Management of Special Needs and Inclusive Education in Uganda and Ethiopia

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Abstract

This study is a comparative analysis of inclusive education in Uganda and Ethiopia, as available to students with disabilities. Educational provision for students with disabilities is essential if Uganda and Ethiopia are to attain education for all goals. However, despite a series of strategies including legislation to support inclusion of people with disabilities, majority of children with disabilities are still out of school. This article seeks to explain why achieving inclusive education has remained elusive. It begins with an overview of global and national definitions of ‘inclusive education’. The reality of schooling options currently available to pupils with disabilities is discussed, followed by an exploration of how stigma, inadequate training and institutional barriers have rendered these provisions inadequate and inequitable. Two case studies of inclusive education programmes in Ethiopia and Uganda are presented and recommendations made based on their successes. When one looks beyond the existing policies and declarations and views the reality of primary school classrooms and their surrounding communities, it becomes clear that achieving Education for All, more specifically for children with disabilities, involves much more than establishing policies and placing pupils in classrooms. Achieving true inclusion in Uganda and Ethiopia will require action that is rooted in the conviction that inclusive education is not merely about access, but about changes in society and systems. The author concludes that inclusion will not be achieved by merely focusing on access, but must as well involve changes in society and systems and a critical reflection on the objectives of inclusive education for learners with disabilities.

Keywords: Inclusive Education, Disability, Children with Disability, School practice

Introduction

Inclusion is defined by the United Nations Girls’ Education Initiative (UNGEI, 2010) as a system that responds to the diversity of needs among all learners, through increasing participation in learning, cultures and communities, and reducing exclusion from and within education. It involves changes in content, approaches, structures and strategies, driven by a common vision that covers all children and the conviction that it is the responsibility of the regular system to educate all of them. Inclusion in education refers to a basic human right and the foundation for a more just and equal society (Forlin, Chambers, Loreman, Deppeler & Sharma, 2013). Inclusion is about being proactive in identifying the barriers and obstacles learners encounter in attempting to access opportunities for quality education, as well as in removing those barriers and obstacles that lead to exclusion. It is a process that helps overcome barriers limiting the presence, participation and achievement of learning and development of children with disabilities and other special needs (UNESCO, 2017). In the current study, inclusion refers to accommodating and embracing learner diversity in mainstream primary schools for the purpose of implementation of inclusive education.
Inclusive education is a process of increasing participation of all learners in schools, including those with disabilities, and it is about restructuring the cultures, policies and practices in schools so that they respond to the diversity of learners in their locality (Asrat, 2013). It is a means of extending educational opportunities to a diverse range of potentially marginalized learners worldwide who are still unable to attend school (Bines, Hazel and Philippa, 2011). Inclusive education can, as such, be understood as the presence, participation and achievement of all learners in mainstream schools (MIPIE, 2011). In this study, inclusive education means the process of giving the learners in mainstream primary schools equal learning opportunities, flexible or changeable teaching methodologies, and a way of responding to the diverse needs of learners with disabilities and other special needs. Inclusive education entails education that accommodates all learners, regardless of their differences. The attitudes and perceptions of educators concerning implementation of inclusive education are the focal point of the present study. An inclusive learning environment refers to a learning environment that regards and respects all pupils irrespective of gender, ethnicity, ability, socio-economic background or special educational needs (Eleweke, Jonah & Rodda, 2012). It does not refer only to a physical classroom, but also includes the characteristics of setting, the two key dimensions, namely, the psychosocial learning environment which covers psychological and social factors, and the physical learning environment which includes factors such as the classroom space, classroom infrastructure, arrangement of furniture, class size, classroom display and resources (Handicap International, 2013). An inclusive learning environment is a learning environment that is equally beneficial to all learners (Asrat, 2013). This involves a multi-dimensional response that acknowledges the complexity of need, and recognizes that changes will be required in school organization, support services, classroom teaching and external support (Bines, Hazel, Philippe, 2011). In this study, the inclusive learning environment entails the classroom setups, interactions between the educators and learners, as well as the school surroundings which uphold the requirements for implementation of inclusive education.

Development of Concepts: ‘Inclusion’ and ‘Disability’

There are a myriad of definitions for inclusive education, integrated education and special needs education, leading to different interpretations in policy language and implementation (Lewis, 2009). According to a UNESCO-commissioned Report on Education for All (2016), Ethiopia and Uganda utilize the terms ‘special needs education’ and ‘inclusive education’ as one concept, defined as focusing on children and students who are at risk of repeating years of study and dropping out of school due to learning difficulties, disabilities, socio-emotional problems, or are excluded from education. Further clarification, however, is needed to understand the core of the term inclusion. In the same UNESCO Report, inclusion is defined as ‘bringing about change in the education system by identifying and solving barriers to presence, participation, and achievement for every learner within mainstream settings’. This statement mentions the crucial difference between ‘inclusive education’ and ‘integrated education’, with the former demanding changes in the education system and the latter demanding changes within the learner (Kangwa & Bonati, 2017). In this context, simply placing a pupil in a primary school without the necessary adjustments in the education system does not qualify as inclusive education; rather, it is merely integrating. Inclusion is thus a ‘process’, not merely about access but also about education ‘quality and completion’ (Kangwa & Bonati, 2017).
The definition of ‘disability’ is likewise varied and deals with the concept of external barriers. This definition illuminates the idea that when people with disabilities are excluded from education, it is this exclusion that limits them, not the impairment itself (Ocloo, 2016).

The Current State of Education for Children with Disabilities and Other Special Needs in Ethiopia: the Case of Students with Visual Impairment in Northern Ethiopia

The Ministry of Education has asserted that Ethiopia cannot attain the MDG while ignoring the marginalized and those with learning difficulties and impairments (Teklemariam, Alemayehu & Temesgen and Fereja, 2011). The connection between poverty and disability is widely acknowledged (Ocloo, 2016), with disability being both a cause and a result of poverty (Handicap International, 2013). Thus, this issue is critical not only to individuals’ but also to Ethiopia’s, as well as Uganda’s development. It is therefore urgent that changes be made in the education system and society that allow for equal participation of people with disabilities in education so that they will have the opportunity to contribute to their countries’ progress. The education system in which these changes need to be made has challenges in its founding principles and structure. Special schools in many developing countries are characterized by low quality and lack of regulation (UNESCO, 2017:34). The special schools in Ethiopia and Uganda are no exception to this, and are often crowded, poorly staffed, under-resourced, and generally concentrated in urban areas.

The following example from Uganda is provided to give a brief glimpse into the special and mainstream school settings that learners with disabilities and other special needs experience. This description begins with a boarding school for learners with visual impairment, which, like many special schools, was founded by charity organizations but is now government-run. The school’s poor sanitation, overcrowded housing and inadequate child care staff reflect the immense challenges, and the ethical dilemma, of maintaining segregated schools for learners with disabilities and other special needs in an already resource-scarce context. Learners are not offered vocational or life skills training and are thus ill-prepared for life in the community; therefore, learners with disabilities and other special needs often must resort to begging after exiting the boarding school, despite having completed their primary school education. The children rarely see their families during the many years stay at school and are excluded from community life. Until very recently, however, this school was one of very few options for children with disabilities and other special needs; and every year, there are more requests for enrolment than the school can afford to accommodate.

Access to education itself is challenging to as learners must travel on foot to schools without walking canes. Due to teachers’ inability to read Braille, learners are not expected to complete homework or take notes in class, unlike their sighted peers. They are also not provided with any textbooks or learning materials. Learners with visual impairment must remain outside of their classroom during subjects that the schools deem unsuitable for categories of such learners, namely mathematics and science. Exclusion from these classes has a long-term impact on the learners’ future; without attendance in these classes the learners are excluded from these subjects in the national exams, thus disqualifying them to study or test on these subjects in primary and secondary schools. This type of pattern results in the exclusion of many university students in developing countries from certain departments,
such as science, because of the prerequisites (Peters, 2017). In light of the shortcomings of these limited educational provisions for children with disabilities, the Ugandan government established a special needs strategy focused on the inclusion of pupils in mainstream classes close to their homes (MoE, 2016). The picture of special and mainstream schools provided above supports the urgency of this strategy, but also suggests a long journey ahead. As the experience in mainstream schools shows, inclusive education is not only about children with disabilities being able to enter mainstream classrooms. Inclusion requires support, both moral and educational, and adequate resources, both human and material. The long-standing barriers integrated into the system affect their access to education and development of life skills to enable them to survive outside the classroom. Most notable is the stigma attached to learners with disabilities and other special needs in the current system.

**Literature review**

Starczewska, Hodkinson and Adams (2012) introduce the notion of perspectives on disability as alternative ways of looking at the phenomena of educational difficulty based on different sets of assumptions that lead to different explanations, different frames of reference and different kinds of questions to be addressed. In interpreting and understanding learning difficulties, the field is dominated by medical/psychological and social perspectives. The dilemma is that learning difficulties are polarized either in the individual or in social oppression.

The work of Stainback, Stainback and Jackson (2012) in this paradigm conceptualizes difficulties in learning as arising from deficits in the neurological or psychological make-up of the child, analogous to an illness or medical condition’. This is a true reflection the social control of people with disabilities and the ascendancy of professionals. Social control is exerted when a child cannot be ‘cured’ or ‘fixed’ and is therefore segregated (Starczewska, Hodkinson & Adams, 2012). This model empowers professionals and ignores the voices and rights of people with disabilities and other special needs, thereby treating them as merely incapable people in society. A number of studies, however, were carried out by external consultants that were independently funded by donors, and these seem to provide more scope for impartiality, a greater focus on social control of people with disabilities and the ascendancy of professionals’ indicators, and a greater degree of critical analysis. Sedibe (2012) critiques inclusion policy because, like the medical model, it links impairment with disability, and thus uses ‘handicapped’ to cover the problems of disability on the individual level.

Skidmore (2014) notes that this perspective led to the focus of much research on refining and designing instruments and characterizing quasi-clinical intervention; and it minimized enquiry into the implications for pedagogy and curriculum. Richmond, Irvine, Loreman, Cizman and Lupart (2013) argue that closing special schools itself contravenes human rights, notably that of parents to choose their children’s schooling. Richmond et al. (2013) suggest using ‘educational inclusion’ as an alternative to ‘mainstream inclusion’ in order to admit all types of provisions, saying: ‘this concept is not dependent on where the education takes place and is to some degree related to the idea of a curriculum entitlement for all… ‘educational inclusion’ applies to all venues and enhances the aims of ‘inclusion in the community’ as a reinforcement of statutory, full-time education through appropriate placements, and gives
parents the opportunity to express preferences for education of their children which are not constrained by the belief that mainstream placements are necessarily the most appropriate”. In the light of this, Richmond et al. (2013) suggest that placement decisions should be done on individual basis as a full inclusion ‘one size fits all’ model has little pragmatic support. Richmond et al. (2013) view this debate between full inclusion (‘radical’) and responsible inclusion as a confusion of the rhetoric of full inclusion with the reality of the situation in mainstream schools which struggle to respond effectively to a diversity of needs. In particular, little research was identified arising from within developing countries: not only a lack of studies related to the development of appropriate user interfaces using ‘educational inclusion’ as an alternative to ‘mainstream inclusion’, but also those which seek to understand user environments.

**Methodology**

The study adopted a cross-sectional survey design where data was collected from a cross-section of respondents at a single point in time. The study undertook a large scale and comprehensive survey of teachers in schools, and structured questionnaire were used to obtain respondents’ attitudes on the study variables. The data was analysed using content and thematic analysis.

**Table 1. Research Approaches used for the Study**

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<tr>
<th>Approaches Adopted</th>
<th>Area</th>
<th>Techniques</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Qualitative Techniques Adopted</td>
<td>Sampling</td>
<td>Convenient(53 sampled)</td>
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<td>Data collection</td>
<td>Surveys and Interviews</td>
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<td>Data Quality control</td>
<td>Cross Checking/Pretest</td>
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<td>Data Analysis</td>
<td>Content thematic Analysis</td>
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*Source: Primary Data (2018)*

The study applied a qualitative approach without contextualizing. The lack of contextualization led to limitations in addressing the ideological aspects of special/inclusive education in Uganda and Ethiopia. This study was also limited in acknowledging the complexity of terms and concepts such as ‘inclusion’ and ‘classroom practice’. This study assumed that there is a shared understanding of inclusion between the researcher and the participants without acknowledging that inclusion is a new concept in the Ethiopian context. This new concept may be interpreted in many different ways as it is at the international level. The Ugandan sample was drawn from 10 schools in urban and rural areas with a quite diverse population of ethnic groups and home languages. Forty-nine female and male teachers took part in eight semi-structured focus group interviews and three individual interviews. In Ethiopia, the data was collected from four rural and urban primary schools. The interview data consisted of eleven individual interviews and four group interviews and included sixteen female and male participants. A set of questionnaires based on Friedman’s burnout framework was used as the survey instrument. The background information showed that 50 per cent of the teachers performed more than one function of duty at schools. A group of less than one per cent of Ethiopian teachers had a two-year diploma in special education, whereas 73 per cent of Ugandan teachers had a certificate in special education; 30.8 per cent of Ethiopian teachers learned from colleagues; 44.2 per
cent of Ugandan teachers received additional training courses while 27 per cent of Ethiopian teachers did. Their class-size was average with approximately 25–45 students per classroom. Finally, all the data were consolidated, using the evidence from the two data sources in each country and then compared across the two countries. In order to verify the trustworthiness of the data analysis, triangulation of the data, including the comparison of the different data sources to verify themes across all sources as well as peer evaluation strategies were employed. A comparative analysis of the qualitative data collected in Phase 1 in which a questionnaire containing a scale measuring sentiments, attitudes and concerns in implementing inclusive education as well as a scale measuring teachers’ self-efficacy in implementing inclusive practices were used, indicated that whereas the overall sentiments towards disabilities are positive in both countries, teachers have several concerns on the consequences of including children with diverse learning needs including those with disabilities in their classrooms.

Table 2. Summative Methodological Orientation

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Study</th>
<th>Methodological approach</th>
<th>Result</th>
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<tr>
<td>Creswell (2014)</td>
<td>A survey to investigate the attitudes of head teachers in Uganda and Ethiopia mainstream schools towards including children with disabilities in regular classrooms.</td>
<td>The results show a variation of principals’ attitudes towards inclusion according to school level. The principals working at the secondary level showed a less positive attitude towards inclusion. Overall, however, there was strong support by the principals of the suggestion to include students with disabilities in mainstream schools in Uganda and Ethiopia.</td>
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<td>Amin (2005)</td>
<td>A survey of the opinions of 49 mainstream education teachers in Uganda and 34 teachers in Ethiopia with regard to integrating children with special needs in mainstream primary schools.</td>
<td>The results indicate that the participants were least supportive of integrating students with mental disabilities and overall were accepting of the idea of including students with visual impairment and physical disabilities in both nations.</td>
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<tr>
<td>Ragin (2011)</td>
<td>Surveyed Uganda and Ethiopia special needs education teachers’ attitudes to explore their opinion on the importance of special needs education in Uganda and Ethiopia.</td>
<td>The results indicate that special education teachers’ attitudes towards students with special needs were positive. Also, the influence of other factors such as teachers’ gender, education/training and experiences in both mainstream and special education did not have an influence on his/her attitude towards students with special needs.</td>
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<tr>
<td>Groves (2013)</td>
<td>Qualitative research including: - Documentary sources - Observation - Interviews The study aimed to develop a comprehensive description of the development and implementation of special education in Uganda and Ethiopia.</td>
<td>The findings reveal that Uganda compared to Ethiopia is at an advanced stage in terms of special educational services. This conclusion was based on a number of strengths as follows: Well developed laws that guarantee the rights of individuals with disabilities. A service delivery model imported from the West. Efforts towards integrating children with disabilities.</td>
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<tr>
<td>Basheka (2010)</td>
<td>Qualitative study on teaching assistants in the field of learning disabilities in Uganda and Ethiopia.</td>
<td>The findings indicate ignorance of the local culture and knowledge, and high reliance on an imported Western model in the field of learning difficulties in Uganda.</td>
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Findings

Findings have revealed that teachers’ attitudes, like those of parents, are extremely important in successful inclusion in schools. This issue is two-fold, including not only their beliefs about children with disabilities, but also their beliefs about themselves. Teachers who participated in an inclusive education project in Uganda expressed more uncertainty about their own abilities than about the abilities of the learners with disabilities and other special needs. This is not meant to diminish the importance of teachers’ doubts about the abilities of learners with special disabilities and other special needs; it does, however, reveal how important it is to also consider teachers’ visions of themselves and the ways in which low self-confidence, or even simply lack of understanding about disabilities, may result in failure to implement inclusive education plans. For inclusive education to work, it is critical that teachers have to believe that all learners with disabilities and other special needs are capable of learning. Other findings have revealed that teachable’ pupils are those who can learn in a lecture- and test-focused classroom without assistance. In Ethiopian mainstream schools, however, learners with disabilities (81.7%) reported that teachers did not consider learners’ needs in their teaching. Furthermore, in the same country, a number of learners with disabilities (83.9%) said that teachers’ methods did not match their needs.

The assumptions of mainstream classrooms illustrate that teachers are not fully to blame for the inability to implement inclusive education. Factors, such as large class size, test-based lessons and an often inflexible curriculum are issues which stem from the education system and are prevalent in Ethiopian schools. It is also possible that inclusion plans were implemented top-down, without input from teachers, and thus their resistance to inclusion could be a reflection of their frustration at being excluded from the planning process or not being given adequate training. Teachers also face shortages of resources: all the teachers (100%) included in the survey in Ethiopia said learners with disabilities were not provided sufficient instructional materials and the surveyed learners with disabilities (100%) agreed on this. This highlights the need for education policy leaders to acknowledge that these systemic issues that give rise to difficulties for learners with disabilities and other special needs in the classroom reveal broader challenges in an education system which is grappling with issues of quality, drop-out push out factors for all children. This idea echoes the underlying theme of inclusive education as presented by Singal (2009) and quoted in Ethiopia’s special needs education strategy, that inclusion is about meeting the needs of all learners including, not exclusively, those who are disabled (Peters, 2017). This argument can be an effective entry point for garnering political will for special needs education by locating it under the umbrella of inclusive education for all students, highlighting the benefits, and cost-effectiveness, of inclusion for society as a whole.
(Bines & Lei, 2011). As some voices in the education sector point out, however, until there is equity in educational resource distribution for students with special educational needs, there is a need for affirmative action in budgeting for these students. Otherwise, simply grouping children with special educational needs will likely perpetuate the ‘fragmented efforts’ and lack of funding that has characterized special needs education in Ethiopia that far.

A frequent barrier to resource allocation for the education of children with disabilities in developing countries is the misconception that adults with disabilities will be a burden on the system (Teklemariam, Alemayehu & Temesgen, 2011). This perception overlooks the likelihood that those instances in which people with disabilities completed their education but were not able to become economically self-sufficient, could be due to the system failing to provide them with the opportunities education affords an individual: to be empowered to take part in development efforts and develop one’s own capabilities (Teklemariam et al, 2011). To counter this, governments also need to enact supporting cross-sector legislation, which not only supports children in school, but also in employment, vocational training and health (Ocloo, 2016). To break down barriers of stigma, children with disabilities and other special needs need to be able to exhibit to the community their ability to successfully complete school, attain gainful employment and become economically independent. With less than one per cent of children with disabilities and other special needs in Ethiopia enrolled in primary schools (Ocloo, 2016) compared to 14 per cent of a similar category of children in Uganda, combined with lack of support from vocational training, universities and other options for educational opportunities, the number of success stories will likely be too low to make an impact on these negative beliefs.

In the exhaustion dimension, Ugandan teachers rated at the high level and Ethiopian teachers rated at medium in terms of activeness during teaching. In terms of support, Ugandan teachers received little or no support in acquisition of instructional materials. They neither received support from the Special Needs Education Centre nor teaching assistance when working in inclusive classrooms, even though they had the same number of learners with disabilities in the class (3–5 learners). Both the Ugandan and Ethiopian teachers rated their self-fulfillment dimension at the high level. This shows that both Ugandan and Ethiopian teachers felt fulfilled with their teaching. The findings from the interviews revealed that teachers from both countries had positive attitudes towards their students.

When considering the work environment aspect, the average mean scores were at the medium level, with the psychological dimension rated highest. The teachers felt that learners with disabilities add variability to their work, giving them challenges and satisfaction. The lowest mean score was the structural dimension, indicating that the architecture of the schools suits the needs of learners with disabilities at the medium level, being neither good nor poor.

The average mean score for the social dimension was at the medium level but the item, “the relationship with the parents of learners with disabilities is an additional burden on me” was rated lowest. This reflects the real situation in the context of sample schools which do not have many parents from the high socio-economic bracket. Consequently, teachers had to work hard to collaborate with parents of learners with disabilities. Teachers from both countries, however, did not feel that it was a real burden on them to do this.
In terms of help and support from others, teachers indicated a medium level of support and help received. The Ugandan teachers, however, did not receive help from the personnel at the Special Needs Education Centre/Education Ministry or teaching assistance like Ethiopian teachers did. This finding was supported by the data obtained from the interviews which indicated that in Ethiopia, teachers in regular schools could get help from the Special Needs Education Centre personnel when needed. In some areas in Ethiopia, schools under the jurisdiction of the local administration offices received additional budgets to hire temporary teaching assistants.

The situations identified in Ugandan and Ethiopian inclusive classrooms seemed to be different from the findings of Okello (2017), who reported that teachers without any prior experience of teaching learners with disabilities were less positive in the process of choosing a class where a child disability was included. Here, the main problem for Ugandan and Ethiopian teachers was that they had no knowledge or techniques to help them enhance the development of children with special needs. Additionally, children with special needs in regular classrooms in Ethiopia were for the most part not with physical disabilities alone -- some included those with learning disabilities. In Ethiopia, there were also a few learners with visual impairment included in the inclusive classrooms.

Regarding identifying and helping learners with disabilities, findings revealed that there were 33 responses from teachers, 76% of whom felt that schools could not accurately identify different disability types.

Some schools clearly had conducted activities to improve identification of children with disabilities and other special needs. Where schools had significantly improved identification it was due to positive working relationships, having been established with health professionals and also training and resourcing to carry out identification activities themselves. In Uganda, compared to Ethiopia, NGOs have invested in teacher training programs that target inclusion and training of other professionals to work with schools in identifying children with disabilities (CwDs). While it cannot be said that training teachers in Special Needs Education and identification of CwDs leads to increased enrolment of such children, the data collected consistently shows a correlation between these two as well as the expected increase in the identification of CwDs who are in schools already but are not yet identified. Digging further into this, the picture is found not to be uniform amongst disability types. Children with milder disabilities and those labelled as ‘slow learners’ who may have a cognitive disability or developmental delay were usually particularly tricky to identify, but attempts were made to identify them after training.

This research has found that where integration existed between services in Uganda and Ethiopia (primarily health and education), there were outstanding examples of increased access to schooling for CwDs. There was clear evidence of multi-agency work, with schools working with health professionals. When children attended hospital, the health professionals referred them to particular schools.

On whether teachers get special training on Special Needs Education after qualifying, findings revealed that the minority of the teachers interviewed in Uganda and Ethiopia had received training on inclusive education and so, the training had helped them.
This research does not demonstrate that there is no link established in some cases, and the fact that explorations of the perceptions of negative attitudes have revealed different motivations to send CwDs to school implies that we might not be as secure in the ‘knowledge’ we think we have in this area. Given the extent to which programming often includes this element, further investigation is needed and with this potential shift in mindset to listen to parents more and engage them as facilitators of inclusion. The majority of teachers that are teaching in an inclusive setting have positive attitudes towards inclusion which are supported by strong leadership, training and most importantly, exposure to CwDs.

Whilst there are similarities in approaches and aims for inclusive education across Uganda and Ethiopia, the systems of education provision for inclusion are also individual. Pupils with mild cognitive impairments (which used to be referred to, in the past as “mental retardation” in both countries) exhibited a high variability in physical abilities.

Findings from both countries indicated that they do not collect data on pupils who receive support in inclusive settings and the data indicates that 100% of pupils with special education needs are educated in segregated settings. This, however, masks the reality of the country situations, as a more qualitative examination of practice in these countries shows that Sweden in fact provides special educational needs support for over 15% of the mainstream population, but these pupils are simply not ‘counted’. In contrast, Ethiopia compared to Uganda has relatively few pupils with special educational needs in any mainstream settings.

Respondents also spoke of the importance and value of inclusive friendships. A head teacher highlighted the importance of encouraging CwDs to have a positive relationship with other children, so that they fit in an inclusive setting. CwDs have also pointed out that being in an inclusive setting and having supportive peers increased their learning opportunities. Teachers also highlighted that being with peers was a significant advantage for inclusive settings and explain that inclusive education puts CwDs in touch with the daily reality of life. In Ethiopia, it was established that many studies had found that administrators were as much, and sometimes more, of a barrier to including children with disabilities in the classroom. Thus, training education officials and school managers on issues related to inclusive education is important. Knowledge building on the ethics, delivery, and impact of inclusive education services is not sufficient. The attitudes of administrators and support staff toward educating children with disabilities in general, and toward inclusive education in particular, must be addressed.

Every student has a separate desk for sitting. Classrooms are easily accessed by pupils with physical disability. Ethiopia’s policy on inclusive education is that every one-storey school building should have at least two separate toilets -- one for boys and the other for girls. Each of the buildings should have braille. In Uganda, only one selected school had toilet facilities for children with physical disabilities. This hinders the progress of children with disabilities and other special needs, hence causing their dropping out of school and consequently affecting the objectives of inclusive education programme.
Inclusive factors

Proper categorizing of children with disabilities and other special needs by medical practitioners: Proper categorization helps teachers and other related professionals to support pupils according to their special needs. Special study materials and teaching-aids can be made available in accordance with their needs.

Stakeholders’ motivation: Teachers, the community, parents and peer motivation should be a priority for the success of the programme. All these people have to have positive attitudes towards the learners. The attitudes should not be sympathetic but supportive. They must keep in mind that CwDs and other special needs are worthy and can make a difference.

Incentives for CwDs and other special needs: ‘Food for Education’ program has been proved highly effective to increase primary enrolment in both Uganda and Ethiopia. Any such program for special needs can motivate parents and their CwDs.

In Ethiopia, CwDs and other special needs’ enrolment dramatically increased when incentives were introduced (UNESCO, 2017).

Narrowing information gap: For successful inclusion of children with disabilities and other special needs in mainstream primary education, reliable data can play vital role. Accessible database, like mainstream primary data, is highly desirable.

Mediator Role of Government: The government should play a mediator role to enhance cooperation between schools and NGOs in the transition period of recruiting new and trained teachers. These NGOs are expert in their areas and school managements can use their expertise through mutual understanding.

School infrastructure: School infrastructure in Uganda and Ethiopia, such as classroom facilities, sitting arrangement, toilets and water facilities, connective ways should be user friendly for students with disabilities. In this age of technology, classrooms and schools without ICT facilities are really dead. This is injustice towards teachers and students. It is already late. In the traditional system, a pupil without pen and paper, a classroom without chalk and duster would be funny. In this age of modern technology, a school without ICT facilities is also funny and half-dead.

Discussion

It is possible, that goals, tasks and requirements are left unchanged but the minimum requirements are reduced for CwDs and other special needs. In such cases, goals, tasks and requirements should be annexed to the curriculum for every type of disability like in special schools. Still, the major strength of an inclusive education is the socialization, which special schools are lacking. Further studies are needed, though, to identify the advantages of inclusive education which gives chances to CwDs and other special needs pupils to become full and productive members of society. The analysis presented above leads to the conclusion that the goals, tasks and requirements contained in special school curricula, albeit based on the
curriculum, cannot be implemented without the necessary changes. These requirements are in every case modified to suit the needs and capabilities of children with disabilities.

The general goals and tasks of education take into consideration that pupils with disabilities might not be able to keep up with the pace of their ordinary peers, so extra time or longer time periods are given to catch up with the others. Both inclusive and special education emphasise the importance of holistic education and the complex way of development (Dedan, 2018). The structures of those documents tend to be alike but in special education documents the modifications are mentioned right after the general goals, tasks and requirements. Special schools differ according to the severity of disabilities of pupils which is, obviously, not included in the curriculum. Adapted Physical Education and Physical Education (PE) play a more important role in the special education curricula, while in the National Curriculum Development Centre (NCDC) of Uganda only between 10 and 12 per cent of the scheduled time is allotted to the domain of Physical Education and Sport, which equals to two PE classes per week. In special education, motor control and rehabilitation are in the centre of general education and development, but in the inclusive education it is considered as one of the easiest and less important educational domains. The curriculum, which is the national document of inclusive education, does not force the content or instruct how to modify goals, tasks or requirements in case CwDs and other special needs learners attend given schools. It may be further assumed that physical activity schedule in special schools is more suitable for children with disabilities and subject to regular revision (Okello, 2017:34). Also, goals, tasks and requirements need to be modified so that pupils with disabilities can meet the requirements listed in the curriculum. It is also possible that goals, tasks and requirements are left unchanged but the minimum requirements are reduced for CwDs and other special needs learners. In such cases, goals, tasks and requirements should be annexed to the curriculum for every type of disability like in special schools. Still, the major strength of an inclusive education is the socialization, which special schools are lacking. Further studies are needed, though, to identify the advantages of inclusive education in Uganda and Ethiopia which give chances to CwDs and other special needs learners to become full and productive members of society.

**Conclusion**

Expert and efficient teachers who can use sign language and properly deal with learning difficulties and behavioural disorders are scarce in Uganda and Ethiopia. Public school teachers, lacking the required knowledge and motivation, refuse to teach CwDs and other special needs learners. Teachers complain of the unsuitable curriculum, which encourages no individual thinking, plans or projects. School organization and management cause difficulties for children with disabilities, notably in timetabling. School administration and parents do not sufficiently appreciate the needs and challenges of children with disabilities and the requirements as this may eventually isolate them in school. Inclusive education extends beyond special needs arising from disabilities, and includes other sources of disadvantage and marginalization, such as gender, poverty, language and ethnicity.
Recommendations

The findings indicate that the characteristics of Uganda and Ethiopia mainstream schools promote exclusion practices and negative attitudes, such as an inflexible curriculum, an exam-orientated system, traditional teaching methods and teacher-centred assessments. Parents need to organize themselves and challenge exclusionary practices in the current educational system. They can do this through support from governments and non-government organizations if they are empowered to support inclusive practices with the necessary information to let them engage themselves in their children’s education.

The general educational system’s policy and practice should be re-evaluated to adopt more inclusive practices. Barriers in schools could be surmounted by various strategies: inter-agency co-operation, sharing vision, improving communication channels and acknowledging the importance of supportive leadership in relation to inclusive education (Smith, 2014).

Schools might consider providing administrative and professional support for teachers so that they can confidently plan and organize appropriate curriculum and assessment materials, adjusted to the level of all learners, adopting co-operative learning approaches with innovative learning activities. These approaches can be enhanced by school head teachers through their leadership skills. Preparing the school environment for inclusive education requires long-term planning, since inclusion is a new concept in the Ugandan context. Long-term planning should focus on a differentiation approach, which values the individuals’ differences instead of the current dominant culture of undifferentiated provision.

It may be concluded that teachers in both Uganda and Ethiopia should receive continuous support and training in order to meet the needs of students with disabilities. If they do, the situation relating to the management of inclusive classrooms in both countries can proceed. Some schools in both countries, however, have inadequate and insufficient teaching materials. Teachers still develop materials by investing their own money. While this reflects teachers’ positive attitude toward their work with CwDs and other special needs learners, it is suggested that school policy should be clear about the management of inclusive classrooms and that, in addition, government should provide both moral and material support for teachers who work with CwDs and other special needs children. There should be a specific budget for an inclusive education programme that will cover the CwDs and teachers’ incentives, equipment, ICT opportunities, facilities improvement and transport and accommodation coverage for children with multiple disabilities. Special Needs Education centres, academics, and university units should join to help teachers develop continuous improvement in their instructional techniques. At the same time, the Ministry of Education should be seriously and sincerely promoting the policy of “Education for All” along with a strategy to improve all students’ academic achievement.
References


