within specific localities (Mittler, 2004).

Coalitions of common interest. Although disability may be a minority interest, its advocacy is likely to be all the more powerful if undertaken together with other
like-minded people. Often disabled persons have common cause with other marginalised groups, such as those promoting the rights of women or ethnic minorities. Likewise, forging alliances with powerful lobby groups within society, such as religious bodies, trade unions and professional societies, can also be effective. Internationally, there is increasing interest in bringing disability into the mainstream of all development activities and not seeing it as a specialist issue (Department for International Development (DFID), 2000).

Arguing for changes in long-established systems such as education has never been easy. Equally, though, it has never been easier, in that there are many examples from around the world where change has occurred and many good examples of effective action exist.

### Key Points on Rights

- The rights of disabled children to education are not bestowed willingly by society – they have to be actively sought.
- Laws and policy statements are essential in order to safeguard children’s rights and ensure they are implemented.
- Disabled persons’ organisations, parents’ associations and NGOs have been effective in promoting rights.
- Targeting the media and influential people locally and nationally and working in coalitions has produced change.

### RESPONSIBILITY FOR EDUCATION

Enacting laws and issuing policy statements are only a means to an end. The more pertinent issue is whose responsibility is it to ensure that children with disabilities get educated. We will name four groups – parents, communities, disability specialists (including CBR personnel) and teachers – who share this responsibility. But, more crucially, they have a responsibility to work together in partnership to make education an effective experience for children with disabilities. As Figure 1.1 shows, these groups have the dual function of both helping to initiate inclusive educational opportunities within their local schools and sustaining and advancing the children’s education within their communities.

**Parents and Families**

All over the world it has been parents who have instigated improved services for their children. Their advocacy has involved self-sacrifice as they have braved the stigmas associated with their child’s impairments but often they have won through, their bravery and determination facing down the apathy, if not the opposition, of officials and politicians. That power is often still needed at a local level if change is to come about (McConkey et al., 2000).
Parent involvement is also needed to sustain inclusive education. A common finding from educational research in industrialised countries is that the influence of families on children’s educational progress often outweighs the contribution made by schools (e.g. Boyle et al., 2007). Many factors account for this, including parental interest in the child’s learning and their assistance with homework. It is likely that family influences are equally – if not more – pronounced with children who have disabilities. Thus it is crucial that all family members living with a child with disabilities – grandparents, siblings, aunts and cousins – are mobilised to continue supporting the child’s learning at home. Indeed, there are essential life skills that all children need to acquire but that schools rarely teach, given that the curriculum tends to emphasise academic skills such as reading and number work (Bennell, 1999). It is families who support children as they acquire the skills of daily living, socially acceptable behaviour and relating to other people. Therefore training opportunities need to be provided for families (McConkey and Mphole, 2000).

Disability Specialists

Children with disabilities benefit from receiving special assistance to minimise their disabilities and overcome their learning problems. This knowledge is not widely available to teachers and the general public. Rather, specialist workers in health services, such as therapists, or specially trained community personnel, such as Community-Based Rehabilitation (CBR) workers, have a particular responsibility to share their knowledge and expertise with families and schools. Indeed, in many countries it has been CBR programmes that have supported educational opportunities for disabled children (Kisanji, 1999). For example, in Guyana, South America, the CBR volunteers who worked with families in their villages were later trained to organise workshops for local teachers to introduce the concept of inclusive education (McConkey and O’Toole, 2000). This helped to build relationships with interested teachers, which were further reinforced as the volunteers undertook to support the teachers who had children with disabilities enrolled in their classes. They visited schools to give individual advice and guidance and in some instances provided one-on-one tuition for the children.

CBR workers as well as other health professionals can promote the education of a child with disabilities in many diverse ways: assessing the child’s strengths and weaknesses; providing assistive aids; advising on adaptations to schools; working with teachers and families in drawing up Individual Educational Plans (IEPs) for the child; and undertaking individual tuition or training other volunteers to do this. There are as yet few international examples of CBR schemes being integrated with inclusive education but they are growing in number.

Communities

Within many developing countries, schools are rooted in local communities who have a stake in them because community representatives have constructed the schools and appointed the staff. Also, the management committees of schools are often made up of local people from, for example, the professional, business, religious
and artisanal sectors. Therefore the local community can have a profound influence on what happens within schools. This may even outweigh the influence of education officials at district and national level.

The support of community leaders is crucial in making education available to those children who may have been excluded in the past. Moreover, the attitudes of other parents and pupils will be shaped by the community reaction. In Malawi, a local NGO organised village gatherings to increase awareness of disabled people’s rights through traditional drumming, songs and drama.

Once the support of the community has been enlisted they can become powerful allies in overcoming reluctance among school staff. In one district in Kenya, for example, the Community Disability Committee, set up by an NGO in a local community, worked with the school management committee successfully to improve access to education for all children in the community. Committees like this can also have a role in assisting with placements for young people with disabilities when their schooling ends.

**Schools**

We come to schools last to emphasise that inclusive education cannot succeed if left solely to teachers. Indeed, there is plenty of evidence from many countries to suggest that teachers in mainstream schools are largely antagonistic to having children with disabilities in their classrooms. Among the most commonly given reasons are (McConkey et al., 1999):

- ‘I do not have the equipment needed to teach these children.’
- ‘The classrooms are not suitable for them.’
- ‘These children are better off in special schools.’

It is the responsibility of the education system to ensure that teachers are trained and given the necessary resources to do the job. (We will come back to these issues in the next section.) However, another common finding is that the attitudes of teachers change if they have a successful experience with a child with disabilities in their class. Often initial reactions are based on problems they expect to arise; these may not materialise in practice.

But perhaps the most influential factor is that the head teacher is willing to take on the responsibility of enrolling children with disabilities in the school (Ainscow, 2005). This will ensure that teachers who have these children in their class will have an ally when things do not go smoothly or in the face of criticism from other teachers. It is important for activists wishing to promote educational opportunities to open dialogues with head teachers and put them in touch with colleagues from other schools who have successful experiences of inclusion.

**Working in Partnership**

The four groups we have noted need to work in partnership. Table 1.1 gives practical and specific suggestions as to how schools in particular can work in
partnership with families, health workers and communities. Indeed, the schools can provide a focal point for bringing these groups into contact with each other.

Table 1.1. Ideas for partnership working between school and families, CBR and health personnel and communities

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Families</th>
<th>CBR and Health Personnel</th>
<th>Communities</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Teachers are willing to visit the family at home. This lets them see the family circumstances and how the child gets on there.</td>
<td>Schools should keep a list of health personnel and where they can be contacted. This list should be given to all teachers.</td>
<td>Community groups make the school buildings and toilets more accessible for people with disabilities. They build ramps and widen doors so that wheelchairs can be used more easily.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Parents are invited to visit their child’s class. They can see the teaching methods used.</td>
<td>Schools should invite these persons to visit so that they can meet the head teacher and teachers.</td>
<td>Community personnel are invited to visit the school and talk to the children about their work.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Parents are invited to meet the child’s teacher at least once a term to discuss progress.</td>
<td>Schools can offer space in their premises for ‘clinics’ – for example, to carry out health checks on children in their pre-school years. In this way, parents and pre-school children become familiar with the school. If teachers suspect children of having a health problem, they should refer them to these clinics.</td>
<td>Youth organisations and sports clubs are encouraged to enrol children with disabilities for after-school activities.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Parents are involved in drawing up an Individual Education Plan (IEP) for the child.</td>
<td>Health personnel already involved with the child and family, such as CBR workers, can be invited to the school. They can contribute to a shared IEP for the child.</td>
<td>Volunteers make play equipment and teaching aids for use in schools or in the homes of children with disabilities.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Short training courses can be organised for parents. These should focus on practical activities that parents could use at home to help the child learn new skills. Teachers can arrange for visiting speakers to come to these courses.</td>
<td>Health personnel can be invited to speak at parent meetings or on training courses for parents or teachers. Likewise, teachers may get invited to training courses organised for health personnel.</td>
<td>Young people are referred for vocational training to various businesses and employers as they prepare to leave school.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Parents are encouraged to assist the child with his/her homework. They sign the child’s work.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Parents who have children with disabilities are assisted to form a local association. Parents can learn from one another. Visiting speakers can talk to the group and answer their questions. The group can lobby politicians for help.</th>
<th>Health workers can advise and support teachers, making health promotion part of the curriculum and school life.</th>
<th>Reporters from the local paper and radio stations are invited to any events that the school organises with community workers. This can encourage more people to volunteer.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>

As you will read, none of these ideas requires special skills and they cost little or nothing to implement. Rather, they involve a changed perception of the relationships that schools have with others in the community and a willingness to open the doors of the schools so that alliances can be built in order to further the education of all the children.

### Key Points on Responsibilities

- Inclusive education is not the sole responsibility of schools and teachers. Families, CBR workers and the wider community are key players in initiating and sustaining inclusive schools.
- Partnership working among these stakeholders is essential in order for pupils with disabilities to benefit from their education.
- These responsibilities must be fulfilled at a local level but underpinned by national initiatives. Schools have a key role to play in inviting others to join with them in widening the learning opportunities for their pupils.

### REALITIES OF EDUCATION

In most developing countries, education is under-resourced for all children and schools may have to battle against many adversaries – war, refugee crises, famine and disease. The argument that inclusive education has to wait until the overall education situation improves is untenable as it probably means waiting forever. The counter-argument is that the actions required to make education accessible to children with disabilities will improve educational opportunities for all pupils.
This is especially so for ‘slow learners’ who may not have an obvious disability (Peters, 2004). So what are the realities facing schools and how might they be changed for the better?

Teacher Training

Many teachers are ill prepared for the new challenges they face in classrooms (Arbeiter and Hartley, 2002). The training they have received, if any, has focused on teaching academic skills in a directive style to whole classes of pupils. But children all learn at their own pace, both those with and without disabilities. Therefore, teacher training needs to be reviewed so that teachers can better assess the learning needs of individual pupils, devise and manage more individualised learning programmes and acquire a wider range of teaching techniques and methods.

And, as we have already seen, teachers need to be able to mobilise support from families and communities to assist them in this task. They need preparation and guidance for these new ways of working (Campbell et al., 2003).

Change is slowly occurring in pre-service teacher-training programmes in various countries but these need to be complemented by in-service courses so that the existing cadre of teachers can acquire the necessary skills for a changing education system. In Lesotho, the Ministry of Education organised weekend training courses on various aspects of disability for groups of local schools. These were led by ‘master teachers’ who had been sent on specialised training courses – for example, on teaching children with visual impairment – and who passed on their learning to teachers in mainstream schools. UNESCO, through its Welcoming Schools initiative, has produced various resources that can be used in teacher education and training. Research in Ghana found that teachers’ knowledge about inclusive education was linked to more effective teaching strategies (Kuyini and Desai, 2007).

Learners

As yet relatively little research has been undertaken into the views and experiences of learners with disabilities in low-income countries, and of their non-disabled age peers, regarding inclusion. The presumption that learners are passive participants is not tenable and more attention needs to be paid to actively engaging them in promoting inclusion. Indications suggest that planned initiatives can be successful (Marom et al., 2007). In Zanzibar, a committee was formed in each school in which inclusive education was started. These committees included representatives from the student population as well as parents, teachers and community members.

School Curriculum

How relevant is the existing school curriculum in preparing children for modern life? This issue is hotly debated in many countries but there is no doubt that an emphasis on a wholly academic curriculum excludes many pupils, and not just
those with special needs. This is particularly so when children have to pass examinations before they can move on to the next grade. Among the developments taking hold in richer as well as poorer countries are:

- The provision of a more diverse curriculum in schools, which includes practical skills such as animal husbandry.
- Greater freedom for teachers in adjusting the curriculum to meet the needs of pupils – for example, for those who are in the early stages of acquiring literacy or numerical skills.
- The use of alternatives to examinations to assess pupils’ competency – for instance, the completion of practical tasks (Bennell, 1999).

Once again, teachers need to be trained in these new approaches but educational authorities must redesign the curriculum and examination systems to make them more inclusive. The pressure for these reforms increases when children with special needs are enrolled in mainstream schools. If these pupils are excluded the need for change is reduced and the status quo is more likely to be retained.

Support for Teachers

Large class sizes, poorly equipped classrooms and inadequate buildings can conspire to sap teachers’ morale and make their best efforts largely ineffective with those pupils who have special needs. Class teachers need support. A key influence is the leadership provided by the head teacher, but the tangible support provided by the management board and the wider community is also vital, as is the backing of colleagues in staff meetings and through informal advice (Ainscow, 2005). However, teachers who have children with disabilities in their class benefit especially from two forms of extra support.

Advice from specialists. Making an accurate assessment of a child’s learning difficulties and devising teaching programmes for overcoming them is a skilled task that can challenge the most experienced specialists. Therefore, teachers can benefit from the help of specialists in assessing children and advising on teaching approaches. CBR workers can have a particular contribution to make here, as can therapists and psychologists if they are available (McConkey, 2007). In those countries with a tradition of special schooling, teachers from special schools can be redeployed for this purpose. In the Philippines, a former residential school for children with severe visual impairment was closed and instead the teachers provided a peripatetic training and support service to local schools, through which many more children were assisted. In Sri Lanka, a cadre of ‘master teachers’ has been recruited and trained in special educational needs. They visit a group of schools regularly to guide and support teachers. In Thailand, teachers from schools for children with intellectual disabilities make regular visits to mainstream schools and spend time in classrooms, supporting teachers in their work with children who need extra help with learning.
Classroom assistance. The individual needs of pupils are easier to meet when teachers can call upon the assistance of others. In many industrialised countries, learning-support assistants are employed to fill this role (Lacey, 2001). ‘No-cost’ alternatives in developing countries include: volunteers recruited from families and communities; child-to-child programmes involving peer-tutoring by more able pupils in the same class; and the use of senior pupils to assist slower learners in junior classes. In all these options the teachers have a key role to play in ensuring that the ‘teaching assistant’ is properly taught and in monitoring the standard of his or her work with the pupils.

These three issues – teacher training, curriculum and support for schools – are central not only to making inclusive education a reality but also to ensuring that it achieves its goals, namely:

− To provide national coverage of education.
− To ensure equality of opportunity for all citizens.
− To promote respect for diversity.
− To create empowered citizens who can contribute to society.
− To produce effective schools.

Thus, inclusive education is not just about children with disabilities going to school. Rather, it recognises that education is a force for social change and helps to create a more equitable society in which people with disabilities can become full and active members.

Key Points on Realities

− Inclusive education has hardly been tried internationally. We need to learn how it can effectively meet the needs of children with disabilities. A major requirement is improved teacher training and ongoing support for teachers.
− Many of the difficulties experienced from including children with disabilities stem from the realities of educational systems rather than the characteristics of children with disabilities.
− The practical difficulties facing teachers can be addressed in creative ways but they do require extra efforts and changes in traditional practices in schools and classrooms.
− The only alternatives to inclusive education are to accept that disabled children do not need to be educated and to set up an alternative system for their education and training. The former is unjust; the latter is untenable as it is will never meet national needs and may prevent the social inclusion of people with disabilities.

Achieving the Outcomes

Inclusive education will not come quickly and, sadly, in some countries or parts of countries it may not come in our generation. It requires changes to national systems
that are often long established and that have always been slow to alter. Moreover, these changes challenge the vested interests of powerful groups in society. But more than that, inclusive education requires adjustments to the attitudes and practices of families and communities, and of other systems such as health services and community work. Against all these forces it is perhaps remarkable that the concept of inclusive education has advanced as much as it has (Mittler, 2004).

Nor can we say with any certainty what a new inclusive education system will be like, but perhaps we can dream. The transformations we have identified in schools need not stop there. New kinds of learning centre may be established outside educational systems to provide particular forms of education and training according to pupils’ needs – for example, artisanal schools, vocational training centres and creative-arts venues. Learning should not stop at an arbitrary school-leaving age; life-long-learning opportunities have to become more available to all.

The teaching workforce will be augmented by the expertise of experienced practitioners across many disciplines and professions. Computers and the internet will make knowledge more accessible to everyone – even those who live in the remotest areas, thanks to battery power and mobile phones (Lelliot et al., 2000).

The future holds much promise. New solutions to old problems beckon. Yet today we stand at a crossroads between the old ways and the hope of the new. The choice is simple – what sort of future do we want for children with disabilities? It is easy to let social exclusion and inequities persist. But if we want a future of inclusion and equality of opportunity for a child with disabilities then we need to work for it from the earliest years of his or her life and ensure that his or her schooling reflects these twin values. Mountains can be moved, one rock at a time.

FURTHER READING

The following publications are available free of charge from UNESCO.

- In this work case studies are given of schools in Ghana, Palestine, Peru, Uganda, Mongolia, Germany, Hungary, Australia, China, Portugal, India, Lesotho, Chile and Canada.
- This provides practical tips as to how teachers can make their classrooms more inclusive.
- Here details are given of inclusive-education initiatives in Cameroon, Dominican Republic, Egypt, Ghana, India, Madagascar, Mauritius, Nicaragua, Paraguay, Vietnam and Yemen.

UNESCO
Combating Exclusion through Education
Division of Basic Education
7 place de Fontenoy
75352 Paris 07 SP France.

OTHER RESOURCES


(1998) The Journey to Inclusive Schools, Inclusion International.4

Index for Inclusion

The index is a set of materials to support schools in a process of inclusive school development, drawing on the views of staff, governors, school students, parents/carers and other community members. It has been developed in England by Tony Booth and Mel Ainscow.

Further information: inclusion.uwe.ac.uk/csie/csiehome.htm.

Inclusion in Action

In 2004, the Ministry of Education and Vocational Training in association with the Zanzibar Association for People with Developmental Disabilities began the pilot phase of an inclusive-education project in 20 pilot schools. Funded through the Norwegian Association for Persons with Developmental Disabilities (NFU), the lessons learned have been documented in a series of six specially commissioned video programmes. These provide a unique resource for use with schools, parents and communities in promoting the concepts and strategies that help to build inclusive education. The primary message is that inclusive education has to be built around partnerships among schools, families, communities, NGOs and various government agencies.

All the recordings were made in schools, family homes and community locations throughout Zanzibar. The programmes illustrate what can be achieved despite large classes and minimal resources. They are intended to inform but also to stimulate debate and local problem-solving.

Further information: info@atlas-alliansen.no.
PROMOTING INCLUSIVE EDUCATION

Useful Websites

– www.eenet.org.uk
– This site promotes the sharing of easy-to-read information among people interested in improving educational opportunities for marginalised groups of learners. www.daa.org.uk
– Disability Awareness in Action aims to promote the rights of disabled people, including children. inclusion.uwe.ac.uk/csie/csiehome.htm
– From its base in Bristol, UK, the Centre for the Studies in Inclusive Education provides information and advice about inclusive education and related issues.


NOTES

1 The World Bank identifies 53 countries as ‘low income’ – i.e., with a 2006 GNI per capita of $905 or less.
2 Available at www.unesco.org/education/efa/ed_for_all/dakfram_eng.shtml.
3 Available from Eenet, School of Education, University of Manchester, Manchester, England, M13 9PL.

REFERENCES


2. INCLUSION ACROSS THE LIFE SPAN FOR PEOPLE WITH DIFFERENT ABILITIES

LILIANA MAYO AND JUDITH M. LEBLANC

Why is it so difficult to include me? Why must there be special programmes designed to permit me to enter classrooms and workplaces? I have abilities that I can use to contribute to society in work, home and social gatherings. Why don’t you teach me at my ability level the skills I need, and then find ways to include me and permit me to show what I can do?

All students can contribute to society if their teachers are taught effective ways to design educational programmes that effectively prepare them for being included in all aspects of life, and if all the people in society are educated enough to know what people who are different can do before assuming they are not capable. Essentially, if family, societal and professional expectations of people with different abilities are raised then, if effectively educated, those people will rise to the challenge and do their very best.

All people have limitations and all have abilities. Success in life means using our abilities to become independent, productive, accepted and happy in life. Everyone wants to be able to contribute something in work, in community situations and at home and to feel valued for his or her contributions. People with different abilities are the same.

All children need to be provided with the knowledge and skills to make them the best person they can be and thus be involved and included in life’s ongoing activities. As educators and supporters of children’s development, we need to find ways to teach all children the skills they need for success and that everyone has abilities and can contribute to social and work experiences. If everyone in society knew this then we would not have to devise ways to include people with different abilities. It would automatically happen.

The problem arises when some people coming into contact with people with different abilities make assumptions regarding what they can and cannot do, and then further assume they must be treated differently from other people. If we expect that all people will do their best in life if they are given proper education and opportunities, then all can find a place of value in society.

Inclusion is a process in education, but it is also an outcome for life that encompasses more than school inclusion. The Centro Ann Sullivan del Perú (CASP) lifetime goal for students is inclusion in all home, community, school and
workplace activities in their community. Education should be a lifetime process for everyone, but especially for people with different abilities, who, at least until society makes changes, need advocates to ensure they will be educated to take their rightful place in society (LeBlanc et al., 1996).

If children learn how to use their abilities to promote their participation in society through individualised education then all can be productive members of their families, communities and workplaces. If education related to daily living is provided for all as children, then all can be more independent as adults. And if all are independent and productive, the probability of success and happiness is increased tenfold.

The term ‘inclusion’ usually refers to the location where the education of students with different abilities takes place, which is usually a regular rather than a special-education classroom in a school that educates all students. This description is accurate for students’ school-related development and activities. However, even though students are attending school, the majority of their time is spent in the home and community. School usually occurs for about 12 years, which is less than 20 per cent of an average lifetime. School inclusion can provide excellent opportunities for students with different abilities to learn skills necessary to be included in life. If they receive the individualised education they need to reach their maximum potential they can take their place in society as valued and productive members.

Inclusion in this context means being totally integrated into a group involved in some activity. It means more than people with different abilities being in the same classroom learning through related activities. Life itself is a huge activity. Inclusion into life for people with different abilities thus means being included in all life’s aspects – i.e., the home, the community, school and the workplace. In other words, people with disabilities must be included as valued, participating members of society in general. This was the definition originally used to design the Functional/Natural Curriculum of CASP and it remains the goal for all CASP educational activities today. The CASP curriculum is designed to educate the student from birth through adulthood – i.e., from kindergarten through school, into the workplace and then through retirement.

This is the basis for our use of the phrase ‘inclusion into life’, created by Judith LeBlanc.

HISTORY OF SPECIAL EDUCATION AND INCLUSION IN PERU

The Ministry of Education established the Office of Special Education in 1971 and in 1992, with UNESCO support, began including children with different abilities in state-owned schools. In 2006 Peru passed a law prohibiting the exclusion of students from the public schools because of physical, mental or sensory disabilities, and in that year 16,000 students, previously in segregated classrooms, entered 6,000 schools. Students with severe and profound limitations were not included in this move. When this was done, sufficient provisions for preparing teachers to assume the responsibility for including those in the programme were not in place. As a result many teachers continually ask for education on how to include these new students
and make their educational experience a good one. There are also problems involved in implementing school inclusion because classes in Peru are very large, with limited assistance for teachers, if any. In addition, the law has not been uniformly implemented, primarily owing to limited resources.

There are three million people with motor, cognitive and sensory limitations in Peru but, because of the limited resources of this developing nation, only 26,000 receive educational services. Changing the situation of people with different abilities in countries like Peru requires enormous professional creativity and resourcefulness and the dedication to work very hard with low salaries and limited resources. However, it can be done, as has been shown in CASP since 1979, when Liliana Mayo founded that institute in her family garage with help from her parents and colleagues.

WHAT IS CASP?

CASP is a non-profit NGO recognised worldwide for its contributions as a model research and demonstration educational centre for people with different abilities (i.e., cognitive, physical and emotional limitations) and their families. CASP provides lifetime educational programmes for over 450 people, ranging in age from birth through adulthood, all of whom live at home with their families. In addition to the regular educational programmes there are 100 student-workers who have real jobs, with real pay and benefits, and 50 who are included in regular schools from kindergarten through high school. The CASP educational programmes are based on the Functional/Natural Curriculum, which was initially created by Judith LeBlanc in 1985 and which was implemented and is being continually improved by Liliana Mayo and the CASP staff. It is designed to prepare students for success in all aspects of their inclusion into life, and to enable them to become independent, productive and happy. CASP also has the largest programme in the world for continuously educating families. It was started by Liliana Mayo in 1979 because of strong convictions that parents should be active partners in the education of their children but cannot do so without being educated themselves.

The hallmarks of the CASP educational and family programmes are the programmes conducted whenever possible in real community settings, the evaluative research system used to record advances of all who learn from CASP, and CASP’s warm, friendly and cooperative family atmosphere. The CASP Functional/Natural Curriculum, together with the School of Families, now serves as a model for many programmes throughout Latin America and the world.

CASP and Liliana Mayo have been recognised with numerous international and Peruvian awards including: the Queen Sofia of Spain Award for International Integration and Rehabilitation; the ABAI Award for International Dissemination; the University of Kansas Alumna Award for Outstanding Service (equivalent to an honorary doctorate); and the Orden el Sol del Perú, which is the highest recognition given in Peru for service to the country. In addition to the School Educational Programme, the School-Inclusion Programme and the Supported-Employment Programme, over a thousand parents and professionals outside CASP are educated
each year through long-distance, onsite or project education so they can work with their children and students or create a new or better programme following the model. International leaders in related educational, medical and administrative services voluntarily come to Peru to teach and consult with staff and families and to learn how CASP makes possible the impossible with few resources.

CASP is a cooperative affiliate of the Schiefelbusch Institute for Research in Life-Span Studies at the University of Kansas and has a mission to improve and increase educational opportunities for all students all over the world, regardless of limitations, in order that they might become independent, productive and happy throughout their lives. There are programmes that follow the Peruvian CASP model in Argentina, Brazil, Bolivia, Ecuador, Guatemala, Nicaragua and Spain.

CASP Education that Leads to Inclusion and Employment

Inclusion into life.

Every student should be included in the family and in activities in the community. And this means that people with different abilities have the chance not only to be present in those places but also to take part fully in the activities according to their skills. Inclusion into life occurs across all programmes in the following locations:

- At home.
- In the community.
- In regular schools.
- In real jobs.

(Judith LeBlanc, CASP staff training, 1998)

Successful inclusion into life involves learning skills that makes one independent, productive, socially integrated and thus happy. This is the primary goal for the students of the CASP programme; the secondary goal is to permit them to show what they can do in all situations.

Successful inclusion into life cannot occur unless people with different abilities learn how to operate within society, how to work and how to behave in a socially responsible way. CASP educational programmes thus have these behaviours as the goal for every student who enters the programme, along with the goal of having families as active partners in educating their members with different abilities.

CASP provides three types of educational programme for people with different abilities. There are programmes designed to educate people with different abilities, to educate their families and to educate professionals and parents outside of CASP so that they can develop similar programmes in their regions or countries. All CASP educational programmes follow the Functional/Natural Curriculum. The School of Families now also follows a Functional/Natural Curriculum for Families and has expanded to serve families in other regions of Peru and in other countries.
CASP has student programmes for all ages. Classroom assignment is based on the students’ chronological age. The CASP educational programmes include the Early Education, Pre-school, School, Vocational, Inclusion and Supported-Employment Programmes. Within these programmes the students are grouped according to their chronological age.

A list of functional skill objectives that anyone needs to be independent, included and successful in life is used to determine students’ annual individual learning objectives. This is the ‘functional’ part of the Functional/Natural Curriculum. It is organised to match the current chronological age of the student in order to teach the skills expected of the student’s peers from birth through adulthood. The list is categorised into general skills used to learn other skills, academic skills that provide the basic elements needed in reading, writing and mathematics, social skills that help students become included into life, independent-living skills that help them take care of themselves at home and in the community, and work skills so they can hold a job and be productive. If any student does not learn it is because the effective method for teaching him or her has not been identified. The teacher’s job is thus to find that method and implement it.

Natural teaching procedures used by specialists and families are based on positive motivation and the expectation that students will learn if they are taught correctly. Praise rather than edibles is used in teaching and the value of that praise is based on the idea that the specialists and parents are ‘friends’ of our students. Specialists and families maintain high expectations and parent–professional teamwork is motivated by the progress the students make.

Students are taught their skill objectives daily in the community on most days or in small or large classroom groups. The community educational environment includes the entire area surrounding CASP – i.e., homes, schools, businesses and parks. Families teach the same objectives within daily activities in their homes and communities as part of both the family and student educational programmes. Student progress is recorded daily or several times a week for each current individual objective. Families receive reports of parent progress on their objectives every 15 days, and student-progress reports are sent to the families four times a year.

The best education occurs in the context of respecting and treating students in the same way you yourself want to be respected and treated and of teaching them in a way that enhances rather than restricts their learning. At CASP this translates simply as, ‘Treat me like any other person,’ with the implication ‘...for my good and not-so-good behaviours.’ The idea is to treat people with different abilities with compassion but not without the expectation that they as well as those without disabilities can achieve to the best of their ability. If this philosophy guided everyone, the quality of life of people with different abilities (and in fact for all people) would be improved.

The major educational, developmental, social and functional goal of CASP is for the students to be able to take their place in society like everyone else. This means that they must be educationally and vocationally prepared to be independent,
productive and valued participants in all the activities that make up what is typically called society, and especially that they must be prepared to hold a real job so they can be as independent as possible.

CASP analyses the reality and cultural life of students and their families in their homes and communities to determine: academic skills like reading, writing, arithmetic; self-help skills that involve personal hygiene, domestic and community tasks; and productive skills that they must be able to do to participate in the useful, fun and necessary activities in the community like anyone else.

CASP Family-Inclusion Programme

Inclusion begins in the home. If a person with different abilities is considered to be the same as all other family members – i.e., expected to assume responsibilities in the home, to learn domestic skills, etc. – then as that person learns more abilities his or her usefulness in the family home increases. In this way a person with different abilities will be a valued family member rather than an additional worry.

Families are partners in the education of their children in CASP. They form a team with the professionals to provide the most comprehensive education for the students. Professionals must respect family lifestyle and choices, while parents must be willing to learn and use what professionals teach. Each group must recognise that the work of the other is necessary to provide the best education for their child. Families learn how to teach their children and then provide opportunities for the children to use their skills. Families are involved in all educational decisions and are active participants in the daily education of their child. Families provide opportunities for applying what students learn to real community settings; they provide the situations for social skills to be learned; and they provide opportunities for students to learn new domestic, academic and work skills by giving them responsibilities in the home alongside other family members.

In short, families provide opportunities for CASP students to learn and practise skills in the home and neighbourhood and to generalise the skills they have learned. They also teach other family members, neighbours etc. how to work with their child with different abilities. Teamwork and multiplicative education is possible because of the partnership between family members and teachers, which makes them a team in the planning and execution of the students’ education. Family members and professionals have learned that both groups can do a better job of educating the students if they are willing to work together, because both have experiences from which others can learn, regardless of their educational levels. Humility and respect is required of both the parents and professionals to assure that their teamwork is successful.

Education is available on almost everything except how to be a good parent. So in 1979, when she founded CASP, Liliana Mayo also founded the first School of Families in Peru. Its aim was to provide parents with continuous education at school and at home so they could learn to be the best teachers of their children with different abilities and thus integrate them into the family and the community. We know that the best teaching procedures in the world are useless if children and
young people do not put their learned skills into immediate practice at home and in
the community. People with different abilities can become independent, productive
and happy when families and professionals work in a team. Families in CASP
actively participate in the assessment, planning and education of their children and
provide continual feedback regarding how the programme is working. Parents also
collaborate in the training of professionals and families nationally and inter-
nationally. When a family is involved it is clear that the student will have many
opportunities to practise the skills being learned.

Whether families can teach what they intend to teach depends on whether they
know how to teach effectively. To teach parents how to be the best teachers of their
children, CASP provides education for families throughout their association with
the centre. Parents, like the professional staff members, first learn the philosophies
used in CASP to guide the curricular and procedural decisions used for teaching
people with different abilities. Generally they are:
– ‘Treat me like any other person.’
– ‘Concentrate on my abilities rather than on my limitations.’
– ‘Encourage me – “You can.”’
– ‘Let me be like others my age.’
– ‘Teach me and then let me be independent – let me show what I can do.’
– ‘Let me be with people who have no disabilities.’
– ‘Expect me to succeed.’
– ‘Play with me, talk to me, accept and love me.’

CASP families receive a total of 171 hours of annual training. Each family has
their own annual Individual Education Plan (IEP) for learning the skills they need
to learn to be the best parents and teachers of their child. These IEPs are reviewed
twice a year with their child’s specialist and behaviours that the parents have
accomplished are removed from the list. The Functional/Natural Curriculum for
Families is divided into three areas:

Behaviours that families need to learn to treat their child like any other person.

Skills families need to effectively teach their child new skills at home.

Skills to manage inappropriate behaviour.

The procedures are taught simply and are based on steps to follow and practise in
teaching any skill to their child. For example, we use the ‘grandmother law’, ‘eat
your vegetables before dessert’, instead of the more technical term, Premack’s
principle. The families give the CASP staff feedback regarding the practicality and
difficulty of the procedures, the effectiveness of the procedures used to teach
parents and whether the procedures work with their child. If not, in special consul-
tation the team of parents and professionals work out a new approach for the
student. The CASP staff members evaluate the parents’ progress and give awards
for those who improve; the parents and siblings evaluate the effectiveness of the
specialists with whom they work and of the CASP programme in general every few
months. Families complete an anonymous survey four times a year indicating how
they feel about their child’s progress and how satisfied they are with the team in
the classroom as well as with CASP’s service to the whole family in general.
While a student and family are associated with CASP they receive training every fifteen days for nine months each year. This is divided between training in large groups (450 families) in which information is presented and questions answered, training in small groups (50 families) in which topics presented in the large group are practised by groups of parents through role play and other activities.

Parents also receive individual training sessions in the classroom with their children and five times a year individual family training occurs in the students’ homes. Training in the home provides the CASP specialists a chance to see the family reality: some live on the streets; some don’t have light, water or bathrooms; some, on the other hand, have housekeepers. Because parents receive so much education they are frequently able to make very good suggestions regarding the conditions under which their child best attends to what is being taught and thus the conditions under which learning can be improved.

Parents often ask how much time and effort is required of them to be excellent teachers of their children. The reply is that the professionals contribute 30 per cent to the progress of the child but parents contribute 70 per cent because they live with their child 24 hours a day, seven days a week and 52 weeks a year. Professionals can teach and help make changes with people with different abilities, but families provide the stable force that keeps students progressing across the years.

When siblings are four years old they begin sibling training twice a year, whether or not they live in the same household as the family member with different abilities. They are taught how to work with their sibling with different abilities in order to teach him or her the social behaviour necessary to be included in the community.

When all family members use activities and situations in the home to teach the student and are consistent in their use of procedures we observe more progress. The outcomes that characterise the CASP Family-Inclusion Programme are a generality of treatment effects across people, places, situations, along with changes in the maintenance of the students and the parents’ behaviour.

Some examples of what CASP students learn to do in a family context are: independently going to the bakery to purchase bread for breakfast; washing dishes; ironing for the family; and assisting in the kitchen to prepare their meals. The parents teach them to do these things by involving them in the activities of the house at levels appropriate to their age and ability. This is similar to the way all parents teach their children. In this way, education at home for people with different abilities is conducted during daily family activities. Essentially, they learn by imitating others and finally carry out the tasks independently – much in the same way we all learn how to navigate the world.

_CASP Community-Inclusion Programme_

Inclusion in the community is an integral part of the CASP students’ education from the time they enter early education during their first year of life until they leave CASP either by leaving the area or by no longer having need of CASP services.
The entire CASP educational programme for students and families is taught outside the centre – in the community and home – as much as possible. This is because people learn new behaviours better when they are taught in chains of activities that are normal in life and at the sites where the behaviours normally occur. This is the basis for the ‘natural’ part of CASP’s Functional/Natural Curriculum. Specialists take the students to neighbourhood markets, to parks to take care of the flowers and bushes, to shopping malls and to restaurants to teach mathematics. If they cannot find an appropriate outlet in the community for what they are teaching, they simulate the environment they want in their classrooms and role-play the behaviours they are teaching. The idea is to show the students the functionality of what they are learning.

When students are 12 years old they enter classrooms that are orientated towards teaching them general work skills in addition to the academic, community and home skills they have been learning. There are regular places in the community in which they wash cars, work in restaurants and stores, work in car-repair shops etc. so that they can learn behaviours that make them work more efficiently and effectively.

Students often have birthday parties at CASP and invite friends and neighbours from their communities. These provide excellent opportunities for students to learn appropriate social behaviours – how to be a host, how to dance and, most importantly, how to have fun.

CASP School-Inclusion Programme

School inclusion is a vital component in the CASP inclusion-into-life objective. The specialists in the programme look for school administrators and teachers who are dedicated to placing people with different abilities in their schools and classrooms and are willing to work with CASP inclusion specialists towards making the students’ inclusion a success. In 1981 the first CASP student entered a regular pre-school class. He is now 29 years old and has a regular job. In 2008, the CASP School-Inclusion Programme had 50 students included in 30 regular schools, ranging in age from pre-school to high school. Finding appropriate classrooms and teachers for students with different abilities is not always easy, because most regular public-school programmes have very large classes (as many as 45 students in primary-grade classes) with no in-school services to support inclusive education. In the early 1990s CASP began developing this model programme to prepare students for and support them in regular school programmes. The current students are included at all levels, from pre-school through to high school. Participation can be partial or full time in regular schools, depending on the students’ individual needs.

The following services are a part of the CASP School-Inclusion Programme:

- Parents and siblings of the CASP students are educated in the CASP School of Families.
- Each student in the programme begins by attending CASP classes to prepare them for inclusion. When evaluations indicate that students are ready for inclusion
in regular classrooms, CASP provides additional support classes after school hours twice a week until support is no longer needed.

Each student has an IEP adapted to the regular school curriculum.

CASP specialists visit the classrooms twice a month to observe, give suggestions and consult with the teacher, as well as to evaluate how the programme is proceeding.

An inclusion team – comprising a CASP specialist, a teacher in the regular classroom and the student’s parents – meets every two months to review the student’s progress and problems and assure continuous advancement. Each team member has a copy of the agreements, solutions and commitments they make as a team. The CASP specialist keeps records and does the follow-up to be sure that the team’s decisions are being carried out.

All teachers in regular schools participating in the CASP School Inclusion Programme attend professional-education classes every two months to learn how better to include students with different abilities. They also receive answers to their questions, work on possible solutions to problems they encounter and devise ways to adapt the classroom curriculum to particular students, as well evaluating whether the programme and CASP services are achieving the mutual goal. They report that the material presented helps them in working with their other students as well.

Since 1995, one or more student-tutors have worked with each CASP student. The student-tutors are chosen according to their interest in participating and their teacher’s assessment of the best match between students; they often become lifetime friends for the included students. CASP specialists work with the tutors in the classrooms and teach them how to work with the included student. Three annual friend-tutors’ meetings are hosted by CASP. Between one and three of each included student’s classmates attend to learn how better to work with their included friend, to have fun together, to meet others from different schools who are doing the same thing and to become closer to the included students by participating in activities in CASP and the community. Since 1995 CASP has educated 1,010 friend- and student-tutors. Often the CASP students and the student-tutors become lifetime friends.

Of the 50 students included in regular schools in 2008, 35 per cent have autism, 18 per cent have Asperger’s syndrome, 27 per cent have Down’s syndrome, 15 per cent have cognitive deficiency and 5 per cent have other diagnoses. In 2007 four students finished high school; three were from Peru and one was from the United States (his father was working in Peru). The current inclusion programme includes two other students from the United States. Where necessary, the parents initially pay for a translator until the student learns Spanish.

CASP also educates regular schoolteachers who are learning how to work successfully with included students with different abilities. Since 1995 more than a thousand teachers have been trained in workshops and onsite. More and more teachers are asking for education on how to work with included students and the Ministry of Education is seeking ways to obtain this education. CASP inclusion specialists conduct the educational sessions and invite regular teachers who have worked with CASP in the programme, students who are included and students who were student-tutors to participate.
CASP Employment-Inclusion Programme

The ultimate in independence and inclusion is to begin your first job. The CASP Supported-Employment Programme, begun in 1996, is the ultimate student goal towards which all other CASP programmes work. Inclusion in employment, like community inclusion, is a goal of the student-workers in all CASP educational programmes from early education onward. When CASP started the Supported-Employment Programme in 1996 no placements were considered if they were not real work (that anyone else might do), in a real position, with a real and equitable salary and benefits. A large Peruvian company, Wong, was the first to offer some of their starter placements for CASP student-workers. This was fortunate for CASP, not only for the jobs this company created, but also because without them it would have been much more difficult to convince businesses to offer jobs to people with different abilities. The Peruvian government offers insignificant tax incentives for companies to participate in such programmes.

Since the programme was started more companies have joined, providing jobs for 100 adult CASP student-workers with severe autism, Down’s syndrome, cerebral palsy and other limitations in 28 high-quality businesses in Peru. In 2008 some had worked for 12 consecutive years. All receive fair pay and benefits and are included in all employee activities in their workplaces. CASP added an additional item to its lifetime-objective behaviours – drinking responsibly – after a student was sent from an employee party to CASP in a cab drunk. Just another social behaviour to be considered in students’ lifetime objectives.

Student-workers who have learned the skills to join CASP’s Supported-Employment Programme are those who have received their education at CASP or who come to the centre to learn to work and then to obtain jobs. The jobs are with businesses who work in a team with CASP and who are willing to pay our student-workers the same salaries and benefits they would pay all workers. The businesses consider this programme part of their social responsibility and only receive a small government tax benefit if they participate.

CASP guarantees that the job for which the student-workers are hired will be done well, on time and with little or no absenteeism. This is made possible by the work of the team of trained CASP parents and other volunteer coaches.

Prior to starting in a new job in a business location, CASP specialists visit the workplace to analyse the job requirements and work as a team to select the student considered best for the job. Some student-workers also attend special CASP classes once a week to improve their skills and/or to receive special consultation and education as requested by their families or employers.

Many student-workers provide financial help to their families by paying the cost of water and electricity, sometimes paying for their parents’ medication or even starting the construction of their own home. CASP student-workers receive social benefits like all Peruvian workers.

Other employees report that they like working with CASP students because they are happy, fun and do good work, although some co-workers complain that
they work too fast and request that CASP ask them to slow down. Employers also report enjoying the pleasant atmosphere created by having people with different abilities as employees in their businesses. One bank even reported a 20 per cent increase in employee productivity after including people with different abilities in their divisions.

**SUMMARY**

The CASP model of inclusion is successful because families, schools, communities and workplaces form a team that is intensively involved in the success of every student included into life. The students say, ‘Educate me and give me opportunities and I will become independent, productive, socially responsible and happy because I am included like everyone else in all of life’s activities.’

**CASE STUDY**

*Margarita, a CASP Example of Successful Inclusion into Life*

Margarita is an only child with Down’s syndrome. She comes from a low-income family that always struggles financially. Her father emigrated to the US when she was 12 and never returned. Her mother does not have a job at present.

Margarita entered CASP when she was three and when she was six she was included in a regular school. She left this first school because she presented behavioural problems such as bothering her classmates or not responding to instructions. CASP found another school that accepted her and Margarita stayed there in regular classrooms until she had completed her first two years of high school. Then she worked in the school office, the cafeteria and as an aide in the pre-school classrooms. This taught her work-related skills so she could enter the CASP Supported-Employment Programme when she came of age. Her language and social skills also improved with this experience.

The teachers, classmates and parents of the regular school loved her and understood the importance of having her included in the classroom. She learned to read, write, add and subtract and, most importantly, she learned self-control. She had peer tutors every year who played an important role by reinforcing her good behaviours and ignoring or redirecting her when her behaviours were not acceptable. The peer tutors became Margarita’s close friends; one morning her mother awoke to find that Margarita had taken a taxi to the house of her peer-tutor friend.

Margarita is now 20 and works in one of the best banks in Peru. She is the only person financially and emotionally supporting her mother and is independent, productive and happy.
When CASP introduces projects for fundraising involving volunteers, Margarita is the first to help. She also has the ability to organise the volunteers and to include her friends with different abilities by teaching them how to do the work. She is our friend, a fighter, a leader, a teacher and an inspiration to all of us.

NOTES

1 CASP adopted the term ‘person (people) with different abilities’ to focus attention on what students can do rather than what they cannot do when they are in the community and workplaces. It also helps all family members to focus on the value of their member with different abilities.

2 Judith LeBlanc’s ‘friend approach’ (1981) is used with students and families in CASP. It focuses on the importance of professionals’ and families’ establishing themselves as conditioned reinforcers for the students before expecting that praise will work. In CASP this means doing fun things with the students in an unstructured, non-teaching environment.

REFERENCES