

**Disparities within Policy on Equity and Inclusion across Educational Concepts and
Social Groups at both International and National Contexts:
A Trade-off between Needs and Realities in Cambodia**

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TABLE OF CONTENTS

Abstract	5
Dedication	9
Acknowledgements	10
List of Acronyms	15
List of Tables	16
List of Figures	17
Chapter 1 Introduction and Background of the Study	18
1.1 Research Background	18
<i>1.1.1 Educational equity and inclusion within the international development agenda</i>	18
<i>1.1.2 Academic literature to the study on educational equity and inclusion</i>	20
<i>1.1.3 The individual and social models of disability in education</i>	22
<i>1.1.4 Definitions of educational equity and inclusion and social groups</i>	23
<i>1.1.5 Different definitions of educational concepts on equity and inclusion</i>	25
<i>1.1.6 Historical background and definitions on the concept of inclusion (diversity)</i>	25
<i>1.1.7 The situation of out of school children worldwide and in Cambodia</i>	28
1.2 Description of the Problem and Problem Statements	29
1.3 Research Questions and Purposes	31
1.4 Rationale and Significance	34
1.5 Research Methodology and Design	37
1.6 A Note on the Scope	42
1.7 Structure of Dissertation	43
Chapter 2 Literature Review	47
2.1 Sociology of Education: Approaches and Theories on the Study on Equity of Education ..	48
<i>2.1.1 The functionalist approach</i>	49
<i>2.1.2 The social or cultural reproduction theory and approach</i>	50
<i>2.1.3 The cultural relativist approach and the pluralist approach</i>	51
<i>2.1.4 The methodological individualism approach</i>	52
<i>2.1.5 Fair respect for differences</i>	54
2.2 History on the Concept of Educational Equity and Inclusion	58
<i>2.2.1 History of extermination and exclusion</i>	58
<i>2.2.2 Human rights approach: from exclusion to inclusion</i>	62
<i>2.2.3 Human rights approach: inclusion in the context of developing countries</i>	67
<i>2.2.4 Human rights approach: international instruments for inclusion</i>	69
<i>2.2.5 Human rights approach: equity concepts in international organizations</i>	79
2.3 The Definitions of Inclusion (Diversity) by International Organizations	83
2.4 The Effectiveness Approach	89
2.5 The Individual Model and the Social Model of Disability	90
<i>2.5.1 The individual model of disability</i>	91

2.5.2 <i>The social model of disability</i>	92
2.5.3 <i>Applying the two models within the field of education</i>	93
2.6 Definition on Social Groups labeled as “Disadvantaged” or “At-risk” in Academic Research	97
Chapter 3 Research and Conceptual Framework	100
3.1 Background to the Concept of Educational Equity and Inclusion	100
3.2 Traditional Forms of Measuring Educational Equity Concepts.....	102
3.3 A New Approach and Perspective in Measuring Educational Equity Concepts	105
3.4 Overall Research and Conceptual Framework	106
3.4.1 <i>Equity concepts and indicators for development</i>	106
3.4.2 <i>The new core pillar on inclusion (diversity)</i>	111
Chapter 4 Employed Research Methodology and Data Sources.....	114
4.1 Introduction	114
4.2 The Overall SABER Framework.....	116
4.3 The Pilot-SABER Rubric on Equity and Inclusion.....	118
4.3.1 <i>The structure of the pilot-SABER rubric on equity and inclusion</i>	118
4.3.2 <i>The purposes of utilizing the pilot-SABER rubric on equity and inclusion</i>	121
4.4 Methodology 1: Categories of Disadvantaged Groups and Types of Schooling	123
4.4.1 <i>Data sources</i>	123
4.4.2 <i>Description of the main methodology</i>	126
4.5 Methodology 2-A: Using the Pilot-SABER Rubric at the International Policy Level	127
4.5.1 <i>Data sources</i>	127
4.5.2 <i>Description of the main methodology</i>	128
4.6 Methodology 2-B: Using the Pilot-SABER Rubric at the National Policy Level in Cambodia	131
4.6.1 <i>Data sources</i>	131
4.6.2 <i>Description of the main methodology</i>	133
4.7 Summary	134
Chapter 5 Comparative Data Analysis of EFA NPAs and EFA 2000 Assessment Reports.....	136
5.1 Introduction	136
5.2 Guidelines on EFA 2000 Assessment Reports and EFA NPAs	136
5.2.1 <i>Overview on the guideline of EFA 2000 Assessment Reports</i>	136
5.2.2 <i>Overview on the guideline of the EFA National Plan of Action</i>	138
5.3 Key Findings	141

5.3.1 Part one based on comparison of SEN based on disadvantaged or at-risk groups	141
5.3.2 Part two based on comparison of SEN based on inclusion (diversity) by category	142
5.3.3 Part three based on comparison of SEN based on inclusion (diversity) by country	146
5.3.4 Comparison of SEN based on inclusion (diversity) by reports and plans	151
5.4 Comparison of Educational Patterns and Progress for the Social Group defined by Disability	155
5.4.1 PATTERN A and PATTERN B	157
5.4.2 PATTERN C	159
5.4.3 PATTERN D	165
5.4.4 PATTERN E	170
5.5 Conclusion	172
Chapter 6 Comparative Data Analysis of 2008 National Country Reports	175
6.1 Introduction	175
6.2 Review of Research Questions and Purposes in using the Pilot-SABER Rubric on Equity and Inclusion	177
6.3 Key Findings	178
6.3.1 Part one based on four educational equity concepts according to the income level	178
6.3.2 Part two based on four educational equity concepts according to the educational status	186
6.3.3 Part three based on educational equity concepts according to five social groups	194
6.4 Conclusion	198
Chapter 7 Comparative Data Analysis of Policy related to Educational Equity and Inclusion within the Context of Cambodia	202
7.1 Introduction	202
7.2 Children with Disabilities in Cambodia	204
7.3 Current Situation of all Social Groups in Cambodia	206
7.3.1 Economic, social and cultural factors affecting the current situation of social groups	206
7.3.2 The current educational status of all social groups	212
7.3.3 General overview of inclusive education in Cambodia	217
7.4 Key Findings	219
7.4.1 Part one based on equity of access in legislation, education systems and budget allocation	220
7.4.2 Part two based on equity of resource inputs for quality of education in legislation, education systems and budget allocation	229
7.4.3 Part three based on equity of learning outcomes for quality of education in legislation, education systems and budget allocation	234
7.4.4 Part four based on on inclusion (diversity) for quality of education in legislation, education systems and budget allocation	236
7.5 Conclusion	237

Chapter 8 Discussion and Reflections on Findings and Concluding Remarks	241
8.1 Summary of Data Analysis	241
8.2 Key Findings in relation to the Research Questions	245
8.3 Challenging and Applying Academic Theories from Two Approaches to Key Findings ..	255
<i>8.3.1 The theory of justice through the lens of allocative justice</i>	255
<i>8.3.2 Applying the theory of allocative justice in relation to budget and sensitivity</i>	257
<i>8.3.3 Applying the theories of individual and social models of disability</i>	261
8.4 Policy Implications and Concluding Remarks.....	264
Bibliography.....	267
Appendices.....	276

Abstract

Since the launch of the movement of Education for All (EFA) in Jomtien (Thailand), in 1990 and the adoption of the Dakar Framework for Action in 2000, many governments have been actively committed to achieving the six EFA goals. As a result, the promotion of inclusive education has been incorporated into the international agenda and issues of equity and inclusion in education have been discussed in numerous policy documents and conferences. Incorporating inclusive education practices through national policies into education systems is essential if the countries wish to achieve Education for All. Furthermore, recent and ongoing international discussions on the post-2015 agenda address issues of educational equity and inclusion (diversity) from the perspectives of both access and quality. These discussions now encompass the last five to ten percent of the population, who continue to be marginalized and vulnerable. Developing countries should seek out innovative ways to achieve this in low-resource settings and thereby pave the way to educational equity and inclusion of all children.

Studies on educational equity and inclusion (diversity) can be understood from different perspectives and angles, but “it is a difficult concept, with the existence of different interpretations, varying by country and academic discipline.” (World Bank, 2006, p. 18) Numerous research have been conducted on various demographic variables clustering persons into strata or groups. Such studies have been conducted separately for major groups defined by factors such as gender, ethnicity, poverty and community type whether rural or urban. However, comprehensive quantitative, qualitative and empirical comparative research and analysis

targeting all types of vulnerable groups remain unexplored. Not only thorough investigation on the major social groups, but research into a wider spectrum of educational equity concepts in the educational system is also limited. For instance, educational equity concepts on access and quality are often utilized to assess or evaluate inequities or inequalities that exist in the educational system. On the other hand, the dimension on quality is quite often focused only on resource inputs, outputs as well as student outcomes. This research study further goes on to investigate whether educational equity is found on aspects of embracing diversity and promoting inclusive education in classroom settings for all major social groups. In other words, is there educational equity and inclusion or should there be equity and inclusion in education?

This research study has aimed to make an empirical contribution highlighting existing policy disparities across different educational concepts and social groups at the international and national (local) levels, from the perspective of policy, taking the case study of inclusive education in Cambodia. It determines and compares the levels of policy commitment to inclusive educational equity and inclusion (diversity) for marginalized children by national governments using an original methodology. It consists of an unique standardized policy benchmarking tool named as the pilot-SABER rubric to assess a total of 77 country policy documents qualitatively. The targeted policy documents include three types; the 2000 EFA Assessment Reports, EFA National Plans of Action, 2008 National Reports on the Development of Education and all other available policy reports concerning inclusive education

in Cambodia. All of these policy documents totaling 130 sources researched within the context of Cambodia have been studied through the eyes of the local context.

In brief, according to this quantitative and qualitative comparative policy study, issues on educational equity and inclusion of five identified disadvantaged groups of children are not fully addressed and also practiced as it should be in principle. In other words, educational equity and inclusion (diversity) of inclusive education as stated in the Salamanca Statement are not necessarily addressed in worldwide policies. In addition, it investigates the reasons on how and why such disparities across educational equity concepts and major social groups are existent, by analyzing which kinds of external factors have an impact on the development of policy at the international level.

Furthermore, this dissertation also examines the level of policy commitment of the government of Cambodia in achieving educational equity and inclusion (diversity) for marginalized social groups of children. It focuses again on five areas of systemic and/or cultural variables; gender, ethnicity, disability, poverty and geographical location (rural/urban). It again makes an analysis on Cambodia's policy frameworks from four educational equity concepts; equity of access, equity of resource inputs and equity of learning outcomes for educational quality; and inclusion (diversity). It similarly uses the original pilot-SABER framework on equity and inclusion (diversity) to evaluate policy through qualitative desk review analysis of 130 policy documents. The first purpose is to see whether there are disparities along factors of

major social groups in relation to the educational equity concepts in the education system which have been benchmarked by the newly developed equity indicators within the framework of the pilot-SABER rubric. The second purpose to explore whether there are disparities existent within the different educational equity concepts themselves and to investigate how and why those disparities arise through the eyes of the local context in Cambodia.

As stated in the first part of worldwide policy analysis, Cambodia has developed numerous significant policies in terms of educational equity and inclusion (diversity) for vulnerable children, particularly for children with disabilities and ethnic minorities. However, targeted groups of disadvantaged children are very limited and implementation strategies are incorporated without adequate governmental governance structure in place.

Dedication

Especially to those around the world and in Cambodia who are working to dedicate their tremendous efforts for children with disabilities and those who are vulnerable and marginalized due to various disadvantages such as gender, ethnicity, poverty, rural and urban areas, towards realizing schooling and education environments that are more equitable and inclusive.

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List of Acronyms

ADB- Asia Development Bank

CEDAW- Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination against Women

CFS- Child Friendly School

CRC- Convention on the Rights of the Child

CRPD- Convention on the Rights of Persons with Disabilities

CWD- Children with Disabilities

EFA- Education for All

ESP- Education Strategic Plan

IBE- International Bureau of Education

IE- Inclusive Education

KT- Krousar Thmey

MOEYS- Ministry of Education, Youth and Sport, Cambodia

MOSAVY- Ministry of Social Affairs, Veteran and Youth Rehabilitation, Cambodia

NEP- NGO Education Partnership

NPA- National Plans of Action

OECD- Organization for Economic Cooperation and Development

SABER- Systems Approach for Better Education Results

SEN- Special Education Needs

SEO- Special Education Office

SNE- Special Needs Education

UNDP- United Nations Development Programme

UNESCO- United Nations, Education, Science and Culture Organization

UNICEF- United Nations Children's Fund

WB- World Bank

List of Tables

Table 1-1: Pilot-SABER Rubric on Equity and Inclusion based on four equity concepts/perspectives.....	40
Table 1-2: Pilot-SABER Rubric on Equity and Inclusion based on inclusion (diversity)	40
Table 2-1: What inclusion is about by UNESCO.....	84
Table 3-1: Definitions of separate and integrated institutional systems.....	101
Table 4-1: General framework using the Pilot SABER Rubric on Equity and Inclusion	122
Table 4-2: Number of countries in Africa and Asia and number of reports/plans by language	125
Table 4-3: Categories of groups with Special Education Needs (SEN).....	127
Table 4-4: Pilot-SABER Rubric on Equity and Inclusion based on three equity concepts/perspectives	130
Table 4-5: Pilot-SABER Rubric on Equity and Inclusion based on inclusion (diversity)	131
Table 5-1: Reference to disadvantaged groups by number of reports and plans.....	141
Table 5-2: Total number of reports and plans by categories of SEN.....	143
Table 5-3: Priority categories of groups with Special Education Needs (SEN).....	144
Table 5-4: Total number of special education needs by total number of countries.....	148
Table 5-5: Five patterns of educational provision for persons with disabilities.....	157
Table 7-1: Names used for certain types of disabilities in Cambodia	209
Table 7-2: International conventions ratified by the Government of Cambodia.....	221

List of Figures

Figure 2-1: History of Special Needs Education (SNE): IE as an emerging alternative.....	66
Figure 2-2: Individual model vs Social model of disability.....	94
Figure 3-1: Indicators of quality of education.....	103
Figure 3-2: Research and conceptual framework of the author	110
Figure 4-1: The 13 domains of the SABER framework.....	117
Figure 4-2: A partial list of collected data sources in Cambodia: legislation/laws, polices/plans, administrative frameworks, programs, projects and budget documents	132
Figure 5-1: Total number of SEN by the total number of 2000 Assessment Reports and EFA NPAs.....	153
Figure 5-2: Total number of SEN by country and total number of reports/plans	154
Figure 6-1: Four educational equity concepts for low income countries.....	179
Figure 6-2: Four educational equity concepts for lower middle income countries.....	181
Figure 6-3: Four educational equity concepts for upper middle income countries.....	183
Figure 6-4: Four educational equity concepts for high income countries.....	185
Figure 6-5: Four educational equity concepts for countries with NER lower than 80%	188
Figure 6-6: Four educational equity concepts for countries with NER between 80% to 90%	190
Figure 6-7: Four educational equity concepts for countries with NER higher than 90%	192
Figure 6-8: All educational equity concepts and percentage of patterns for social groups defined by gender, ethnicity, poverty and rural/urban.....	195
Figure 6-9: All educational equity concepts and percentage of patterns for the social group defined by disability.....	196
Figure 8-1: Disparities observed in policy on four educational equity concepts at the international and national levels.....	255

Chapter 1 Introduction and Background of the Study

The primary aim of this introductory and background chapter is to examine the main purpose of research with implications on its significance in both academic and professional fields of educational equity and inclusion (diversity) worldwide. Its particular attention is given to special education needs and inclusive education in the context of developing countries, targeting disadvantaged children in Cambodia. First, the research background through highlighting the literature review will be briefly explored, followed by stating the description of the problems and research questions and its purposes of research. Second, discussion on the rationale and its expected significance of this research will be made explicit with a mention of the originality to this study hereinafter. And thirdly, a general presentation on the outline of the research methodology and design will be explored, concluding with a note on the scope and limitations as well as an explanation on the structure of the dissertation will be thoroughly presented.

1.1 Research Background

1.1.1 Educational equity and inclusion within the international development agenda

Ever since the movement was launched at the World Conference on Education for All (hereinafter, EFA) in 1990 in Jomtien, and the adoption of the Dakar Framework for Action in

2000, national governments have been active towards attaining the six EFA goals. Besides the important framework of EFA, the other over-arching and influential movement is the Millennium Development Goals (hereinafter, MDGs) adopted in 2000 which include universal primary schooling. While much has been achieved by the international community until present, the failure to reach the marginalized population has deprived many children from their right to quality education. In other words, the issue of educational equity encompassing even the last five to ten percent of the population who continue to be vulnerable and marginalized will continue to be a major challenge in attaining the current 2015 agenda and beyond 2015. Within the discourse of the most recent international discussions directly linked to EFA and the scope of the post-2015 agenda, it is noteworthy to mention here that The Muscat Agreement adopted in May 2014 highlights keywords on “equity and inclusion” (UNESCO, 2014). It is important for developing countries to seek out innovative ways to achieve inclusive education in low-resource settings and thereby pave the way to educational equity and inclusion (diversity) of all children.

Tracing back the academic literature on equity and education, firstly, the concept of “equity” contains various connotations including parity, disparity, justice, injustice, fairness, inequity, equality, inequality and inclusion. Thus, the study on “equity” can be understood from different perspectives and angles and as stated by the World Bank (2006), “it is a difficult concept, with a history of different interpretations, varying by country and academic

disciplines”. (p.18) In this research, literature will be reviewed concerning the term “equity” through the academic discipline of sociology of education.

1.1.2 Academic literature to the study on educational equity and inclusion

The study on equity of education can be evaluated through concepts of equality in education. However, before discussing the issue of equality, as stipulated by Evans (2002), the concept of exclusion was first popularized in 1974 in France, by Rene Lenoir at a time when the term social exclusion was used to refer to the physically disabled, mentally disabled and the socially maladjusted. In addition, it was Lenoir himself who recognized the need to improve social and economic conditions and to strengthen social cohesion. Ever since the time of this first popularization of the concept of social exclusion, in the recent years, the term social exclusion has expanded to include those with disadvantages which has taken expansion and a more elaborated meaning not just limited to the disabled.

Besides the concept of social exclusion, literature review on the study of equity in education reveals the fact that the issue has been often discussed through the lens of inequality. The most typical works are Bourdieu and Passeron (1977), Rawls (1972), Coleman (1990) and Sen (1992). Bourdieu and Passeron (1971) apply the social or cultural reproduction theory to explain the reproduction of social inequalities in schools. The social capital theory also follows the cultural reproduction theory by describing the roles of communities. Around the same time, Rawls (1972) analyzes inequality in the sense of justice, fairness, difference and the distribution

principle. These principles are justified through the theory of justice emphasizing that inequalities can be tolerated only if they improve everyone's well-being, particularly that of the disadvantaged. And later works on inequality of education such as by Oxenham (1985) reveal that it is education that should mitigate the random inequities of nature and that every person should have an unequal opportunity to excel in ways that are not constrained by natural differences. This conception has led the academia in the modern and post-modern periods of time to introduce new concepts on international comparison of equality of educational opportunity and fair respect for differences. Moreover, according to Terzi (2008), "the basic heterogeneities of human beings or empirical facts of human diversity is crucial in assessing the demands of equality." (p.87) It is also interesting to note how human diversity is related to equality as in the following statement, "(h)uman diversity is no secondary complication (to be ignored, or to be introduced 'later on'); it is a fundamental aspect of our interest in equality." (Sen, 1992, pp. xi)

As stated by Sen in the above quoted sentences, it mentions about how human diversity is considered as no secondary complication but as a fundamental aspect of our interest in searching for equality. From here, it can be well interpreted that international comparison of equality of educational opportunity and fair respect for differences are principles which were of keen interests among academic researchers in the modern and post-modern eras. From here, this research study will move forward to the academic literature which derives its history from

special education referred to as the individual model and the social model. Prior to that, it will take a brief moment to mention how academic theories will be applied and attempt to make an academic contribution from literature deriving mainly from Rawls (1972) on the principles of difference, distribution principle and the allocative justice. These main theories will be mainly utilized and applied to provide an explanation to answering the research questions on “how” and “why” there are disparities existent in policy within different educational equity concepts and also different targeted social groups between the international and national levels. The reasons behind such disparities in policy across these various dimensions will closely be looked at in terms of the question of “sensitivity” and “budget”.

1.1.3 The individual and social models of disability in education

And next, this sub-section will move on to briefly explore the discussion arising from the individual and the social models of special education and inclusive education.

Disablement is instead caused by the oppression of social and economic structure on disabled individuals who are, consequently, the oppressed group in society. The causal link between impairment and disability in trying to overcome oppression. If the individual model sees disability as a restriction of activity caused by impairment, the social model aims at breaking this link by maintaining that disability is caused by institutional and social discrimination. (Oliver, 1966, p. 152)

As stated above, Oliver was the first pioneers to introduce the concept of the individual model and the social model of disability. In his principle, as it will be more explored in depth at a later stage, basically, the individual model demanded change and rehabilitation of the disabled people themselves. Whereas the social model of disability in turn demanded for change in the society and welcomed inclusion on the concept of diversity. These two models closely links to academic literature and theories as introduced by Bourdieu and Passeron, Durkheim and Parsons, Rawls, Coleman and Sen. This explanation will be further provided in the section of literature review. However, in this introductory section here, it will mention that applying these models of the individual model and the social model of disability will also be used likewise on the part of analysis and discussion within the scope and process of investigation on the relationship between policy and inclusive education. More specifically, analysis looking deeply into the reasons of “how” and “why” disparities are existent will be discussed in relationship to these two models of disability as well.

1.1.4 Definitions of educational equity and inclusion and social groups

Definitions to equity of education are also given by different important international organizations, UNESCO (2010), World Bank (2006) and OECD (2012). They include concepts as already suggested previously by academic researchers including fairness and inclusion, marginalization, equal opportunity and avoidance of absolute deprivation. Most of these concepts derives from academic literature including Rawls (1972). Another important and

critical aspect about the study of equity of education is the selection of “target groups”. Numerous studies have been conducted by different researchers including Haug (1977), Secada (1989), Green (1983) and Davis and McCaul (1977), but in summary, the demographic variables are often used to characterize or cluster persons into strata or groups. The major groups of marginalized, disadvantaged and/or vulnerable groups include ones as defined by gender, ethnicity, disability, income gap and rural/urban. This dissertation will also examine and look at these social groups which represent the major strata of social groups.

As concepts of equity have been briefly explored, it must be mentioned here that this dissertation will primarily focus on equity through the lens of educational equity and inclusion (diversity). The term educational equity and inclusion (diversity) will be explored in depth in the literature review chapter, but it is worth to note some of its characteristics. As previously stated, equity from literature review often entails its relationship in terms of “inequity” or “inequality” of social, cultural, and economic factors which are contextual results. As a result of these inequalities in society, groups defined by gender, ethnicity, disability, poverty and rurality have been identified as major strata of vulnerable groups. These groups have been identified through academic literature as briefly explained previously. Furthermore, the author’s analysis which has been conducted based on two main sources namely as the EFA National Plans of Action and the 2000 EFA Assessment Plans have also been utilized to identify the groups of disadvantaged population in society.

1.1.5 Different definitions of educational concepts on equity and inclusion

Moreover, equity concepts in the educational system are often measured in terms of access and quality of resource inputs, outputs and outcomes. However, in addition to these contextual results and equity concepts within the educational system, in this particular study, “equity” will be explored through another additional perspective or angle. That is, the equity concept of diversity and inclusive education. In other words, inclusion (diversity) is a new and additional educational equity concept in comparison to the most traditional ways of examining equity concepts and this particular and additional dimension has been added to the educational system of internal results along with equity of educational quality in outputs and outcomes. This dissertation will focus on equity based on the recognition of inclusion, inclusivity and embracing diversity as stated in the Salamanca Statement of 1994. Hence, two main dimensions on the quality of education will be examined in this particular study. Later on in the chapters, the author’s added new framework on educational equity concepts and equity indicators for policy development will be thoroughly explained in depth for further clarification. And lastly, it will be noted here that this main research framework will also be utilized to compare, investigate and apply the academic theories from two different approaches.

1.1.6 Historical background and definitions on the concept of inclusion (diversity)

And next, the historical background and the definition to the study on inclusion and the notion of inclusion (diversity) will be explained. According to Ainscow and Miles (2008), “(i)t

presumes that the aim of inclusive education is to eliminate social exclusion that is a consequence of attitudes and responses to diversity in race, social class, ethnicity, religion, gender and ability.” (p. 16)

Historically speaking, children with special needs were generally excluded from the educational system itself before the 1960s and 1970s (Balescut and Eklinth, 2006). Physical and social barriers excluded and denied these persons from the society and prevented them from participating within the educational system. A gradual shift from a human rights perspective in the 1960s and 1970s led to initial efforts consisting of specialized programs, institutions and specialist educators which all functioned outside the mainstream education system. And eventually, dissatisfaction with special education developed a new approach namely as special needs education which consisted of integration. The integrated education signified an educational system limited for children with disabilities physically within ordinary schools, but in specialized classrooms with trained teachers or in the form of sharing several hours of the same class with non-disabled children in ordinary schools. But the Salamanca Statement in 1994 has become the impetus to the notion of inclusion. This Statement suggested radical changes to the form of integration which signified a brand new concept of accepting a diverse range of special needs or excluded groups not only limited to the disabled. As clearly articulated, the term special needs encompasses a wide range of needs beyond disability, including special needs caused by diverse vulnerabilities such as gender, ethnicity, income gap, rurality and even

multiple disadvantages needing additional care. Furthermore, the Statement explored innovative ways of reforming the school environment to accommodate all needs of children and youth. Moreover, inclusion is regarded as improving and enriching the quality of education in classrooms in a way that children with special needs would stimulate and influence those without special needs in a positive way, learning from one another and eliminating discriminatory attitudes. In other words, inclusive education is regarded as a positive response to diversity and anti-discrimination.

The present definition of inclusion and inclusive education itself remains ambiguous when we explore the definitions used and practiced by various countries worldwide. For instance, some countries still tend to use the term inclusion targeting only children with disabilities, whereas other countries use inclusive education for all children needing special attention and care. However, inclusion has two fundamental objectives and roles as highlighted in the principles of the 1994 Salamanca Statement, distinguishing itself from the traditional integrated education system. First, inclusive educational settings in principle should accommodate all special needs of excluded or disadvantaged children and youth, not solely limited to disabilities. For instance, the special needs of girls, children from ethnic minorities, rural areas and poor families should be addressed appropriately to promote their schooling opportunities and also to improve their quality of education. Second, inclusive patterns in principle should also improve and enrich the quality of education in school classrooms and

children's learning abilities. Specifically speaking, non-cognitive skills of all children referring to behavioral change and attitudes would be stimulated and influenced positively to combat discriminatory attitudes towards children needing special care.

1.1.7 The situation of out of school children worldwide and in Cambodia

From another perspective, according to the World Bank (2003), there is an estimated 40 million children with disabilities who are out of school with an estimated total of 115 million out of school children. Moreover, it is estimated that among the 40 million children with disabilities, those who manage to complete primary schooling are less than 5%. UNESCO (2005b) estimates a total of 140 million out of school children of which the “majority” are children with disabilities and girls. As for UNICEF, Habibi (1999) estimates that out of the 150 million children with disabilities, only 3% of them from developing countries are enrolled in schools. As clearly indicated in the figures above, a consensus in identifying children with disabilities together with their schooling status itself is a constraint. Moreover, according to UNESCO (2009b) “98% of children with disabilities in developing countries didn't attend schools; or it can be said that less than 10% of them had access to any form of education” (pp.7-8)

In terms of the Cambodian context, it will very briefly take note of some indicators and statistics related to disabilities and education. UNICEF (2009) reports that in some recent estimates, 25% to 35% of children with disabilities may never have attended school and the

situation in Cambodia is more critical than in most countries because it has one of the highest rates of disabilities in the world. A study conducted by Handicap International in 2012 on childhood disability in Cambodia reports that 1 out of every 10 children aged 2 to 9 years old has a disability (Catholic Relief Services Cambodia, 2013). Along with the rate of disability prevalence in Cambodia, this country also encounters other continuing difficulties in terms of educational equity and inclusion (diversity). For instance, UNICEF (2009) reports serious challenges remaining with regard to disparities between urban, rural and remote areas. Also, education and development in the ethnic minority areas lag far behind the rest of the country. In particular, women and girls are especially the foremost challenge from ethnic minorities as only few people speak the national language.

1.2 Description of the Problem and Problem Statements

Hence, this particular research study has taken four problem statements surrounding the study on equity of education and inclusion (diversity). First of all, the issue on educational equity concepts encompasses aspects about social, cultural, economic and educational inequalities for major social groups as defined by gender, ethnicity, disability, poverty and rurality. Educational equity concepts in the educational system include access, two dimensions about quality which are quality of inputs and quality of outputs and outcomes. These two dimensions on educational equity concepts in the educational system which are traditional ways of measuring educational equity have not yet been conducted comprehensively, looking at all

major social groups as defined by gender, ethnicity, disability, poverty and rurality. In other words, empirical research for policy development on educational equity concepts in the educational system for the two dimensions have not yet been conducted for all the five social major groups worldwide to promote policy development.

Second of all, measuring, assessing and evaluating these educational equity concepts in the educational system about access and quality of inputs and outputs based on all five social groups defined by gender, ethnicity, disability, poverty and rurality in an empirical method needs a framework to measure whether there is educational equity for each of the social groups, needing equity indicators for policy development. The development of such a framework to assess equity using qualitative benchmarking equity indicators needs to be developed for better development of policies worldwide.

Third of all, as mentioned above, the traditional way of evaluating educational equity concepts in the educational system include two main dimensions on access and quality of inputs, outputs and outcomes. However, this dissertation investigating equity as educational equity and inclusion (diversity) suggests a new type of dimension, which will be the fourth dimension on inclusion (diversity) and inclusive education. This additional and fourth dimension plays a very prominent role in this fields of inclusion (diversity) and inclusive education, as no empirical research on “fair respect for difference” or “embracing diversity” or “learning together” have yet been undertaken in this field of equity in education. This fourth new dimension will serve

as a key to determine how diverse worldwide countries interpret the notion of “embracing diversity” and “inclusion”, as well as whether worldwide countries are undertaking inclusive education as stated in the principles of the Salamanca Statement.

And lastly, given the historical research background of major social groups in Cambodia, what exactly are or have been the policy developments and progress for all social groups including those defined by gender, ethnicity, disability, poverty and geographical location, either rural or urban. As of today, although policy developments have been actively observed for some disadvantaged groups, it seems that equity and embracing diversity to promote equal access and quality education based on inclusion (diversity) are not fully addressed, lacking policy on equity and inclusion (diversity) for all social strata of groups.

1.3 Research Questions and Purposes

Hence, the research questions and purposes primarily consist of the following four major questions directed at two different levels. To explain first about the two different levels, this research study will primarily look at the situation of policy based on two different levels classified as the international level and the national level, referring to the case study of inclusive education in Cambodia. Based on these two sets of levels, the research questions are comprised of “for whom?”, “and what?”, “and how?” and “and why?”

First of all, for whom is there policy on equity of education worldwide and at the local context level? In other words, concerning equity of education measured at the international

policy level, who are the target groups of different socially excluded children in terms of those defined by gender, ethnicity, disability, poverty and rurality? Second of all, and what are the different target patterns observed for those identified social groups across various kinds of educational equity concepts? Here, the educational equity concepts refer to four concepts including equity of access, equity of resource inputs for quality of education, equity of learning outcomes for quality of education and inclusion (diversity).

Additionally, the second “and what” question is also directed to address the disparities observed between the social groups. Concerning the perspectives of various educational equity concepts, what are the differences and the gaps observed between disability and other socially excluded groups of children of which are gender, ethnicity, poverty and rurality?

To continue, the second half of the research questions on “and how?” and “and why?” are constructed with the goal of aiming to answer the critical points of discussion of this research study. Third of all, and how is policy for the targeted social groups as in the intended target patterns affected by which kinds of external factors such as economic, educational, cultural and social aspects? And last of all, and why are there disparities existent in policy within different educational equity concepts and also within different social groups defined by gender, ethnicity, disability, poverty and rurality between international and national policy levels? With respect to the last research question on “and why?”, this research study here will apply academic theories from two approaches to relate and explain the reasons why disparities

are existent in usage of theories deriving from the sociology of education and the disability model.

To summarize in brief, international comparative quantitative and qualitative analysis will be undertaken in order to investigate, assess and benchmark educational equity concepts consisting of four dimensions, including the new fourth dimension on inclusion (diversity) and inclusive education. It will then investigate the disparities identified and recognized across the perspectives of policy within and between the international and national policy levels among the different socially disadvantaged groups of children. This will firstly be conducted at the worldwide policy level for better international policy development. Then, the same type of analysis will be further conducted at the national and local context of Cambodia to observe and analyse whether there are disparities existent from the eyes of the local context. In terms of the case study conducted in Cambodia, it will look at the current situation of policy development of Cambodia for all major social groups defined by gender, ethnicity, disability, poverty, rural and urban through a qualitative desk review analysis of all available policy documents in the country.

More specifically, based on the main methodology which will be explained hereinafter, the usage of the pilot-SABER rubric on equity and inclusion (diversity) will attempt to answer the research questions as set above.

1.4 Rationale and Significance

This research aims to make an empirical contribution both academically and practically for policy development of educational equity, inclusion (diversity) and inclusive education in the field of special needs education. In other words, this study aims to make an empirical contribution highlighting existing policy gaps at the international and national levels. Its primary purpose is to determine and compare levels of commitment from national governments worldwide in achieving educational equity and inclusion (diversity) for marginalized children, with a case study of Cambodia, looking into policy analysis through the eyes of the local context.

This study is a very timely topic in linkage with the post- 2015 agenda which is the current central discussion taking place both in international policy discourses and academic literature. Moreover, the issue of equity and inclusion to provide equal and quality access to education covering the last five and ten percent of marginalized and vulnerable groups is an extremely critical agenda in the context of post-EFA and MDGs. Concerning academic originality, research on educational equity and inclusion (diversity) encompassing various types of special education needs of disadvantaged groups and embracing diversity remains to be a field still absent and scarce in research studies. Moreover, empirical research touching upon large amounts of quantitative and qualitative policy documents will become crucial for better policy development.

This dissertation is part of an empirical research that will make a contribution to the policy research concerning equity of access to education and equity of quality (inputs and

outputs) to education. Furthermore, the most original contribution is to conduct further empirical research that will make a contribution to policy research concerning inclusion (diversity), which is a new dimension in this field of inclusive education. It takes a look at the concept of equity through the lens of inclusion (diversity) to examine whether the notion of embracing diversity is promoted in policy documents worldwide and locally. Moreover, with due consideration to inclusive education, it looks at whether inclusive education is promoted or not.

In terms of policy contribution, worldwide country based policy analysis on educational equity and inclusion (diversity) has not yet been undertaken, particularly with the usage of a standardized benchmarking tool. Thus, through this research, this dissertation will also attempt to contribute to the development of a new policy research tool on equity, inclusion (diversity) and inclusive education. This new policy tool/policy goal-ratings will “document and analyze policies that promote equity in access to education and learning” (World Bank, n.d.) and benchmark educational policies on equity, inclusion (diversity) and inclusive education based on qualitative evidence based proof and best practices. And lastly, it is a new policy tool which “will classify and analyze education systems around the world according to a number of core policy goals to which all education systems should aspire” (World Bank, n.d.).

In terms of the Cambodian context, this dissertation aims to make an empirical contribution to determine and compare levels of commitment by the government of Cambodia

in achieving educational equity and inclusion (diversity) for marginalized social groups of children. Again, it focuses on five disadvantaged groups; gender, ethnicity, disability, poverty rurality and looks at national policy frameworks from four perspectives. Its first perspective; equity of access, looks at quantitative distributions of educational opportunities for different five social groups. This is the most traditional approach used in equity discussion in the field of international education development. The second perspective, equity of resource inputs for the quality of education, examines the inputs invested inside the schools, for example, pupil-teacher ratios, teaching methods and learning materials. Thirdly, equity of outputs and learning achievement is a relatively new consideration analyzing the student performance levels form both cognitive and non-cognitive skills. And lastly, inclusion (diversity), investigates how far the concept of embracing diversity in education has been incorporated at the national policy level.

In other words, it will determine and compare the levels of policy engagement of the government of Cambodia in achieving educational equity and inclusion for disadvantaged children, from five areas of systemic and/or cultural disadvantages using various available policy documents developed at the national level. Lastly, it should be emphasized that conducting this particular type of research within the context of Cambodia will play a pivotal role within this country, as this topic on inclusive education is still an emerging field in the process of development still in its early stages but with much needed prioritization.

1.5 Research Methodology and Design

The methodology of this study consists of three main methodologies. With reference to methodology 1, comparative quantitative and qualitative analysis at the international policy level will be conducted with the usage of 2000 EFA Assessment Reports and the 2002, 2003 EFA National Plans of Action as data sources to suggest certain definitions about embracing inclusion (diversity) and promoting inclusive education. Such an investigation has been conducted to seek whether or not there is educational equity found to embrace the notion of inclusion (diversity) as stated in the principles of the 1994 Salamanca Statement, to accept a wide spectrum of special education needs, not just limited to disabilities.

Moreover, it has aimed to identify who exactly are groups of socially excluded populations in an empirical method based on social, cultural and economic inequalities. Identification of disadvantaged groups in such an empirical way crosses over with what has been revealed through academic literature on strata of social groups. While on the other hand, it also defines the notion of inclusion (diversity) through whether or not educational equity is found in inclusive education. In other words, is inclusive education recognized as the way of education which is being promoted at the international level? This will be actually conducted through comparative situational review analysis by reviewing 77 EFA Assessment Reports and EFA National Plans of Action (NPAs) of 60 countries from Asia and Africa consisting of reports in both English and French.

Secondly, the main methodology noted as 2-A and 2-B for the second part of this research study consists of using a standardized benchmarking tool called as the rubric which has been uniquely developed by JICA Research Institute (Dr. Kazuo Kuroda, Dr. Takako Yuki and Makiko Hayashi) as part of an original pilot activity in an attempt to contribute to the SABER (Systems Approach for Better Education Results) domain on “Equity and Inclusion”. This rubric will be used as a pilot tool to evaluate education policies according to evidence-based global standards and best practices. It will help countries to systematically examine and strengthen the performance of their inclusive education systems. With regard to evidence-based education policies, this research investigates and assesses whether issues on inclusive educational equity and inclusion (diversity) are addressed in diverse policy sources including all available policy documents planned and developed at the international and national levels, or by the government of Cambodia in terms of the local context. The usage of such a rubric will allow room to investigate educational policies of worldwide countries by identifying visible policy disparities among different kinds of disadvantages and various educational equity and inclusion (diversity) concepts.

The objective of utilizing this rubric is to determine and compare the levels of commitments of national governments in achieving educational equity and inclusion (diversity) in policy frameworks, targeting different social groups from four perspectives and from four patterns. The four perspectives include; equity of access, equity of resource inputs for quality

of education, equity of learning outcomes for quality of education and inclusion (diversity).

The following Table 1-1 and 1-2 illustrate the example of taking “gender” as one of the marginalized groups and assessing whether or not the special needs of gender are addressed appropriately, according to each pattern, including patterns 1 to 4. With regard to the patterns as demonstrated in the pilot-SABER rubric reflected in Tables 1-1 and 1-2, there are 4 patterns to each of the four perspectives and five dimensions of socially disadvantaged groups. For the first three perspectives on equity of education, the four patterns are more or less similar. They represent one type of category but at the same time, they represent patterns that are in stages of development and that build upon one another. For instance, pattern 1 is no government policy, in pattern 2, there is national policy, in pattern 3, not only is there recognition as one of the national policy goals but furthermore, there are legal and administrative strategies in place. And lastly with pattern 4, in addition to the strategies which are structured, allocation of the national budget is assured. Or otherwise, that particular dimension’s equity has already been achieved.

And for the last fourth perspective on inclusion (diversity), there are also 4 patterns but in contrast to the other 4 patterns of the other 3 perspectives, the characteristics are illustrated at a different level, in other words, through the lens of the notion of inclusion (diversity) or inclusive education. Thus, it is divided in terms of no policy, special education, integrated education and inclusive education.

Table 1-1: Pilot-SABER Rubric on Equity and Inclusion based on four equity concepts/perspectives

Pattern 1	Pattern 2	Pattern 3	Pattern 4
No government policy for gender equity of access	Gender equity of resource inputs for quality of education is recognized as one of the national policy goals	Legal and administrative frameworks are structured to promote and achieve learning outcomes for quality of education in gender (including international conventions)	Allocation of the budget is assured to promote and achieve gender equity of access (or gender equity of access is already achieved)

Source: created by author based on Pilot-SABER Rubric on Equity and Inclusion

Table 1-2: Pilot-SABER Rubric on Equity and Inclusion based on inclusion (diversity)

Pattern 1	Pattern 2	Pattern 3	Pattern 4
No policy discussions on special education vs inclusive classrooms	Special classrooms are chosen by the policy to promote equity (protection of rights) of gender in education (special education)	Integrated classrooms are chosen by the policy to promote equity (equal opportunity) of gender in education (integrated education)	Inclusive classrooms are chosen by the policy to promote equal opportunity and also regarded as a positive promotion of diversity and quality of education for all children, both boys and girls (inclusive education)

Source: created by author based on Pilot-SABER Rubric on Equity and Inclusion

Through the usage of this pilot-SABER rubric, equity concepts in the education system will be assessed to investigate whether or not there is inclusive educational equity for the five major social disadvantaged groups. Furthermore, the new fourth dimension on equity of diversity and inclusive education will also be explored to see whether or not there is educational equity in this dimension for the social groups.

This second method referred to as methodology 2-A will be conducted through the usage of 77 reports consisting of the 2008 National Reports on the Development of Education from 77 different countries worldwide including both developing and developed countries. These reports have been used as the main data sources for the second part of the research design and methodology to answer the preliminary part of the research question on educational equity and inclusion (diversity) and inclusive education. In addition, this part of the research framework has been analyzed through critical angles including the economic, education and the legislative dimensions.

And next, the third part of methodology named as methodology 2-B will consist of the same methodology as the second part (methodology 2-A) mentioned above, however, the data sources has been transferred to the local context, taking Cambodia as the case study. Moreover, the pilot-SABER framework has been re-arranged into a form of a questionnaire to facilitate the interviews with relevant stakeholders involved in the supply side of inclusive education. This questionnaire type of the pilot-SABER framework will be explained later on in the chapter

of this dissertation as well as in the appendix (Appendix 4). All available policy documents related to educational equity, inclusion (diversity) and inclusive education have been collected to total a number of 130 documents for analysis. A list of these documents will be described later on in the appendix (Appendix 2), but a thorough look at some of the documents is as follows.

With regard to interviews with policy makers and officials, a questionnaire type of rubric has been created and these forms have been asked to be filled out with supporting evidence documents.

1.6 A Note on the Scope

This dissertation has looked at the issue of equity in terms of educational concepts and inclusion (diversity). Therefore, the concept of equity is based on the notion as stated in the principles of the Salamanca Statement of embracing diversity and welcoming all learners with special education needs not just limited to those with disabilities. It is based on the assumption that equity be provided in the sense of inclusive educational settings which embraces the notion of inclusion (diversity) of those with various and diverse special education needs. It investigates a wider spectrum of special education needs on educational equity concepts and indicators for policy development.

Secondly, the data sources used for comparative quantitative and qualitative policy analysis including the 2000 EFA Assessment Reports, EFA National Plans of Action and the

2008 National Reports on the Development of Education were the target for analysis in this dissertation. Moreover, the target countries have been limited to 77 countries for the 2008 National Reports on the Development of Education and 77 countries in Asia and Africa for the 2000 Assessment Reports and EFA National Plans of Action. This scope of data sources were limited due to the availability of data which could be obtained through access to publications and documents of UNESCO. Furthermore, policy documents were limited to these three types of sources, yet this research study has tried to maintain coherency in the data sources to establish a solid and firm analytical research framework.

And thirdly, in terms of the data sources collected in the local context of Cambodia, as previously stated, a total of 130 documents were gathered. These documents needless to say are all related to educational policies targeted for vulnerable and disadvantaged social groups in Cambodia. Amongst them, many documents were provided in the state of draft versions and not yet finalized as this field of inclusive education is still an emerging and new topic within the country. However, the author believes that these documents are still critically relevant and significant in terms of formulating policy development of inclusive education in Cambodia.

1.7 Structure of Dissertation

This dissertation is composed of eight chapters including this introductory chapter of the dissertation. The following second chapter will look in depth the literature review of the concept of equity in general terms through two dimensions of educational equity to access and quality

of inputs, outputs and outcomes. Moreover, it will primary review academic theories within the field of sociology of education and disability studies, in particular the theory of justice and the allocative justice as stipulated by Rawls as well as the individual and social models of disability. Also, this chapter will explore in depth on how the fourth new dimension on educational equity concepts which is related to inclusion (diversity) and inclusive education plays a pivotal role in this research study through the lens of fair respect for differences.

Through the course of this literature review, it will also investigate in depth the origin of inclusive education tracing back the history of special education needs and inclusive education as an emerging alternative from a human rights perspective and explore the definition of inclusive education as defined in the Salamanca Statement and at the international level through UN organizations including UNESCO, the World Bank and UNICEF. It will also be followed by mention of some of the essential strategies and interventions in creating an inclusive educational environment. In this chapter, it will also look at the historical background of Cambodia in relation to inclusive education, in particular the background of major socially disadvantaged groups as defined by gender, ethnicity, disability, poverty and rurality.

It will then be followed by chapter three which presents the theoretical and conceptual analytical framework of this dissertation. Basically, this part of the dissertation will be presented through a visual figure namely as educational equity concepts and indicators for policy development. It will describe in detail the two traditional dimensions of educational

equity concepts in the education system including access and quality of inputs, outputs and outcomes. It will also examine the new fourth dimension on inclusion (diversity) and inclusive education which is the new contribution to this research on equity and inclusion (diversity) worldwide. It will also explore in general about the equity indicators which evaluate and assess the educational equity concepts.

The fourth chapter will present the employed research methodologies and data sources which primarily consists of the usage of the pilot-SABER rubric and questionnaire to assess, evaluate and analyse the 2008 National Country Reports on the Development of Education from 77 different countries worldwide. A detailed explanation on the guidelines of the reports will also be thoroughly explained.

Followed by a thorough review of literature, theoretical and conceptual framework along with the employed research methodologies and data sources, chapter five will first explore and examine the data analysis conducted at the policy level worldwide. The first part of this data analysis will be presented with comparative situational review analysis through identification of special education needs and inclusive education using 77 EFA National Plans of Action and EFA 2000 Assessment Reports from 60 Asian and African countries.

Furthermore, chapter six consists of main data analysis using the pilot-SABER rubric and questionnaire using the 77 country reports of 2008 assess the educational equity concepts of the educational system from the traditional two dimensions of educational equity concepts and the

other new fourth dimension on diversity and inclusive education.

The seventh chapter will continue with further data analysis, taking a case study of Cambodia. It analyses local context policy documents related to equity, inclusion (diversity) and inclusive education within the context of Cambodia by using a total of 130 collected policy documents ranging from legislation and laws, policies, plans, administrative frameworks, programs, projects and budget documents. Similarly as that of the methodology used in chapter six, the pilot-SABER rubric and questionnaire has been utilized as a tool of policy analysis to assess intended policies targeted for vulnerable and disadvantaged groups of children.

And lastly, the final chapter (chapter eight) will aim to make academic and policy contributions towards the study and research on educational equity, inclusion (diversity) and inclusive education both internationally and locally, taking the case study of Cambodia. It will aim to do so by applying main academic theories as reviewed in literature to the results obtained through data analysis both at international and local context levels. Hopefully, this research study within the local context of Cambodia will serve as a role model for other neighbouring countries within the region, making implications on future possibilities of developing and planning inclusive education policies for all.

Chapter 2 Literature Review

As stated in the introductory chapter, in this particular chapter exploring the academic literature to the study on equity of education will be investigated through the approach on the sociology of education. On the other hand, the concept of inclusion (diversity) will be explored through the lens of two models of disability, the individual and the social models of disability. Prior to that, it is noteworthy to reiterate that understanding the concept of equity in education can be approached from numerous methods and angles including parity, disparity, equality, inequality, equity, inequity, justice, injustice, fairness and unfairness and so forth. To put it in other words, the study of equity itself “is a difficult concept, with a history of different interpretations, varying by country and academic discipline” as stated by the World Bank (2006, p.18).

This research study of the dissertation will primarily use the term “equity” and in terms of its academic discipline, the concept of “equity” will be approached through the sociology of education. However, before investigating academic literature to the study on equity of education, it must be highlighted that the history of extermination and social exclusion also form a significant part of history on the study of equity in education. Let us first explore these issues in the upcoming section.

2.1 Sociology of Education: Approaches and Theories on the Study on Equity of Education

In this section of chapter two, the study on equity of education will now be explored through the academic discipline on sociology of education. Various approaches have been presented by numerous researchers including Rawls (1971, 1972), Bourdieu and Passeron (1970), Boudon (1973) and Coleman (1990). Moreover, issues concerning educational inequity or inequality have constructed one of the most key matters in the course of history in sociology of education. In the upcoming sub-sections to follow, different sociological approaches to educational equity will be presented with reference to mainly five theoretical approaches including the functionalist approach, the social and cultural reproduction approach, the cultural and relativism and pluralism approach, the methodological individualism approach and the fair respect for differences.

In the course of reviewing these sociological theories in education, the theory of justice which presents relevant principles concerning justice as fairness, the distributive justice and the allocative justice will be the core focus to explain the reasoning behind disparities existent within policy on educational equity and inclusion which is the main topic of discussion in this research study. It will also explore how these principles deriving from the theory of justice share different features in contrast to other sociological approaches.

2.1.1 The functionalist approach

This sociological approach of educational inequalities taken by Benadusi (2010) is presented based on two assumptions. First of all, it claims that inequalities stem from those that are related to ascriptive factors such as gender, ethnicity, social class and nationality. Second of all, by Benadusi (2010) what is called as “personal natural endowment” (p.27) and also one’s own individual will as well as the effort of that particular person to be able to “cultivate and enrich this endowment” (p.27). In other words, it can be said that the first assumption is unchangeable by one own’s will with some exceptions, whereas the second assumption is largely dependent on one own’s will. According to the functionalist approach by Durkheim and Parsons, the second assumption is considered functional and it is these kinds of factors in which equity, justice and fairness is found. However in terms of the first assumption, they consider the factors as “residual traces of pre-modern society” (Benadusi, 2010, p. 27).

The principle of liberal equality of opportunity as introduced by Rawls (1971, 1972) interprets the functionalist approach of educational inequalities by tracing into challenges found in policies. More precisely speaking, Rawls considers that the amount of educational resources allocated requires fundamental and compensatory policy development aside from the provision of equal educational opportunities and resources. Furthermore, Benadusi (2010) stresses an important aspect about external factors of society which are related to the socioeconomic context in the following way;

In order to grasp the value of the educational output indicators in terms of equity, the nature of the overall socioeconomic context (level of industrialization, modernization, etc.) should be taken into consideration as well; this overall context strictly influences the functioning of all social sub-systems, including school. (p.28)

The above mentioned point explaining the relationship between external factors and the educational system is clearly highlighted in this research study investigating the reasons behind existing policy disparities within the process of the educational system as reflected in policies worldwide and also at the national local context level. The external factors refer to socioeconomic contexts as also mentioned by Rawls.

2.1.2 The social or cultural reproduction theory and approach

This particular theory and approach taken by Bourdieu and Passerons (1970) find similarities with respect to inequalities that are rooted and produced by social constraints, however in contrast to the functionalist approach, no relevance is placed on “personal natural endowments” (Benadusi, 2010, p.27) or one’s own individual will and aptitudes. Moreover, it argues that ascriptive or background factors are also influenced by social privilege and not by natural privileges. In relation to education, this theory and approach suggest that educational reform cannot break such inequalities produced in the social structure of society but in addition

claim that educational systems and institutions are factors which contribute to the reproduction of inequalities. With respect to this claim, the social and the cultural theories are applied by researchers besides Bourdieu and Passerons (1970) including Bowles and Gintis (1982) who emphasize the structural factors associated for instance with the social class or position of parents. On the other hand, the concept of cultural capital very prominently known through Bourdieu (1966) emphasizes the cultural factors associated for instance with the level of parent's education or cultural and educational styles of children.

2.1.3 The cultural relativist approach and the pluralist approach

Moving on to more specifically explore educational equity through the lens of sociology of education, a central focus is placed on the role of schools is introduced. To be more explicit, these approaches are considered to move away from the previously mentioned structural theories of reproduction which occurs inside schools and educational systems. On the other hand, as to that of the functionalist approach, it shares emphasis being placed on the active roles played by individuals referring to the social actors in schools such as teachers and students who are capable of making changes and transformations based on their will and ability. Furthermore, equity or fairness in education as interpreted from these approaches support rights and claims of appropriate curricula in schools according to the needs of all social groups. In such a way, equal rights of all social groups in terms of reproducing their own inherited cultures

and languages are reproduced through schooling in a fair manner without dominance of one particular group.

In addition, Whitty (1985) claims that alternative pedagogy or curricula carried out by social actors such as teachers are insufficient in terms of structuring or restructuring equity or equality for all social groups through schooling. In other words, according to Whitty (1985), structural reform is also critical to happen at the macro level referring to policy reforms to address curricula reforms in schools for equity to be assured for all social groups. It can be inferred from here that in addition to the will of the individual and also ability considered to be equal and just from the functionalist approach, structural reforms are also necessary to maintain a state of equity.

Through this approach, it is noteworthy to emphasize that from the perspective of country policies, there is much room to seek for reforms to address equality in the educational process and schooling for all social groups. Thus, it can be inferred that this research study aiming to look at policies worldwide and at the national local context level in search for disparities across different educational concepts for social groups will play a pivotal role to address whether policies at the macro level are aiming for reforms to attain equity in education.

2.1.4 The methodological individualism approach

This particular approach has been derived and represented by Boudon's theory of beliefs

which conceptualizes and compares results of inequalities depending on decision-making processes occurring between different social actors involved in judging the benefits and risks of schooling and education. (Benadusi, 2010) This approach interprets and places greater attention to individual's rationality not completely influenced by one's own will or desires but more geared towards strategic planning associated with benefits and risks of schooling also connected to social stratification.

Another theoretical approach which aims to complement this methodological individualism approach is the concept of social capital as represented by Bourdieu (1986) and Coleman (1988) which analytically contributes to the relationship between inequalities in terms of social and cultural contexts. The concept of social capital stresses the strong and important roles of relationships within communities which contribute to the production of equal social capital. The ideas in relation to the topic of this research study also connect to the concept of social capital in terms of how social groups form part of a community or a body amongst one another and depending on how strong the linkage is between various aspects such as "obligations and exceptions, information channels, and social norms" (Colemann, 1988, p. 95) of that particular community, the return of social capital is also high. From such a perspective, depending on the type, structure or the relationships formed by that particular social group in the form of collective variables, the levels of educational equity attained varies.

2.1.5 Fair respect for differences

This concept on fair respect for differences has been developed in the more recent years and considered post-modern in the field of sociology of education. According this particular approach, Benadusi (2010) states that, “it holds that all social groups and all individuals-whether expressed mainly in communitarian or individualistic terms-have an equal right to be given instruction modeled on their own particular ways of perceiving and constructing their educational needs.” (p.55) In such a way, this rather post-modern approach to interpreting educational equity can be discussed from two angles, one which is concerned with the theory of justice as stated by Rawls (1971, 1972) and more specifically, taking the principles of allocative justice and distributive justice. Second, the intended meaning as defined in the concept of fair respect for differences is closely connected to the concept of inclusion (diversity) as embraced in the principles of inclusive education. To explain more in detail, the ways in which the 1994 Salamanca Statement mentions that everyone has a special education need whether that roots from social groups or based on an individual special need implies commonalities as that of this concept on fair respect for differences. Furthermore, as the disability models on individual and social models of disability will be explained more precisely at a later stage of this chapter, it is worth to mention here that this recent concept is also in line with the social model of disability, as equity is found for communities and individuals modeled on their educational needs.

And next, the principles of allocative justice will be thoroughly investigated within this approach of fair respect for differences. Firstly, let us explore the principles of justice as presented in the theory of justice from the approach of distributive justice. As illustrated by Rawls (2001);

Citizens are seen as cooperating to produce the social resources on which their claims are made. In a well-ordered society, in which both the equal basic liberties (with their fair value) and fair equality of opportunity are secured, the distribution of income and wealth illustrates what we may call pure background procedural justice. The basic structure is arranged so that when everyone follows the publicly recognized rules of cooperation, and honors the claims the rules specify, the particular distribution of goods that result are acceptable as just (or at least as not unjust) whatever these distributions turn out to be.

(p.50)

In distributive justice, equity or equality is based on the assumption that the distribution of commodities and goods is to be divided according to the contribution and cooperation of that individual or group to society producing those commodities so that social order and cooperation with one another is well kept one generation after another. Equity of educational concepts targeting social groups may partially be explained by this principle of distributive justice in the

way that cultural capital and social capital are produced and shared among communities of a certain social group which builds cooperative relationships and forms a well-ordered society as a whole over generations. However, this principle of distributive justice may not apply to individuals receiving educational goods such as for children in their stages of basic education since they are not actually citizens making claims in order to cooperate and produce social resources.

By contrast, the other principle of allocative justice explains equity of educational concepts for different social groups in the following way. According to Rawls (1971, 1972), allocative justice is presented as such;

(A)llocative justice applies when a given collective of goods is to be divided among definite individuals with known desires and needs. The collection to be allotted is not the product of these individuals, nor do they stand in any existing cooperative relations. Since there are no prior claims on the things to be distributed, it is natural to share them out according to desires and needs, or even to maximize the net balance of satisfaction. Thus given existing desires and preferences, and the developments into the future which they allow, the stateman's aim is to set up those social schemes that will best approximate an already specified goal. (p.77)

The provision of educational concepts in an equal and just manner to different social groups can be more well explained by using this principle of allocative justice. In other words, educational equity and inclusion primarily based from a human rights approach claims the desires and preferences of individuals and social groups which feeds into the developments of the future. Educational equity and inclusion from a human rights perspective do not require or demand cooperative relationships between societies and social systems to be efficient and productive. However, the claims expressed as needs, desires and preferences in this allocative justice aims to “achieve the greatest satisfaction summed over these individuals from the present into the future.” (Rawls, 2001, p.50) in contrast to the ideas “of society as a fair system of social cooperation over time.” (Rawls, 2001, p. 50) By taking a look at policies developed worldwide and also at the national context level in Cambodia on educational equity and inclusion, a conflicting issue and relationship is observed in the policy documents between policy makers and those in demand of those intended policies. More specifically stating, the needs, desires and preferences as referred by Rawls (1971, 2001) do not in fact explain clearly its relationship in terms of “realities” faced by countries. In such a way, it can be interpreted that an act of “trade-off” is being carried out between the needs and realities which is clearly reflected and made explicit in government policies through the lens of policy makers without allocative justice practiced from the eyes of individuals and all social groups.

And lastly, Rawls (1971) defines the principle of justice in terms of inequalities as such,

that “social and economic inequalities are to be arranged so that they are both (a) reasonably expected to be to everyone’s advantage, and (b) attached to positions and offices open to all.” (p.53) From the key findings as depicted in this research study, this study will learn later on that the current existing policies worldwide and also at the national context level do not produce or maintain educational equity and inclusion across different educational equity concepts and social groups, meaning that educational inequalities are not arranged as specified by Rawls indicating a state of inequity and injustice. In other words, the kind of “social and economic inequalities” (Rawls, 1971, p. 53) existent in current countries worldwide result in producing further inequalities associated with education which are evident and clear from policy analyses and reads in conflict with the argument of the arrangement of inequalities as suggested above by Rawls .

2.2 History on the Concept of Educational Equity and Inclusion

2.2.1 History of extermination and exclusion

Historically speaking, children with special needs were generally excluded from the educational system itself before the 1960s and 1970s (Balescut and Eklindeh, 2006). Physical and social barriers excluded and denied these persons from the society and prevented them from participating within the educational system. In other words, children with special needs, especially those with disabilities have always been among the last and have been treated as “in-

valid or inferior in need of very special protection.” (Balescut and Eklindeh, 2006 p.2) compared to those without disabilities which have led people to judge them as those needing very special protection and thus as not being able to benefit from mainstream education. Such a conceptualization has led the society towards extermination, exclusion and discrimination of those with special needs, referring to those with disabilities not being able to take advantage from educational opportunities as they have long been denied as equal contributors to the growth and development of the society they belong to.

Eventually in the 1960s and 1970s, exclusion of children with disabilities has gradually shifted towards recognition of their right to education from a human rights perspective claiming equal educational opportunities for all. Movements in creating special schools and special institutions to educate children with disabilities were promoted, but it was in the form of segregated educational settings which have functioned outside of the formal education system.

As stipulated by Evans (2002), the concept of exclusion from social activities in society including education was first popularized in 1974 in France, by René Lenoir. At this time, the term “social exclusion” was used to refer to the “physically disabled”, the “mentally disabled” and the “socially maladjusted”. Moreover, it was Lenoir who recognized the need to improve social and economic conditions and to strengthen social cohesion. On the other hand, the more current concept of social exclusion in the recent years has expanded to include those with disadvantages which has taken expansion and a more elaborated meaning going beyond the

boundaries of France. (Evans, 2002)

When we analyse more with a focus on the concept of “social exclusion”, one must focus on the relationship between the individual and the society and its dynamics of that relationship. As defined by Klasen (1998), social exclusion is the “inability to participate effectively in economic, social and cultural life and, in some characteristics, alienation and distance from mainstream society.” (p.2) Moreover, Evans (2002, p.2) states that social exclusion is “be seen to be present in almost any of the domains of modern living, including education, employment, community life and citizenship to which individuals or groups fail to gain access or exclude themselves from.” In other words, as also mentioned by Evans (2002);

The results of disadvantages are no longer viewed as being passed exclusively through families leading to a restriction on life chances and an impediment to development. Instead social exclusion shifts the responsibility to society, which is seen as erecting obstacles to progress of particular individuals and groups and even to citizenship itself.

(p.2)

It will thoroughly be illustrated in the later sections of this chapter through the disability approach on the individual and social models of disability. However, it is noteworthy to mention here that as also represented by academic researchers on the study of equity on education,

studies on equity has shifted its focus from finding causes in individual factors and placing a central focus to look at factors found within society that inhibit the facilitation of equity for individuals.

Also, the capabilities approach which was developed by Sen (1992) (as cited in Evans, 2002) states that this capabilities approach “calls for efforts to ensure that people have equal access to basic capabilities such as the ability to be healthy well-fed, housed, integrated into the community, participate in community and public life, and enjoy social bases of self-respect.”

(p.2) It can also be noted here that this capabilities approach has much in common with the human rights approach, which was a model of the inclusion movement deriving in the USA.

Moreover, according to Sen (1992, 1999) (as cited in Evans, 2002);

We can define social exclusion as the inability to participate in, and be recognized by, society. In particular, one may want to include that participation in society, and recognition of people by society has to be on the terms of equality or equal opportunity.

(p.3)

As referred to by Sen, the capabilities approach brings a new and an additional angle to the concept of equity apart from finding equality in society but moreover, also finds its reasons in the ability or the capability of the individual to be able to fully activate in that equal society.

2.2.2 Human rights approach: from exclusion to inclusion

The human rights approach which came in line together with poverty reduction strategies stresses education as both an individual right as well as for the contribution of broader social goals. Furthermore, it is the human rights approach which also has constructed and built the solid framework to transform exterminatory and exclusionary practices towards basic inclusion. Hutmacher (2010) states that “in modern societies, all human beings are considered to be free, having equal legal and political rights and equal dignity.” (p.4) Such a fundamental principle of the human rights approach has developed and emerged beginning in Western democracies of the 19th century and as it is worldwide recognized now, the Universal Declaration on Human Rights has also been adopted by the United Nations in 1945. Put it in other words, the history of people with special needs who have faced extermination, exclusion or exclusive settings depicts the major struggles of segregation and discrimination which were primarily fought with international representations, norms and values corresponding to principles of liberty, equality and dignity which became rights of human beings and visions of human conditions in modern societies.

Various researches by Hutmacher (2010), Floud and Halsey (1961) to Coleman et al. (1966); from Bourdieu and Passeron (1964, 1970) to Boudon (1973), Jencks (1972, 1979) and Husén (1975) pertaining to wide international research on educational equity recall that the human rights approach and principles pertaining to this approach “defined access to schools,

achievement and outcome primarily as a function of individual merit, consisting of the addition of intelligence and effort.” (Hutmacher, 2010, p.5) Moreover, Hutmacher (2010) goes on to argue that “under these governing principles, public schools and education systems were more or less generally presumed to allocate resources equally and fairly, and to ensure equal opportunity for all, regardless of birth.”(p.5) To continue and as referred by Hutmacher (2010), the presumption of ensuring equal opportunity “became contentious during the 1960s and 1970s, as sociological research repeatedly demonstrated that in public education, working-class students, women and cultural, ethnic or racial ‘minorities’ consistently had more limited access to learning and success.” (p.6)

He moves on to argue that, although “access to post-compulsory levels of formal education and vocational training”, as well as “inequality between women and men has diminished rapidly in terms of access, opportunities, achievement and attainment, major inequalities remain among students from different socioeconomic, cultural, racial and ethnic backgrounds.” (Hutmacher, 2010, pp. 6-7) From the sociological perspective, these inequalities in systematic education are not rooted in individual intelligence and effort but as previously stated in the capabilities approach of Sen, it has begun to find relationship in complex ways to the basic inequality structure of modern societies and its relationship with ability and capability.

Furthermore, as mentioned by Cochrane (2010), Noel and de Broucker (2010) and Hutmacher (2010, p. 7), “educational advantages and disadvantages resulting from these factors

appear to accumulate within generations and tend to be reproduced over the generation cycles and inequalities also persist between rural and urban areas and among socially differentiated metropolitan areas.” It is well observed in this sub-section that although the human rights approach has shifted and moved exclusionary practices to inclusionary practices, nevertheless, educational inequity and disadvantages are still strongly rooted in societies resulting in educational failures particularly for the disadvantaged social groups. The reasoning behind such a situation can be explained through a sociological perspective as already stated by several researchers. However, this approach to education will be explored further in depth in the following section of this chapter.

Improved understanding towards the disabled persons led to dissatisfaction among many researchers including Ahuja and Ainscow (1995) demanding for fundamental modification in both developed and developing countries, and the effectiveness of special schools has been questioned by researchers notably Lipsky and Gartner (1996); Thomas and Loxley (2001), from both a human rights perspective and the point of view of effectiveness (Ainscow, 2007).

Eventually, the introduction of the integrated education system was understood as a gradual reform of the special education system, but this form of educational provision targeted primarily for persons with disabilities, physically within regular schools and took form in many shapes.¹ Soon after, dissatisfaction with integration caused demands for more radical changes

¹ Different cases of integrated educational systems (Balescut and Eklindeh, 2006): “It was merely limited to sharing

in many countries including developing countries. The main criticism with the integrated approach to SEN was related to the way in which pupils being integrated into ordinary schools were labeled as those with “disabilities” (Ainscow, 2007). Moreover, Ainscow (2007) states that;

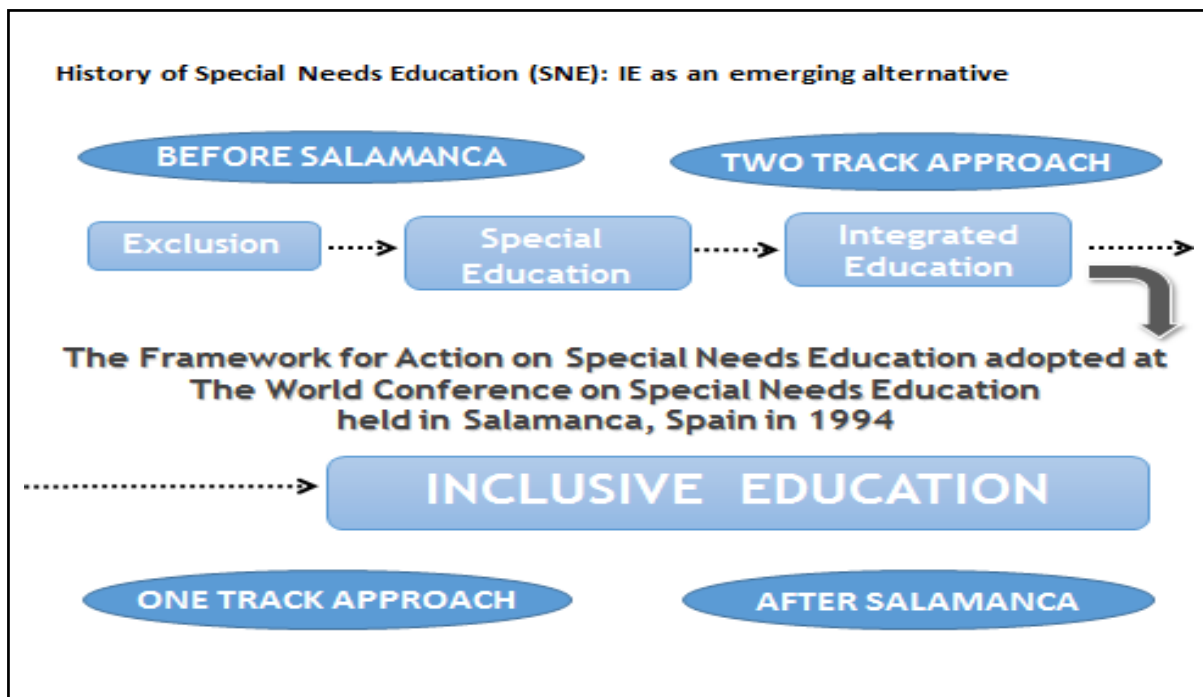
(T)he continued use of what is sometimes referred to as a ‘medical model’ of assessment within which educational difficulties are explained solely in terms of a child’s deficits - prevents progress in the field, not least because it distracts attention from questions about why schools fail to reach so many children successfully. (p.1)

It points out the fact that the integrated approach failed to remove discriminatory attitudes towards children with disabilities as it did not perceive children with disabilities as those who would contribute to provision of high quality education for all. The above failures surrounding integrated education have led to proposals introducing a newly born concept which was “inclusive education”. Inclusive education in comparison to the traditional form of integrated education identifies two different elements and a new perception of looking at special education

the same dining hall and in others it consisted of teaching groups of children with disabilities together with other children for several hours per week. In other cases, it was simply about individual integration, meaning that one child with a disability received all or most of his education in ordinary classes.” (p.2)

needs. It differs from the previously held notion of integration and mainstreaming which tended to be concerned principally with those with disabilities. By contrast, inclusion is about meeting all special needs of all children and youth, which recognizes that there may be those without disabilities requiring SEN. Thus, it aims to maximize all learners rejected and excluded from the current society so that learning becomes productive and meaningful for all children with and without SEN by ensuring to reconstruct and rethink school policies, pedagogy and curriculum and all other elements meets the learning needs for all. In-depth clarification and definition of inclusion will be examined in section 3, while the following part will explore how inclusive education has developed through the human rights approach.

Figure 2-1: History of Special Needs Education (SNE): IE as an emerging alternative



Source: created by author

2.2.3 Human rights approach: inclusion in the context of developing countries

The inequalities pertaining to various disadvantaged groups became of primary concern in terms of educational disparities in less developing countries much more in the development policy debates in the 1990s. As articulated by Cavicchioni and Motivans (2010), “a diverse group of voices has called out for greater equality in access to learning opportunities, especially among population groups that are traditionally excluded, such as girls, linguistic and ethnic minorities, rural populations and the disabled.” (p.217) The reasons why increased attention has been paid to educational equity since the 1990s came at a time when global trends tended to threaten to increase inequalities between the rich and the poor countries. Although the new era of globalization has advanced movements in economy, rapid advances in information and communications technology to present new educational opportunities was not the case globally in terms of equity and inclusion.

As clearly depicted by Cavicchioni and Motivans (2010);

There is deep concern that difference in access to information and skills will further polarize rich and poor countries. The gap between countries that are able to convert these developments to their advantage and those that are trapped by lack of opportunity had become increasingly evident in the 1990s. (p. 217)

In the context of developing countries, there have been improvements observed, especially in equity in access to primary education. However as stated above, problems related to disparities in equity for various social groups still pertain. For example, Cavicchioni and Motivans (2010) state that;

Even if enrolment levels are higher, regular attendance and smooth progression may be problematic, and learning outcomes less than satisfactory. Problems also remain with access to secondary education, but equal opportunity to a good quality education. Access, traditionally measure by school enrolment ratios, often fails to reflect these important aspects. And the evidence on equity in process and outcome indicators is scattered and often only from a single point in time. Thus, the need for a more accurate, reliable and policy-relevant equity measures in less developed countries is growing. First, as a result of increased international attention, there is a rising demand for evidence-based policy information on equity issues. Also, with rising enrolments, there is a need to study equity in process and outputs in order to better guide education policy responses. Further efforts to elaborate group differences and interrelationships are essential to understanding how factors interact to influence participation, completion and learning outcomes. Moreover, assessments of system efficiency and learning are essential to inform policy, particularly where there is low demand for education. Improving the links between indicators and

policies, and measuring different aspects of educational equity. (p.218)

As stated in the above mentioned citation, it can be inferred that this research topic concerning disparities within policy on educational equity is crucially relevant based on the understanding that educational equity concepts should encompass not only access as well as quality of education including inputs, outputs and outcomes. These concepts are critical for consideration and measurement in policies especially in the context of developing countries, as access to education does not raise problematic aspects connected to educational quality. Moreover, in relation to equity of education, the new added dimension of this research study on inclusion (diversity) is considered additionally significant to the domain on equity of inclusive education.

2.2.4 Human rights approach: international instruments for inclusion

The human right to education for inclusion of different types of social groups has observed opportunity rooms for improvements in a very positive manner with the recognition of various international legislative instruments. Again, Cavicchioni and Motivans (2010) states that;

First, there has been the increasing attention given to the guarantee of education as a basic

human right. Second, the 1990s have witnessed the consolidation of a more social-centered development approaches and poverty reduction strategies among multi-lateral lending organizations. From a rights-perspective, there has been a long effort to promote social and economic rights. (p.219)

Despite these approaches to the expansion of educational opportunities in terms of greater access to education, there have been a rise in disparities within the educational system across various social groups. As a result, according to Cavicchioni and Motivans (2010), “the right to education was affirmed in the Universal Declaration of Human Rights (UNDHR)” (p.219) and UNESCO (2000c) claims that “the rapid expansion of primary enrolments that began in some parts of the world in the 1950s and 1960s was spurred by pressures from social groups for equity in education, which also resulted in the Convention Against Discrimination in Education.” (p.42). This particular convention which was adopted in 1960 has stipulated the educational rights of not only race or gender, but also stressed the importance of geographic location, national or social origin, and the household economic situation of children and their families.

The Convention on the Rights of the Child adopted in 1989 acquiring the status of international law in 1990 is also one of the most influential international conventions which has had impact on educational rights of all children. As articulated clearly by Cavicchioni and Motivans (2012), “the 1990s were marked by a number of international conventions and

conferences that sought to address educational disparities among diverse groups considered to be at higher risk of exclusion from the benefits of education.” (p.221) To mention a few of those international instruments, they include, the World Summit for Children (1990), the World Conference on Special Needs Education in Salamanca (1994), the World Conference on Women in Beijing (1995) and the International Conference on Child Labor (1997). Moreover, works by different scholars in the 1980s as interpreted by Cavicchioni and Motivans (2012), “expanded the vision of human development and well-being from a narrow focus on macro-economic trends and income poverty to one more broadly encompassing the concepts of human “capabilities” and “exclusion”” (p. 221).

However, it must also be mentioned that as stated by UNICEF International Child Development Center (1999), “(s)ome argue, as in the case with CRC, that it allows governments to fulfil rights according to their level of resources; thus they can postpone, for example, provision of free universal primary education.” (p.13) Moreover, Save the Children (1999) also claim that the “rights that have gained international status of international law are not always reflected by national legislation. And even when international rights instruments are reflected by national legal systems, the level of political commitment to implementing legislation has been marginal” (p.2). Nevertheless, Mehrotra (1998) suggests that, “the level of political will among countries was key to achieving the rapid expansion of primary school enrolments.” (p.14)

At the core of inclusive education is the human right to education, pronounced in the Universal Declaration of Human Rights (1948) stated as follows;

Everyone has the right to education. Education shall be free, at least in the elementary and fundamental stages. Elementary education shall be compulsory... Education shall be directed to the full development of human personality and to the strengthening of respect for human rights and fundamental freedoms. It shall promote understanding, tolerance and friendship among all nations, racial or religious groups, and shall further the activities of the United Nations for the maintenance of peace...² (Article 26)

As stated in the declaration above, educational opportunities were already recognized as a fundamental right from the late 1940s for “everyone”, in principle including all those with disabilities and all those with special education needs considered as disadvantaged groups, marginalized groups and vulnerable groups.

Equally important are statements indicated in the United Nations Convention on the Rights of the Child³ in 1989 in Article 2, Article 23, Article 25 and 29 which all recognize the various rights of all children aged less than 18 with disabilities. In particular, Article 23 is

² Refer to Universal Declaration of Human Rights 1948, *Adopted and proclaimed by General Assembly resolution 217 A (III) of 10 December 1948*, <http://www.un.org/Overview/rights.html>.

³ Refer to United Nations Convention on the Rights of the Child 1989, <http://www.unhcr.ch/html/menu3/b/k2crc.htm>.

specific to and stipulates the rights of children with disabilities to receive education, training, health care services and other opportunities and to participate in the community to the fullest extent possible.

Accurately speaking, “States Parties recognize that a mentally or physically disabled child should enjoy a full and decent life, in conditions which ensure dignity, promote self-reliance and facilitate the child’s active participation in the community.” (UNCRC, 1989, Article 23: Paragraph 2) Moreover, Article 23 recognizes the special needs of a disabled child and further states that the services necessary;

Shall be provided free of charge, whenever possible, taking into account the financial resources of the parents or others caring for the child, and shall be designed to ensure that the disabled child has effective access to and receives education, training, health care services, rehabilitation services, preparation for employment and recreation opportunities in a manner conducive to the child's achieving the fullest possible social integration and individual development including his or her cultural and spiritual development. (UNCRC, 1989, Article 23: Paragraph 3)

It is noteworthy to state that with the Convention of the Rights of the Child, elaboration and specific remarks were made explicit designating the fundamental rights of children with

disabilities including their right to receive education which is considered absolutely essential in achieving their fullest potential and it is encouraging to make note below that such remarks are particularly emphasized, needing greater efforts in the context of developing countries. Furthermore, at the international level, states should share information on treatment and care of children with disabilities, including also information on rehabilitation, education and vocational services in order for different states to “improve their capabilities and skills and to widen their experience in these areas. In this regard, particular account shall be taken of the needs of developing countries.” (UNCRC, 1980, Article 23: Paragraph 4) At the same time, Article 29 of the CRC expresses the five aims to education encourages that the educational opportunities of the individual should allow children to reach their fullest potential in terms of personality, talents and mental and physical abilities.

In addition, there are other numerous significant international instruments which have been used to declare and protect the rights of the disabled.⁴ The World Declaration on Education for All (UNESCO, 1990), The Dakar Framework for Action (UNESCO, 2000b) and The United Nations Standard Rules on the Equalization of Opportunities for Persons with Disabilities (United Nations Standard Rules on the Equalization of Opportunities for Persons with Disabilities, 1993) are all considered as key instruments. All three instruments address the special learning needs of the disabled, recognizing “steps need to be taken to provide equal

⁴ UNESCO Convention Against Discrimination in Education (1960)
Convention of the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination against Women (1979)
Other conventions as listed for example in Mittler, Peter. *Intégrer Les Enfants Handicapés*. Paris.: UNESCO. p.9.

access to education to every category of disabled persons as an integral part of the education system.”⁵ (UNESCO, 1990, Article 3: paragraph 5) In the follow-up agreement made at the Dakar Framework for Action, particular emphasis was given in “ensuring that by 2015, all children, particularly girls, children in difficult circumstances and those belonging to ethnic minorities, have access to and complete free and compulsory primary education of good quality.”⁶ (UNESCO, 2000b, Goal 2) It is clearly evident here that the international instruments in the latter part of 1990s and beginning 2000 present a gradual shift of including other special needs such as children in difficult circumstances besides those with disabilities. And moreover, equality of opportunity of access to education is declared as follows with a clear mention of the integrated form of educational settings as in the following:

States should recognize the principle of equal primary, secondary and tertiary educational opportunities for children, youth and adults with disabilities, in integrated settings. They should ensure that the education of persons with disabilities is an integral part of the educational system (Rule 6)⁷ (United Nations Standard Rules on the Equalization of Opportunities for Persons with Disabilities, 1993)

⁵ World Declaration on Education for All, Jomtien, Thailand (1990)
http://www.unesco.org/education/pdf/JOMTIE_E.PDF

⁶ Dakar Framework for Action (2000) <http://unesdoc.unesco.org/images/0012/001211/121147e.pdf>.

⁷ United Nations Standard Rules on the Equalization of Opportunities for Persons with Disabilities (1993)
<http://www.un.org/esa/socdev/enable/dissre04.htm>

In addition, the UN Standard Rules on the Equalization of Opportunities for Persons with Disabilities continues to make arguments on the roles of special schools but with the intention of preparing those students to be accommodated in integrated educational settings and that the discussion so far is central on specialized schools and integrated schools as follows;

In situations where the general school system does not yet adequately meet the needs of all persons with disabilities, special education may be considered. It should be aimed at preparing students for education in the general school system. It is acknowledged that in some instances special education may currently be considered to be the most appropriate form of education for some students with disabilities. (Rule 6) (United Nations Standard Rules on the Equalization of Opportunities for Persons with Disabilities, 1993)

However a landmark occurred in 1994, when the adoption of UNESCO's Salamanca Statement called on the international community to endorse an approach of inclusive schools through major philosophical, practical and strategic reforms. In this year of 1994, a total of 92 Governments and 25 international organizations gathered to agree on a dynamic Framework for Action which promoted that ordinary schools should include all children with and with special education needs. The Salamanca Statement proclaimed that "regular schools with inclusive orientation are the most effective means of combating discrimination, creating

welcoming communities, building an inclusive society and achieving education for all.”

(UNESCO, 1994, Article 2: ix) Moreover, the Framework for Action on Special Needs

Education of the Salamanca framework (1994) is that;

Schools should accommodate all children regardless of their physical, intellectual, social, emotional, linguistic or other conditions. This should include disabled and gifted children, children from remote or nomadic populations, children from linguistic, ethnic or cultural minorities or marginalized groups... (T)he term “special education needs” refers to all those children and youth whose needs arise from disabilities or learning difficulties.

(Introduction, p.6)

However, it is contradicting to make note that while the Framework for Action of the Salamanca Statement (1994) embraces the notion of an inclusionary approach to meet the special education needs of all children in regular schools in the same classrooms, yet at the same time it identifies the important roles of special schools by usage of terms such as an exception with special schools as indicated below;

Within inclusive schools, children with special educational needs should receive whatever extra support they may require to ensure their effective education.

...Assignment of children to special schools or special classes or sections within a school on a permanent basis- should be the exception, to be recommended only in those infrequent cases where it is clearly demonstrated that education in regular classrooms is incapable of meeting a child's educational or social needs or when it is required for the welfare of the child or that of other children. (p. 12)

Furthermore, the Salamanca Statement (1994) continues to argue that for deaf persons, their cultural rights may be more protected in special schools or integrated educational settings as follows, which add to the contradiction of its own guiding principles of inclusive education.

Educational policies should take full account of individual differences and situations. The importance of sign language as the medium of communication among the deaf, for example should be recognized and provision made to ensure that all deaf persons have access to education in their national sign language. Owing to the particular communication needs of deaf and deaf/blind persons, their education may be more suitably provided in special schools or special classes and units in mainstream schools.

(p.18)

2.2.5 Human rights approach: equity concepts in international organizations

As stated previously, the study on equity of education can be evaluated through the concepts of equality in education and its inequalities. Literature review reveals the fact that the issue has been often discussed through the lens of inequality. Definitions to equity of education are also given by different important international organizations, UNESCO (2010), World Bank (2006) and OECD (2012). They include concepts as already suggested by academic researchers including fairness and inclusion, marginalization, equal opportunity and avoidance of absolute deprivation. Most of these concepts derives from academic literature including Rawls (1972).

For example, UNESCO (2010) defines equity of education as follows, “marginalization in education is a form of acute and persistent disadvantage rooted in underlying social inequalities.” p.135) Next, according to the World Bank (2006), it is stated as follows;

Equal opportunity is the outcome of a person’s life, in its many dimensions, should reflect mostly his or her efforts and talents, not his or her background. Predetermined circumstances-gender, race, place of birth, family origins and the social groups a person is born into should not help determine whether people succeed economically, socially, and politically. Avoidance of absolute deprivation is an aversion to extreme poverty, or indeed a Rawlsian (Rawl, 1971) form of inequality version in the space of outcomes, suggests that societies may decide to intervene to protect the livelihoods of its neediest

members (below some absolute threshold of need) even if the equal opportunity principle has been upheld. The road from opportunities to outcomes can be tortuous. Outcomes may be low because of bad luck, or even because of a person's own failings. Societies may decide, for insurance or for compassion, that its members will not be allowed to starve even if they enjoyed their fair share of opportunity pie, but things somehow turned out badly for them. (pp. 18-19)

And according to OECD (2012), equity of education is defined as;

(F)airness and inclusion, equitable education systems are fair and inclusive and support their students to reach their learning potential without either formally or informally pre-setting barriers or lowering expectations, equity as fairness implies that personal or socio-economic circumstances, such as gender, ethnic origin or family background are not obstacles to educational success, equity as inclusion means ensuring that all students reach at least a basic minimum level of skills. (p.17)

Through various interpretations on the term equity of education observed in different international organizations, several implications can be made also through a human rights perspective. That is, all international organizations work under the basis that background or

ascriptive factors related to categories as defined by gender, ethnicity, disability, poverty and rurality should not in principle become inhibiting factors to educational success. Moreover, equity of education is considered in terms of promoting inclusionary practices and for those with various disadvantages or special education needs regardless of whether they are related to biological or family background factors. In other words, here, it can also be observed that international organizations have had an impact on the international trends, history as well as the process of forming the current way forward with equity on education which are strongly linked to the human rights approach including international and regulatory frameworks.

In summary, it can be well noted that international human rights instruments and international frameworks developed in the course of past and recent histories have played critical and prominent roles to strongly promote the concept of equity. Moreover, not solely limited to the general concept of providing inclusionary concepts in against towards extermination and exclusionary actions but addition, as previously introduced by René Lenoir in 1974, thanks to regulatory frameworks, the provision of equity in the recent years has expanded to include those with disadvantages which has taken expansion and a more elaborated meaning, going beyond the boundaries of groups defined by disabilities.

The study on equity of education in this particular section has been approached basically from a human rights approach, exploring the background history from exterminatin, exclusion to inclusion in general. And nextly, moving to investigate further the similar history in the

context of developing countries with supporting history on the development of international instruments and frameworks which have enhanced the course of development of the human rights approach in more concrete and solid methods. In very recent history, it can be mentioned that the study on equity of education has shifted its central focus from debates surrounding extermination and social exclusion to ensuring social inclusion for those with disabilities to debates with a much more core focus concerning the ways and approaches to even better promote inclusion and act on inclusionary practices. Furthermore, these debates not only are concerned for those with disabilities but target social groups have expanded to include those with more special educational needs. Interpretations developed by international organizations on the concept of equity in education also clearly reflect such characteristics and features of the human rights approach and working mandates are centered around these principles and methods.

In the next coming section of this chapter, the study on the equity of education will be thoroughly explored through the academic discipline on sociology of education. More specifically explaining, academic theories related to the theory of justice, justice as fairness and the principle of allocative justice will be the central discussions in relation to the main theme of this research study, investigating the disparities within policy on educational equity and inclusion across international and national contexts.

2.3 The Definitions of Inclusion (Diversity) by International Organizations

In this particular part of the section, the definition of what is inclusion (diversity) will be presented through researches conducted so far in the context of developing countries amongst both scholars and international organizations of that of UNESCO, World Bank and UNICEF. Particular emphasis will be given to the fundamental characteristics which distinguish the notion of inclusion and inclusive education from that of the integrated approach.

According to UNESCO which is the leading international agency in the field of educational development and in particular actively involved in advocating the innovative ideas of inclusive education, UNESCO (2005b) defines inclusion in terms of taking advantage in the diversity of learners which is;

(A)n approach that looks into how to transform education systems and other learning environments in order to respond to the diversity of learners. It aims towards enabling teachers and learners both to feel comfortable with diversity and to see it as a challenge and enrichment of the learning environment, rather than a problem. (p.15)

The notion of inclusion in terms of inclusion (diversity) is considered significant for UNESCO in the sense that those groups with special education needs refer to variety of groups who are or at risk of marginalization and exclusion. It is a distinctive feature with inclusive

education with that of integrated education where the traditional integrated approach had focused mainly on persons with disabilities. The Table 2-1 illustrated below by UNESCO differentiates the concept of what inclusion is about and what inclusion is not about. In terms of inclusion (diversity), it can be observed that there is a clear consensus by UNESCO that the notion of inclusion is about “welcoming diversity” or “children who may feel excluded”, referring to those groups who are excluded from the educational system itself as well as those already enrolled in mainstream schools but who may feel excluded due to various special education needs that they may carry within classrooms.

Table 2-1: What inclusion is about by UNESCO

INCLUSION IS...	INCLUSION IS NOT...
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ● welcoming diversity ● benefiting all learners, not only targeting the excluded ● children in school who may feel excluded ● providing equal access to education or making certain provisions for certain categories of children without excluding them 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ● reforms of special education alone, but reform of both the formal and non-formal education system ● responding only to diversity, but also improving the quality of education for all learners ● special schools but perhaps additional support to students within the regular school system ● meeting the needs of children with disabilities only ● meeting one child’s needs at the expense of another child

Source: UNESCO, 2005b, p.15

For the World Bank, inclusion (diversity) share very similar perceptions as that of UNESCO. Peters (2004) states, “inclusive schools recognize and respond to the diverse needs of their students, accommodating both different styles and rates of learning and ensuring quality

education to all through appropriate curricula, organizational arrangements, teaching strategies, resource use and partnerships with their communities.” (p.5)

As for UNICEF, the notions of inclusion (diversity) reveals itself to be more or less focused on children with disabilities. For example, Iida from UNICEF (2004) addresses that inclusive schools themselves are what UNICEF calls “Child-Friendly Schools (CFS)” and it is with such an approach that UNICEF calls inclusiveness. Moreover, Iida makes note of the five dimensions about Child-Friendly Schools already being implemented in 50 countries worldwide which addresses the concept of inclusive schools;

The first is that they are inclusive and child-seeking, meaning that the school actively identifies excluded children to get them enrolled in school and included in learning. The second dimension is that a CFS is effective and of high quality, as children and parents want effective schools, and a high quality school encourages children to stay. The third dimension is that CFSs are healthy, protective and safe, and ensures that the learning environment is of good quality and safe. The fourth dimension is that CFSs are gender responsive in that they: promote gender equality, eliminate gender stereotypes, guarantee girl-friendly facilities and socialize girls and boys in a non-violent environment. The fifth and final dimension is that CFSs are participatory, meaning that the school is involved with children, families and communities. (p.49)

According to Booth (2005), “inclusion is about increasing participation in, and reducing exclusion from, the curricula, cultures and communities of local education settings. It is about developing education settings so that they are responsive to diversity in a way that values all students and staff equally.” (p.152) Moreover, Lindqvist (1999) states that “inclusive education means that we include the educational needs of disabled children in the general development efforts in education.” (p.6)

In this part of the sub-section 2.3, which has aimed to approach the definition of inclusion based on the notions of inclusion (diversity), it will continue to define inclusive education from the perspective of how inclusive educational settings are different to that of integrated educational settings. According to UNESCO (2003, 2005b), inclusive education is about the reform of the educational system itself in terms of teacher training, curriculum reform, teaching methodology, textbooks or public awareness raising of parents and the community so that the school system can accommodate all children with special needs. According the principles followed by UNESCO (2003), it states clearly that;

Inclusive education is concerned with providing appropriate responses to the broad spectrum of learning needs in formal and non-formal educational settings. Rather than being a marginal theme on how some learners can be integrated in the mainstream education, inclusive education is an approach that looks into how to transform education

systems in order to respond to the diversity of learners. (p. 7)

Furthermore, the McClain-Nhlapo (2007) has differentiated its definition of inclusive education with that of integrated education by recognizing that integrated education as the process in which it is often a physical process of moving a child with a disability into a regular or mainstream school. In other words, it does not look further into issues as to whether the child is really learning or being accepted by the school environment, teachers and other children. Usually, the integrated child will either have to cope and adjust to the existing system without receiving proper support. Then, if the process of integration fails, the individual child is often blamed for the failure, instead of the school system.

And furthermore, according to Ainscow (1997, 2000, 2004b, 2007), the approaches to inclusion is a shift in focusing to find explanation in why educational failure is related to the characteristics of individual children and their families to explaining the barriers to inclusion, participation and learning from the viewpoint of the school systems. “In this way, those students who do not respond to existing arrangement come to be regarded as ‘hidden voices’ who, under certain conditions, can encourage the improvement of schools.” (Ainscow and Kaplan, 2004a, p.1) It involves those within a particular context in working together to address barriers to education experienced by some learners. It is also about developing educational environments by means of being responsive to diversity and inclusive values in a way that values all students

and staff equally. Booth and Dyseegard (n.d.) refer to inclusive values concerning issues of equity, participation, community, compassion, respect for diversity, honesty, rights, joy and sustainability. And lastly, according to Pijl and Meijer (1994);

(I)ntegration can be characterized along three parameters. The first refers to the actual “place” of education, its “location”, which, for students with special educational needs, could be either in special classes or units within mainstream schools, or in mainstream classes with additional provision. The second parameter relates to elements of social integrations, in terms of the possibility of social contacts between children. Finally, the third refers to curricular elements, and is defined by the use of the same broad curricular frameworks for the education of all children. (p. 6)

In all of the cases which attempt to describe the differences between inclusion and integration, it is clearly obvious that the focus is either placed on the individual or the surrounding environment and society. The perceptions of inclusive education and integrated education therefore are distinguished along the borders of the child and the educational system which is also connected to the social systems. The relationship between these two areas will further explained in detail in the upcoming sub-section 2.5 of this chapter.

2.4 The Effectiveness Approach

The human rights arguments supporting inclusive education are reinforced again from an effectiveness approach identifying inclusive schools as cost-effective and promoting high quality education for all children and youth. In terms of cost-effectiveness, research has been undertaken so far by the World Bank claiming their economic justifications. The World Bank “acknowledges the total value of GDP lost due to disability to be between \$1.4 and \$1.9 billion dollars which can be lowered by reducing lost productivity, lost human potential and lost health and well being.” (Richler, 2004, p. 5) Furthermore, the OECD mentions that improving educational equity and quality of systems is “vital to the maintenance of a flourishing economy and society.” (OECD, 2004, p.2) Richler (2004) continues to debate that;

Research not only demonstrates the value of educating children with a disability, it also suggests that the best way to educate students with a disability is with their non-disabled peers. The OECD has conducted extensive studies of inclusive education and found no research indicating that special education produces better results than inclusion for students with a disability. There are several studies (in both OECD and non-OECD countries) that indicate better results for students with a disability in inclusive settings.

(p.5)

According to Porter (2001), he has found that inclusive education can “be less expensive to implement and operate than special education services, have a broader reach than traditional special education in terms of positive educational and social impacts on children.” It can also “contribute significantly to the ongoing professional development and job satisfaction of educators; and produce better morale and team effort in the school environment.” (section 3.4)

Moreover, on the side of national governments and external donors who are investing in education are increasingly moving away from the segregated type of educational systems. The background reasons for such movements lie in the fact that actors are much more concerned about getting the most out of limited resources, and that is the primary reason for wanting to reform special education within the scope of inclusive schools and eliminate special schools. (OECD, 2003)

2.5 The Individual Model and the Social Model of Disability

In this particular section, it aims to explore some of the literature reviews related to the individual and social models of disability which is closely connected and having an significant influence on inclusion (diversity) from the educational perspective as well. It is through these disability studies surrounding the individual and social models in which educational equity on inclusion (diversity) are theoretically justified.

The social model of disability has primarily been brought to theory by Michael Oliver

(1988, 1990, 1996) who is a scholar with a disability himself. Oliver has made a fundamental contribution through this theory of social model on disability by claiming and observing disabilities as products of social and economic structures already embedded in societies which are oppressive and discriminatory for persons with disabilities. As a result, people with disabilities cannot participate as active and productive citizens in society.

2.5.1 The individual model of disability

Prior to exploring further the social model of disability as theorized by Oliver, it is critical to trace back the counter model on the individual model of disability. According to Bury (1996), “causes of disability are attributable primarily to biological individual conditions, which depart from normal human functionings and determine handicap in terms of (social) disadvantage.” (p.19) In other words, disabilities are considered as an individual condition seen as a departure from human normality and in addition to that, another labelling is referred to as a handicap associated with a social disadvantage which hinders smooth and normal participation in social activities.

As presented by Terzi (2008), the definitions associated with disability and handicap “ultimately subsumes a conception of human diversity as polarized in the opposition between normality, or normal average human functioning, and abnormatliy as divergence from this standard.” (p.44) Similarly to as that of the view presented by Bury (1996), the perception of

disability is once again linked to what is caused by an individual abnormality or what can be interpreted as the state of inabilities in performing tasks. Such a condition leads to a certain state of disadvantages for individuals, however this individual model of disability is considered to be attributed and caused by the condition of that certain individual on its own.

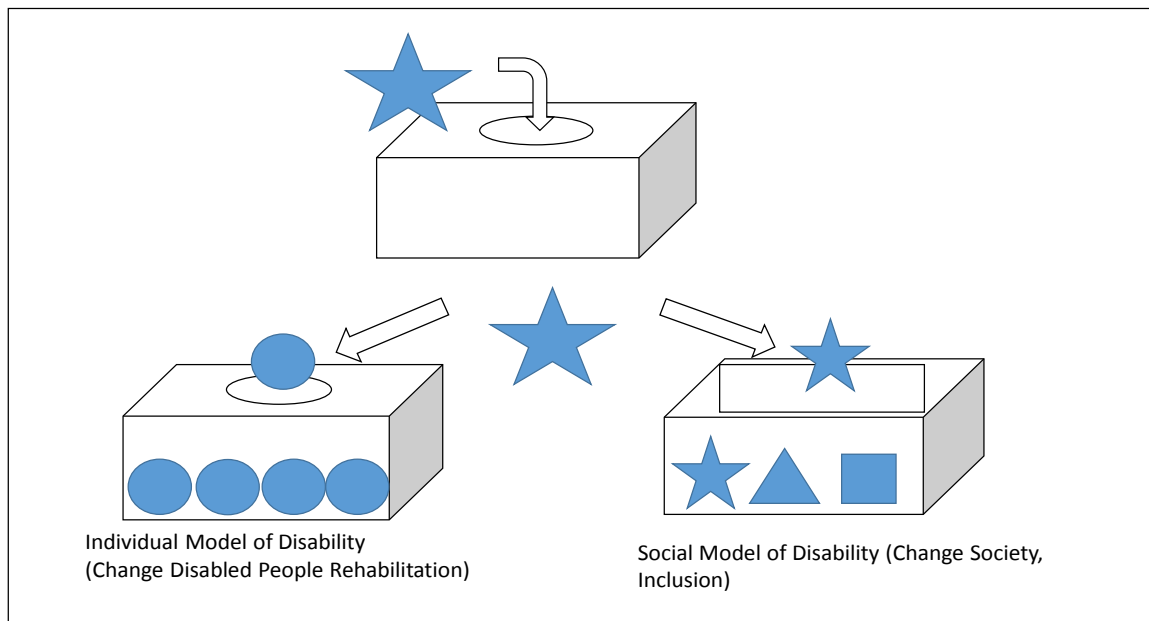
2.5.2 The social model of disability

As previously stated in the introductory part of this section, this social model of disability was primarily theorized by Oliver and is very much founded on contrasting views as to that of the individual model of disability. According to Oliver (1990), “it aims to address issues of marginalisation, oppression and discrimination while trying to denounce and remove the disabling barriers produced by hegemonic social and cultural institutions.” (p.11) In other words, disability is a factor embedded on people with disabilities but further to that, disability is also located squarely within society with oppressive and discriminating attitudes and structures. The ultimate goal of this social model of disability as suggested by Oliver (1996) “argues for the full inclusion of disabled people in society and for their complete acceptance as citizens with equal entitlements, rights and responsibilities” (p.152) In order to promote such an equal state for all, the social model of disability therefore demands rights related to independent living, education, employment, communication, transportation and eradicating poverty.

2.5.3 Applying the two models within the field of education

According to Barton (1998), inclusion is seen as all sorts of reforms and transformations in the entire process. It means that it is not about solely shutting down all forms of segregated forms of education or special schools and transferring those children into mainstream schooling. Emphasis must be focused not on such acts but must look and seek into the ways and methods of how such acts are conducted as an entire process. To be more specific, “existing school systems in terms of physical factors, curriculum aspects, teaching expectations and styles, leadership roles will have to change” (Barton, 1998, p. 84)

Inclusive education is thus about responding to inclusion (diversity) itself is the concept of opening up to others and listening to all voices and a platform for empowering all individuals. In comparison to the individual model of disability which sees differences in individual ability but as indicated by the social model of disability, the key concept at play here is to look at the ability of the school system to respond to individual differences.

Figure 2-2: Individual model vs Social model of disability

Source: adopted from Kuno (2012) and modified by author

As illustrated in Figure 2-2 above, the individual model of disability is well illustrated as the integration model of education, whereas the social model of disability presents the inclusive model of education. As mentioned above to define the differences between integrated education and inclusive education, this model adopted by Kuno (2012) explains well the difference between the two models of disability and in terms of the two types of education, integrated and inclusive education.

Firstly, starting with the individual model of disability as illustrated in Figure 2-2 above, the individual which is represented by the star shaped person must enter the rectangular box which in this model is the society as a whole. The star shaped person or individual as presented

in the individual model of disability must change its shape from a star to a circle in order to enter the rectangular box, since the hole of the rectangular box only fits circled types of shapes into the box. In other words, the circled hole of the rectangular box will not change shape to fit a star shaped person or individual into its box. This type of disability model named as the individual model of disability is demanding that the person or the individual must change itself to accommodate the conditions which are set in advance within the entire society as a condition or requirement to be included inside the society. In usage of the disability terminology, it is called the “change disabled people rehabilitation” and disabled people must undergo rehabilitation to be able to fit into the society with conditions set forth within the society.

On the other hand, with the social model of disability and inclusive education, this model as illustrated in Figure 2-2 above explains well this type of education. In contrast to the individual model of disability, the star shaped person or individual does not have to change its shape in order to enter the hole of the rectangular shaped box. The reason behind this is because the hole as illustrated in social model of disability is not round about is stretched widely open for for any shape of person or individual to enter the rectangular box. Therefore, the star shaped person or individual does not have to change its shape from a star to a circle but can remain as a star to fit into the society. The reason why this type of the rectangular box is widely open for any shaped individuals to enter is because the society is ready to accept changes and accommodate all needs that are required to adapt in order to accept any shaped persons. This is

the reason why this social model is named as the “change society inclusion” instead of “change the individual”. The type of education named as inclusive education derives its definition from this type of model, where the society must change and rehabilitate to accept a diverse range of special needs of individuals. Whereas the integrated type of education suggests changes and rehabilitation on the individual itself in order to adapt to the environment of the society beforehand in order to integrate and be included in society itself.

To rephrase it in other words, the reason why the star shaped individual or person cannot fit into the the rectangular box or the whole society is because with the individual type of model, it finds its reason on the individual itself. Because there is something wrong with the individual or person, he or she cannot be integrated or be included in the society, needing for modification or rehabilitation of the individual or the person. On another note, the reason why the star shaped individual or person cannot enter the rectangular box of the social model of disability is because it finds its reason not on the individual or the person but the society itself. Thus, it is the society which must modify, change and rehabilitate to accommodate any or all needs of individuals or persons. Thus, the door must be open for all to enter the society for any shape to come and be included.

These two types of models of disability, individual and social models of explain well the difference between the integrated type of education and the inclusive type of education. For instance, with the integrated type of education, the school education system will not modify,

change or adapt to the needs of children. On the other hand, the child must be able to adapt and rehabilitate so that he or she may be able to attend the school without the school having to change its environment. Whereas with inclusive education, the school education system will accommodate needs of any children surrounding and within the school so that the child does not have to change himself or herself to attend school. In other words, the school in principle must be able to accommodate and adapt to all needs of children, no matter what needs the child may require.

2.6 Definition on Social Groups labeled as “Disadvantaged” or “At-risk” in Academic Research

Another important and critical aspect about the study of equity of education is the “target groups”. In other words, for whom is equity targeted at? Or, what is the definition on social background labeled as “disadvantaged” or “at-risk”? Numerous studies have been conducted and the demographic variables are often used to characterize or cluster persons into strata or groups. The major ones are gender, ethnicity, income gap and community type whether urban or rural. According to many scholars, definition of social background labeled as “disadvantaged” or “at-risk” are represented in the following studies.

Haug (1977) points out that there are at least two types of characteristics which are used to cluster persons into strata or groups that are hierarchically ordered. First, there are

biologically based characteristics such as age, sex, race, and ethnic origin. Second, there are acquired characteristics such as power, wealth and social prestige. Secada (1989) states that commonly, groups are defined along some demographic characteristics such as social class, race, gender, ethnicity language background. Green (1983) dictates that demographic variables of educational equity should be irrelevant (uncorrelated) to the distribution of educational goods including ones defined by gender, social class, race or geography. Furthermore, Davis and McCaul (1997) identify five key indicators which are commonly associated with educationally at-risk children for example; “(a) living in an economically poor household (b) having minority/racial group identity (c) living in a single-parent family (d) having a poorly educated mother (e) having a non-English –language background.” (p.573) And lastly, Kelly (1997) states that factors are markers of power and status such as social class, ethnicity and race, gender and community type (urban or rural). Usually these have been treated as demographic variables.

According to UNESCO (2009a), “enjoyment of that right is heavily conditioned by the lottery of birth and inherited circumstance. Opportunities for education are heavily influenced by where one is born and by other factors over which children have no control, including parental income, gender and ethnicity.” (p.26) And as for the World Bank (2006), “children face substantially different opportunities to learn and to lead healthy lives in almost all populations, depending on asset ownership, geographic location, or parental education, among others.” (p.4) Through these numerous academic researches and definitions as set forth by UNESCO and the

World Bank, it is relevant to state that the social groups as defined by gender, ethnicity, disability, poverty and geographical location, whether rural or urban cover demographic variables which is utilized in this research study of the dissertation and provide sufficient evidence that these social groups have been identified in this research study as the disadvantaged groups. Further to that, the author has also conducted a policy desk review analysis investigating the types of social groups defined as disadvantaged or at-risk to identify the major characteristics considered to concretely define social groups with an additional policy analytical research, providing background proof to the definition of social groups labelled as disadvantaged or at-risk.

Chapter 3 Research and Conceptual Framework

3.1 Background to the Concept of Educational Equity and Inclusion

As stated in the definitions as set forth by Lynch (1994, p.55) which are illustrated in Table 3-1 below, the concepts of inclusion, diversity and inclusive education are characterized by the following statements. The traditional pattern of inclusive education is “exclusive teaching and learning as well as learning in segregated settings.” Whereas with the inclusive pattern of inclusive education, it is “inclusive teaching and learning and learning in integrated settings.” Additionally, when this Table 3-1 is looked into very carefully, it is very clear and evident that with the traditionally separate institutional systems in comparison to the integrated system to promote inclusion, the expressions “separated, special, special education, separate, segregated, separately, special settings” stand out on its own vividly.

In contrast, the integrated system to promote inclusion clearly points out contrary expressions such as, “inclusive education, regular classes, both regular and special educators, integrated, joint communication”. As it can be seen, interpretations of inclusive education in contrast to the traditional means of segregated or separate institutional systems are completely different.

Table 3-1: Definitions of separate and integrated institutional systems

Traditionally Separate Institutional Systems	Integrated Systems to Promote Inclusion
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ● Educational placements separated into “regular” and “special” for “two types of children”; students seldom reintegrated in the regular class once removed 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ● Design of a flexible and responsive continuum of educational placements
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ● Regular and special education teachers provided separate in-service training reinforcing separate systems 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ● Joint in-service training of regular and special education teachers in inclusive education
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ● “Regular” initial training prepares teachers only to serve “regular” students and to refer other students 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ● Initial training of regular teachers includes strategies for “special” children in regular classes
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ● The locus of special educational services remains in the segregated special education class or school 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ● The locus special educational services and support is shifted to the regular school and classes
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ● Educational planning for regular children and those with special needs is conducted separately 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ● Educational planning for children with special needs includes both regular and special educators
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ● Supervision of educational services to regular and special students conducted separately 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ● Supervision of educational services to regular and special needs students is integrated
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ● Special educational supports unavailable in class 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ● Special educational support in the regular class is available to children who cannot achieve adequately
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ● Special educators communicate with families of special needs students; regular educators with regular student’s families 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ● Parent and family involvement is encouraged through joint communication with families by regular and special educators
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ● Families are informed about special educational services available in special settings. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ● Families are informed about the service continuum and the philosophy of inclusive education

Source: Lynch, 1994 p.55, modified by author

3.2 Traditional Forms of Measuring Educational Equity Concepts

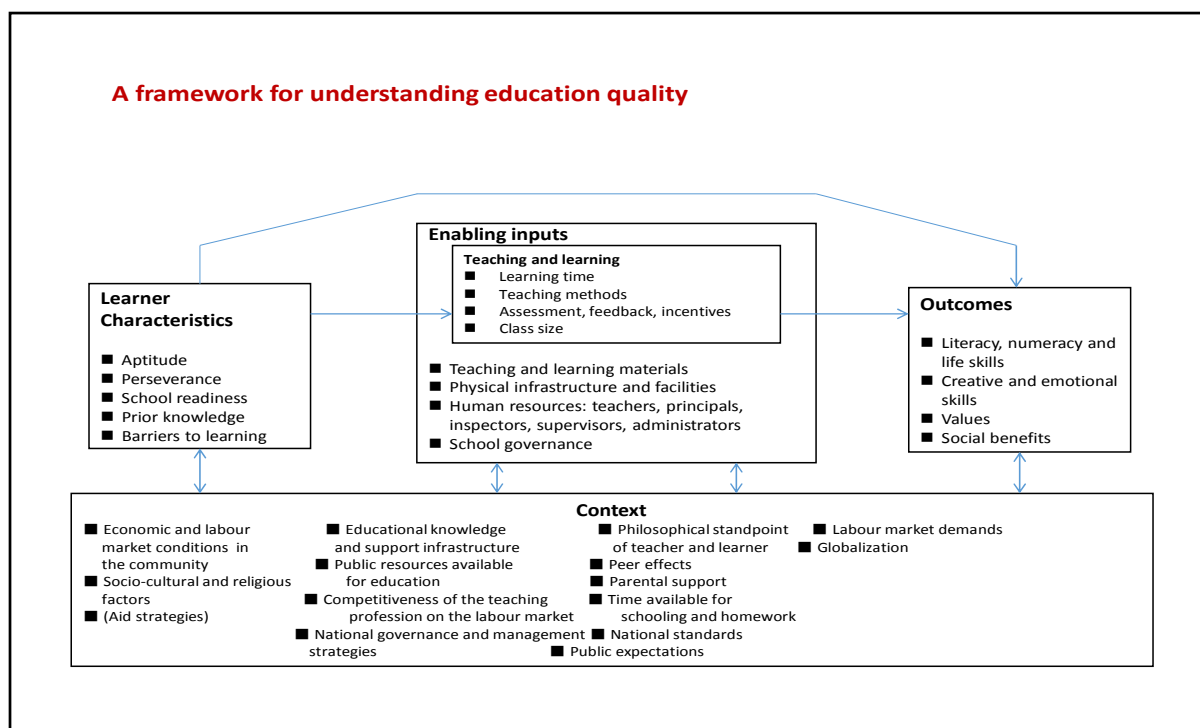
In this part of the sub-section, it is significant to define the different educational equity concepts which will be utilized in this research study to benchmark disparities across different educational equity concepts and targeted social groups. However, the core focus will be placed firstly on the traditional forms of measuring educational equity concepts.

When measuring educational equity in terms of inequity or inequality, the following educational equity concepts are traditionally considered. For example, access to education and quality of education which can be labelled as opportunity, process and internal results within the educational system. Moreover, in relation to the aspect on educational quality, this dimension can further be separated into two parts; one which is the process of quality of inputs and the second one which is the results of outputs and outcomes. Hence, educational equity is measured and benchmarked on these two dimensions of access and quality. Traditionally, these equity concepts are used to assess whether or not there is equity in access and quality of education.

There are numerous researches conducted on the definitions of quality of education. Firstly, Figure 3-1 below explains the indicators in quality of education as set forth by UNESCO (2005a). From this figure, the traditional ways of measuring or benchmarking educational quality alone are characterized by learner characteristics, enabling inputs and outcomes and it is in line with what the author has explained in the previous part of this sub-section. However,

it can also be noted that UNESCO (2005a) also takes into account of the learner characteristics which are illustrated in terms of how well the child is ready to learn which include ones characterized by aptitude, perseverance, schoold readiness, prior knowledge and barriers to learning.

Figure 3-1: Indicators of quality of education



Source: created by author from EFA Global Monitoring Report 2005 The Quality Imperative p.36

To continue on and as also stipulated by many academic scholars, definitions on equity of education or equality of education can be defined in such following ways. According to the Coleman Report (Coleman, 1967; Coleman et al., 1966) which many current literature traces

its origin is this particular report, equality of education must be concerned with the kind of goods within the educational system that can be equally distributed among different groups of students. On the other hand, in addition to the goods delivered within the education system, Secada (1989) argues that more qualitative issues within the educational system as part of measuring educational equity must be addressed. To be more specific, Secada calls them specific actions or arrangements that are carried out within the educational arena which relate to the qualitative issues such as the curriculum and it is such qualitative factors which determine equity or equality of quantitative differences between different groups.

In line with what the author will mainly utilize as educational concepts to assess or measure equity, Brookover and Lezotte (1981); Fennema and Meyer (1989); Harvey and Klein (1989) and Winfield (1986) mention similar educational equity concepts as follows. They all argue that educational equity be achieved by policies at three junctures including access, participation and outcomes. In more detail, Farell (1997) refers to several facts of educational equality for use illustrating equality of access, equality of survival and equality of output and outcome. And lastly, Gipps and Stobart (2010) imply an interesting point about how equity and equality differ in terms of educational provision. When referring to the term equality, this requires more of the quantitative distributions of educational goods between different social groups. However, when the term equity is measured, it is essential to look more towards

achievements of that quantitative approach and to assess whether just and fair results are attained.

3.3 A New Approach and Perspective in Measuring Educational Equity Concepts

In addition to the traditional ways of measuring educational equity concepts as briefly explained in the previous section, this research study will utilize a new approach and perspective as a way of measuring whether disparities are existent within policy and across different social groups. To be very brief, concepts concerning educational equity and inclusion in this particular research study imply the notions of inclusion (diversity) and inclusive education which are notions as part of the internal results or quality of education within the educational system.

Educational equity and inclusion is a notion based on the assumption that equity and equality should be provided to embrace diversity and promote inclusive education in school classrooms. Or in other words, there should be forms of educational equity and equality provided to all children in diverse settings and inclusive educational settings. Needless to say, there is the issue of choice as justified in the theory of the methodological individualism approach, however, this new approach which has been taken by the author in this research study presumes that educational equity should be existent for inclusion (diversity) to further promote the internal results of quality education for all children. The study on educational equity and

inclusion is based on the assumption of broadly adopting increased reforms from diverse and numerous angles, supporting and welcoming diversity of all learners which is gaining broader recognition internationally.

As described in the previous section, equity concepts are measured and assessed in terms of two main dimensions including educational access and quality of inputs, outputs and outcomes. They represent the opportunity, process and internal results of the educational system. In addition to these two dimensions, a new perspective and dimension will be added to this field of measuring and benchmarking equity concepts, which are “inclusion, diversity and inclusive education”. This research and conceptual framework will be explored in depth in the following section to come, but in relation to the literature review conducted in the previous chapter, the author has aimed to explain the concept of this new approach on educational equity and inclusion in this particular section.

3.4 Overall Research and Conceptual Framework

3.4.1 Equity concepts and indicators for development

In this part of the section and finally, the author attempts to explain thoroughly the research and conceptual framework that will be used for this research study as illustrated in the Figure 3-2 below. The figure illustrated by the author is used to describe various equity concepts

of education and equity indicators to measure and benchmark existing policies in education as well as new policies for development.

Firstly, equity concepts of education include access of education, quality of education including educational inputs, outputs and outcomes. Moreover, the other aspect of quality of education include the dimension on diversity and inclusive education. In relation to how these different equity concepts are assessed in education, first of all, access looks at whether there is opportunity in education. Then, resource inputs for education examines the process of education and schooling. Moving on, the other aspect of educational quality is the internal results of students measured by educational outputs and outcomes. And, another characteristic that the author has added in measuring internal results is the aspect on inclusion, diversity and inclusive education. This is the new aspect of this research study on equity concepts and indicators for policy development.

On the other hand, equity concepts can also be measured through the external context and external results which are both measured outside of the schooling and educational system. In other words, the social, cultural, economic and educational equalities and inequalities which exist in numerous forms such as factors defined by gender, ethnicity, disability, poverty and rurality represent the external context. Inequalities which exist in and between these social and external factors determine the extent to which an individual may and can have access or the opportunity to education. It is thus important that in existing and emerging policies of national

governments to state that such external contexts do not hinder the entry of social groups in gaining equitable access and quality education.

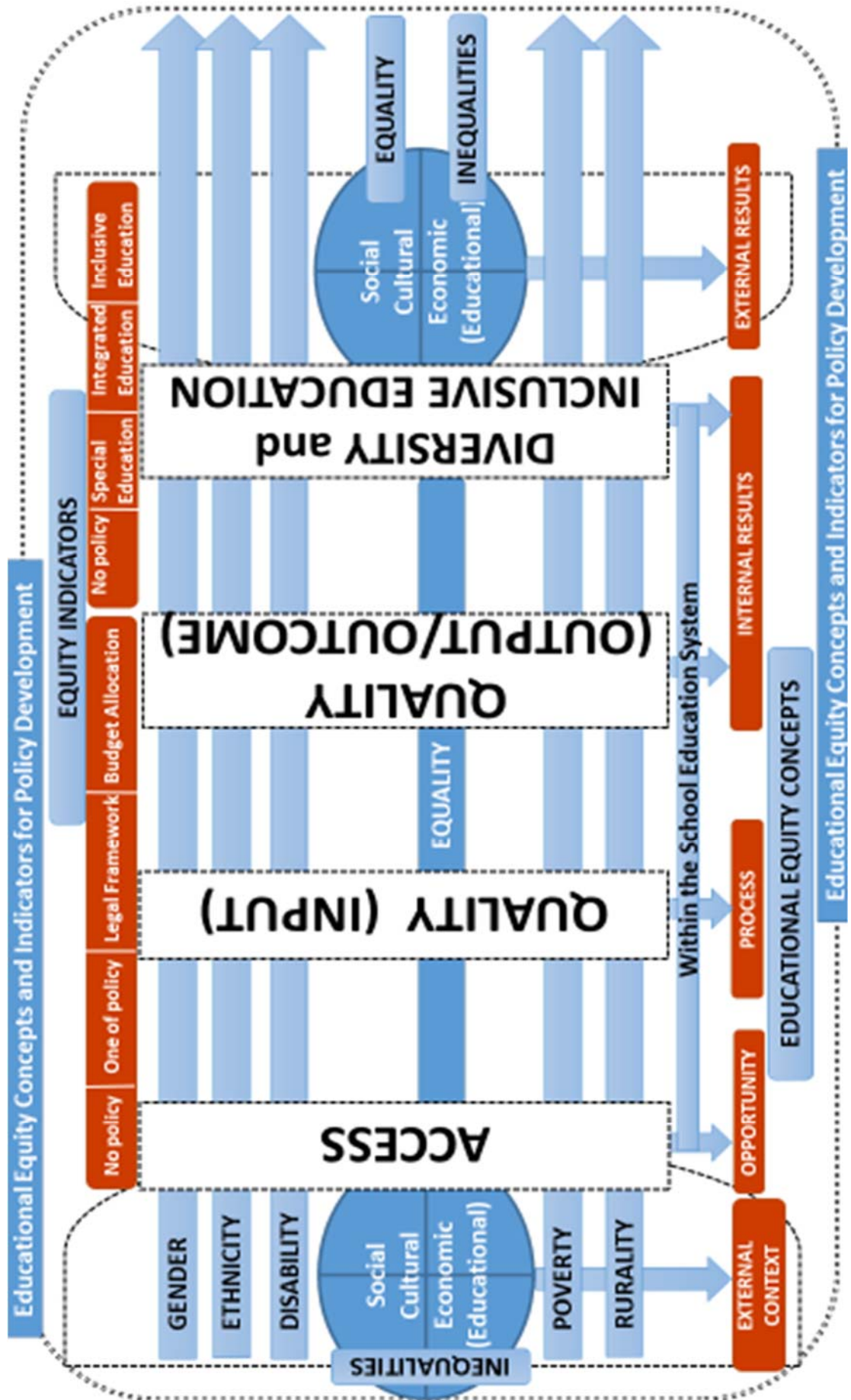
And furthermore, the external results which signify all and any consequence resulting from education or what are the outputs and outcomes after receiving education are measured by the social, cultural, economic and educational factors whether in the form of equality or inequality in a society. It can be said that the external results are strongly determined by the opportunity, process and internal results of the educational system, whether equity and equality can be assured in these four equity concepts of education.

In relation to the visual figure created by the author, clarifications will now be made explicit to explain this figure in detail. This figure visually depicts the relationship between various conceptions of equity, on one hand, and various types of indicators related to policy, on the other hand. In this figure, the various conceptions of equity listed above the blue box at the bottom of the figure are defined in terms of the degree of policy language directed at ensuring equity in terms of opportunity (access), process (quality of education assessed through inputs) and internal results (quality of education measured through outputs, outcome and diversity and inclusive education). These aspects of equity can be found in the red boxes that run along the lower part of the figure. To continue, this figure shows that these equity concepts can be assessed using the “equity indicators” found in the red boxes that run along the top of the figure.

These indicators (or labels) are “no policy”, “recognized as a national policy”, “legal framework is in place” and “there is allocation of the budget.”

In order to measure how diverse and inclusive education is, another set of “equity indicators” including “no policy”, “special education”, “integrated education” and “inclusive education” is included in the red boxes on the right half of the figure at the top. Also depicted in this figure are those social, cultural, economic and educational inequalities that exist outside of the school environment, meaning the external context. Depending on how those inequalities interact with the internal context of the school, for example, through the quality of education provided, they may be reproduced or the school may contribute to more equal outcomes. Before proceeding, it should be noted that this figure has been developed by the author in order to introduce how the resultant concept of equity labeled “diversity and inclusive education” is added as a fourth core pillar and to position this dimension in relation to the three existing pillars when it comes to conceptions of equity.

Figure 3-2: Research and conceptual framework of the author



Source: created by author

3.4.2 The new core pillar on inclusion (diversity)

The study on educational equity and inclusion is still new and emerging. It is in fact very different from the traditional studies on equity and inclusion where measuring policy for these two concepts are usually limited to access and quality of education in terms of inputs and outputs for existing and new policy development.

Therefore, in suggesting the fourth core pillar here, in addition to looking at equity in terms of the outputs and outcomes of education quality, which is a common approach, the concept of equity that is proposed here also links equity to inclusion (diversity) and inclusive educational practices. This new concept of equity signifies or is based on the assumption that all children should have access to and quality of education in a diversified and an inclusive educational environment, in contrast to research studies which assume that children with special educational needs should be educated in special settings. Also, it is based on the assumption that the equity concept on inclusion (diversity) and inclusive education is welcomed in policies and that they are proved just and relevant for the betterment of quality education.

To explain more in detail, quality of education (when measured only by outputs and outcomes) refers strictly to the cognitive skills that result, at least in part, from the internal characteristics of schools. They are often assessed through school grades and national exams. On the other hand, the other aspect of a school's internal results, the aspect that relates to inclusion (diversity) and inclusive education, is measured through non-cognitive skills. This

aspect goes beyond acquiring cognitive skills of being able to read, write and count. Non-cognitive skills complement cognitive skills and include social skills (communication) and life skills (vocational training) as well as competencies to make use of those non-cognitive skills and thus, providing common values, attitudes as global citizens of the international community through peace education, human rights, equity and accepting inclusion (diversity). Importantly, these non-cognitive skills and competencies can instill common values and attitudes that help to ensure equitable treatment of each other and the acceptance of inclusion (diversity).

This aspect of measuring the non-cognitive skills which is part of educational quality and measuring the internal results are considered to be essential elements to this research study. In other words and as stated earlier, this research study is based on the assumption that educational equity and inclusion enriches and improves the quality of education and thus the internal results of education. This aspect is a new equity concept and this conceptual framework will be utilized as illustrated in Figure 3-2 above to benchmark policies of national governments for better policy development. It will hence imply discussions on the different equity indicators for policy development, making arguments on whether the policies discuss the promotion of inclusion (diversity) for numerous social groups as defined by factors on gender, ethnicity, disability, poverty and rurality. And moreover, this is based once again on the assumption that such a type of education is regarded as promoting and enriching the quality of education for all children, those with and without special education needs. It seeks to address whether such an assumption

is assured in current existing policies of countries worldwide and also at the national local context level in Cambodia.

Chapter 4 Employed Research Methodology and Data Sources

4.1 Introduction

The primary aim of the upcoming data analyses to be presented in chapters 5, 6 and 7 is to conduct a qualitative situational desk review analysis of quantitative amounts of diverse international and national policy documents related to education for all, equity, inclusion (diversity) and inclusive education. First of all in chapter 5, the applied methodology of qualitative and quantitative situational desk review analysis attempts to identify the target social groups or the kinds of categories of whom are considered to have special education needs and those considered to be categorized as “disadvantaged” or “at-risk” groups. And second of all, the same applied methodology will also investigate the current education strategies and interventions in place to meet the needs of those social groups with special education needs according to the four categories namely as exclusion, special education, integrated education and inclusive education.

Nextly, for chapters 6 and 7, a separate or additional methodology will be utilized to undertake qualitative and quantitative situational desk review analysis of policy documents both at the international and national levels. The second type of methodology consists of attempting to apply a standardized benchmarking tool called as the rubric which has been uniquely developed by JICA Research Institute (Dr. Kazuo Kuroda, Dr. Takako Yuki and the author, Makiko Hayashi) as part of an original pilot activity in an attempt to contribute to the SABER

(Systems Approach for Better Education Results) domain on “Equity and Inclusion”.⁸ This rubric will be used as a pilot tool, in the sense that it is the first attempt for use, in order to evaluate education policies according to evidence-based global standards and best practices. It will help countries systematically examine and strengthen the performance of their inclusive education system. With regard to evidence-based education policies, this framework helps to investigate and assess whether issues related to educational equity and inclusion are addressed in diverse policy-related documents that are developed at the international and national levels, or by the government of Cambodia. The author hopes that the usage of such a rubric will encourage countries around the world to identify policy shortcomings related to different kinds of disadvantages and various equity and inclusive concepts. To continue further, in usage of this originally developed pilot rubric, this research study will investigate and assess whether issues on educational equity and inclusion are addressed in diverse policy sources including the 2008 National Country Reports on the Development of Education.

And finally, the third type of methodology is also very much similar to the second type of methodology, but with this particular one, the pilot-SABER rubric has been formulated or de-structured into a questionnaire type of interview survey to facilitate a more smooth conduction of policy review analysis mainly with policy makers of the government of Cambodia. This survey related to the pilot-SABER rubric will be described in depth very

⁸ Refer to Appendix 3 for full details of the pilot-SABER rubric on equity and inclusion

shortly.⁹

4.2 The Overall SABER Framework

In order to benchmark or assess educational equity and inclusion concepts for policy development in a qualitative method and manner, equity indicators have been developed for each educational equity concepts on access, quality (inputs), quality (outputs/ outcomes), inclusion (diversity) and inclusive education. These newly developed equity indicators will serve as a new policy goal-ratings tool to examine educational equity and inclusion at the international and national context policy levels, making an original and practical contribution for assessing policies in a standardized way and for most, the development of a new policy benchmarking tool in the field of educational equity and inclusion which has not yet been presented by the World Bank as of June 2015.

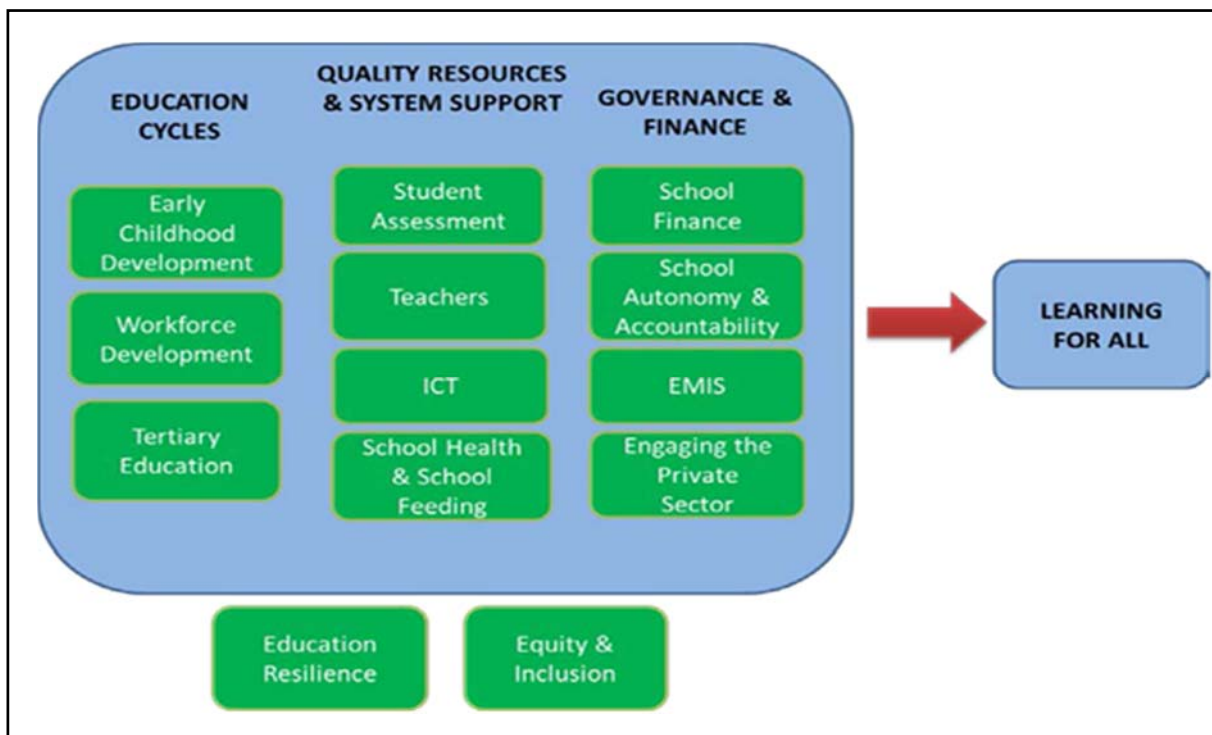
Prior to exploring the original pilot-SABER rubric, the overall framework of the large SABER umbrella in line with the goals and aims of the World Bank will be presented here in this paragraph of the section. The SABER in general is an abbreviation for the Systematic Approach for Better Education Results (SABER) developed by the World Bank. While on the other hand, the newly developed pilot-SABER rubric on equity and inclusion has been developed by the JICA Research Institute Team.

First of all, the SABER in general is an initiative currently being developed by the World

⁹ Refer to Appendix 4 for full details on the questionnaire survey

Bank along with partners around the world that helps countries systematically examine and strengthen the performance of their education systems to achieve learning for all. Furthermore, the SABER is developing diagnostic tools that benchmark education policies according to evidence-based global standards and best practices. It will determine and compare the levels of commitments of national governments through developed intended policies. Within the overall SABER framework, there are 13 domains in total as illustrated in Figure 4-1 below.

Figure 4-1: The 13 domains of the SABER framework



Source: adopted from the World Bank (n.d.)

As it is clearly illustrated in Figure 4-1 above, various and numerous domains or fields

in education are identified and categorized according to education cycles, quality resources and system support, governance and finance. Within these three types of categories as set forth by the World Bank, there are eleven domains of education and the remaining two domains on “education resilience” and “equity and inclusion” are positioned outside of the three main categories which identify the other eleven domains. As such, it can be inferred that these two domains are considered as cross-cutting issues within the overall umbrella of the eleven domains and they are issues that must be taken into consideration as overarching domains. Through this overall structure of the SABER developed by the World Bank including thirteen domains, it aims to explore policy shortcomings to achieve quality learning for all.

4.3 The Pilot-SABER Rubric on Equity and Inclusion

4.3.1 The structure of the pilot-SABER rubric on equity and inclusion

As stated previously, this pilot-SABER rubric on equity and inclusion has been uniquely developed by JICA Research Institute as part of an original pilot activity in an attempt to contribute to the SABER domain on equity and inclusion. The objective of utilizing this rubric is to determine and compare the levels of commitments of national governments in achieving equity and inclusion in policy frameworks, targeting different social groups from four perspectives and from four patterns. The kinds of different social groups as well as what the four perspectives and four patterns signify will be made explicit in the following paragraphs.

Firstly, the five social groups include those disadvantaged groups which are defined by characteristics associated with gender, ethnicity, disability, poverty or income gap and geographical location whether rural or urban. Secondly, the four perspectives include the four educational equity and inclusion concepts as explained in the research and conceptual framework of this research study in chapter three which refer to equity of access, equity of resource inputs for quality of education, equity of learning outcomes for quality of education, inclusion (diversity) and inclusive education. In relation to the school education system, these four perspectives also refer to opportunity, process and the internal results. And thirdly, the four patterns have been developed as what are named as equity indicators and include two separate sets of four patterns that have been developed according to which type of the four perspectives are being measured. For example, the first set of four patterns are equity indicators assessing whether with pattern one, there is no government policy; whereas with pattern two, there is government policy recognized for that social group as one of the national policy goals. And with pattern three, not only is there government policy or policy is recognized for that targeted social group but moreover, there are legal and administrative frameworks structured within the administration of the government. And finally, with pattern four, in addition to the legal and administrative frameworks which are being structured in the government, allocation of the national budget is assured to ensure smooth implementation of its policy, legal and administrative frameworks.

As for the second set of four patterns, they are equity indicators assessing the different types of education or schooling to be provided based on the notion of educational equity and inclusion. To explain more in detail, the first pattern serves as an equity indicator to measure whether there are policy discussions on special classrooms, integrated classrooms or inclusive classrooms. On the other hand, with pattern two, special education is being chosen by the policy to promote equity and the protection of right to education. And with pattern three, integrated education is being chosen by the policy to promote equity, inclusion (diversity) and equal opportunity in education for those children with special education needs. Finally with pattern four, inclusive education is being chosen by the policy to promote not only equity, inclusion (diversity) and equal opportunity but inclusive education is regarded as a positive promotion of inclusion (diversity) and quality of education for all children, those with and without special education needs.

And finally, in terms of the four educational equity and inclusion concepts, each one of the concepts will be assessed according to certain criterion of definitions as set by the author. To reiterate its contents, firstly, equity of access will be measured through levels of commitments of national governments towards equity of quantitative distributions of educational opportunities for different targeted social groups. And secondly, for equity of resource inputs for quality of education, it will be measured through levels of commitments of national governments towards attaining equity through school factors such as pupil-teacher

ratio, teaching methods and learning materials. Thirdly, as for equity of learning outcomes for quality of education, it will be measured through levels of commitments of national governments towards attaining equity in student performance. And lastly, as for inclusion (diversity) and inclusive education, these notions will be measured through levels of commitments of national governments towards how widespread the notion of embracing inclusion (diversity) of special education needs have become explicit in international and national policies.

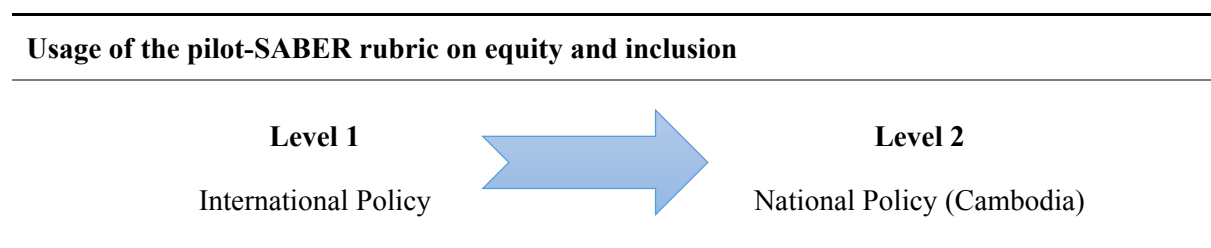
4.3.2 The purposes of utilizing the pilot-SABER rubric on equity and inclusion

In this particular sub-section of the chapter, it is wise to review how the pilot-SABER rubric on equity and inclusion which has been originally structured by JICA Research Institute including the author aims to pursue the research purposes and goals of this research study. The development and presentation of such a benchmarking tool to evaluate policies in terms of educational equity and inclusion itself is one of the original contributions of this dissertation, however, further to that, the usage of this original pilot rubric in relation to its key findings and analyses is the core focus of this research study. Hence, in the following paragraphs to come, the purposes of utilizing the pilot-SABER rubric on equity and inclusion will be again explained in relation to the research questions as set forth in the introductory chapter of this dissertation.

Examining the first research question, concerning educational equity and inclusion measured at the international policy level, who are the target groups of different socially

excluded children? Second, what are the different target patterns observed for these social groups across various kinds of educational equity concepts including equity of access, equity of resource inputs for quality of education, equity of learning outcomes for quality of education, inclusion (diversity) and inclusive education. Third, concerning the perspective of inclusion (diversity), how and what are the differences and gaps observed between disability and other socially excluded groups of children as defined by gender, ethnicity, poverty (income gap) and geographical location whether rural or urban. To summarize the general framework to be applied using the pilot-SABER rubric on equity and inclusion, it is illustrated as follows in Table 4-1.

Table 4-1: General framework using the pilot-SABER rubric on equity and inclusion



Source: created by author

Applying this general framework using the pilot rubric will be the first attempt to undertake a research study by means of an empirical method that will make a contribution to the study concerning educational equity and inclusion. Furthermore, as briefly mentioned

earlier, it is also an empirical research study attempting to develop a new policy tool or policy goal-ratings which will “document and analyze policies that promote equity in access to education and learning.” (World Bank, 2013 September 15th) In other words, it is a new policy tool which benchmarks educational policies on equity and inclusion based on qualitative evidence based proof and best practices. Moreover, it is also a new policy tool that “will classify and analyze education systems around the world according to a number of core policy goals to which all education systems should aspire.” (World Bank, 2013 September 15th)

4.4 Methodology 1: Categories of Disadvantaged Groups and Types of Schooling

4.4.1 Data sources

Concerning data gathering of Education for All National Plans of Action (hereinafter, EFA NPAs) and Education for All 2000 Assessment Reports (hereinafter, EFA 2000 Assessment Reports), a total of 77 reports from 60 Asian and African countries have been collected and reviewed in both English and French, but those reports in which publication was only accessible in other languages, reports could not be reviewed. Not only language restrictions, yet there was also limitation in reports accessible through the UNESCO documentation services due to technical problems. And also from a different angle, the reviewed reports have been written based on guidelines as set forth in standardized guidelines¹⁰, but thorough review of each of

¹⁰ UNESCO. (1998). *Education for All: The Year 2000 Assessment*, International Consultative Forum on Education for All. UNESCO. Paris.
UNESCO. (2000). *Preparation of national plans of action Country guidelines*. UNESCO. Paris.

these reports notably demonstrate a certain degree of variation in the kinds of details included, although selection of reports and plans have been unified to EFA NPAs and EFA 2000 Assessment Reports, probably due to different authors involved in finalizing the reports.

Out of the 77 reports studied and reviewed, there are in total 38 countries selected from Africa¹¹ with a total of 48 reports and plans, of which 16 reports are EFA NPAs. There are 3 reports considered as “Others” in the 48 reports and plans, of which includes; The Education Sector Development Program from Ethiopia; The Annual Education Sector Operational Plan from Ghana and The Education Sector Support Program from Kenya. These reports were the only sources available as their national education sector plan, available from the UNESCO Education Plans and Policies website and national Ministries of Education. Moreover, among the 48 reports and plans reviewed, more than half of them were sources only available in the French language, as they consisted of francophone countries in Africa.

Next, regarding selected countries in the Asian¹² region, firstly, there are in total 22 countries from the Asia counting the Pacific Islands as one target group. When referred to the Pacific Islands in this particular EFA NPA, this particular national plan of action of the Pacific region comprises of 7,500 islands and is separated into three main sub-regions namely as; Melanesia (West), Polynesia (South-East) and Micronesia (Central and North), excluding

Chang G-C. (n.d.). *Developing a plan of action for education Methodological brief*. UNESCO. Paris.
UNESCO. (2001). *EFA Planning Guide Southeast and East Asia* Follow-up to the World Education Forum.
UNESCO. Thailand.

¹¹ Refer to Appendix 5 for a full list of countries from Africa

¹² Refer to Appendix 6 for a full list of countries from Asia

Australia and New Zealand.¹³ Among the total of 29 reports and plans reviewed, 10 reports consists of the EFA 2000 Assessment Reports, all of which were published in English. With the exception of Mongolia, the one report used for this review and analysis was The Mid-Term Action Plan.

Thus, combining both regions from Africa and Asia, a total of 60 countries are the target countries of this particular quantitative and qualitative comparative situational analysis, conducting a review study of 77 reports and plans of EFA 2000 Assessment Reports and EFA NPAs, including 4 other reports available through the UNESCO Education Plans and Policies webpage and national Ministries of Education. Of the 77 reports and plans, a total of 41 EFA 2000 Assessments and 32 EFA NPAs were reviewed. In addition, 52 reports and plans were accessible in English and the remaining 25 reports and plans were only accessible or published in French.

Table 4-2: Number of countries in Africa and Asia and number of reports/plans by language

Total # of countries	Total # of reports/plans	English	French
60 Countries	77 reports and plans (41) 2000 Assessments (32) EFA NPAs	52 reports/plans	25 reports/plans

¹³ Region/Country/Territory included: (as referred in the Synthesis of the Pacific EFA NPAs 2003)

1) Melanesia: Fiji, PNG, Solomon Islands, Vanuatu

2) Micronesia: FSM, Kiribati, Marshal Islands, Nauru, Palau

3) Polynesia: Cook Islands, Niue, Samoa, Tokelau, Tonga, Tuvalu

(4) Others

Source: created by author

4.4.2 Description of the main methodology

Prior to examining the results of the comparative situational desk review analyses of the data sources as described above, this sub-section will present the main methodology utilized to conduct the analyses. By using the data sources of EFA NPAs and the EFA 2000 Assessment Reports from 77 countries in Africa and Asia, this research study primarily has aimed to examine the current situation of special education needs and inclusive education through the following two dimensions.

As for the first dimension, it refers notably to the specific target groups or categories of whom are considered to have special education needs. And as for the second dimension, it refers to the current education strategies and interventions in place to meet those special education needs according to the four categories of educational provision which are; exclusion, special education, integrated education and inclusive education. The latter part of the dimension will undertake assessments on the progress of developing countries towards inclusive education policies and examine the various patterns at which national governments are working to meet those with special education needs. Interestingly enough, thorough review and detailed analyses into the different patterns of policy development to meet the special education needs for all children and youth, it reveals how national governments at the international policy level understand and perceive the meaning of inclusive education through their own country's context,

questioning the relevance of inclusive educational settings. Before continuing, let us go back to the first dimension on the different special education needs of social groups identified and categorized into 16 types of social groups and factors.¹⁴

Table 4-3: Categories of groups with Special Education Needs (SEN)

1. Disabled Persons	9. Child Soldiers
2. Gifted Children	10. Poverty-stricken Children
3. Street/Working Children	11. HIV/AIDs Children and Orphans
4. Remote/Nomadic Populations	12. Orphans/Separated Children
5. Linguistic/Ethnic/Cultural/Religious Minorities	13. Jailed Children
6. Abused Children	14. Illiterate Youth
7. Refugees/ IDPs	15. Out-of-School Children
8. Migrants	16. Other Special Education Needs

Source: created by author

4.5 Methodology 2-A: Using the Pilot-SABER Rubric at the International Policy Level

4.5.1 Data sources

This research has reviewed a total number of 77 2008 National country reports focusing on inclusive education from 77 countries worldwide including both developing and developed countries. The 77 countries are from five different regions worldwide, including Africa, Asia,

¹⁴ The 16 categories here have been listed by the author through literature review of what are considered to be SEN based on the notion of inclusion by UNESCO's conceptual and policy papers (1994, 2003, 2005b)

Eastern European States, GRULAC (Latin American Caribbean States) and WEOG (Western European and Other States).¹⁵ The 2008 National Country Reports focusing on inclusive education were presented by countries during the international conference on education held in the year 2008 by UNESCO-IBE on the theme of inclusive education.

4.5.2 Description of the main methodology

As explained earlier in this chapter, the main applied methodology for the data sources as described in the previous sub-section, it consists of using a standardized benchmarking tool called as the rubric. Therefore, with regard to evidence-based education policies, this research study investigates and assesses whether issues on educational equity and inclusion are addressed in diverse policy sources from 77 developed and developing countries using the 2008 National Country Reports of Education on inclusive education. The usage of this rubric will allow enough room to undertake research and investigation of educational policies of 77 countries by identifying visible policy disparities within different educational equity concepts and across various social groups as defined by factors including gender, ethnicity, disability, poverty (income gap) and geographical location, whether rural or urban.

Moreover, the data sources of 77 country policy documents are classified according to three kinds of external socioeconomic factors in order to determine whether such external factors may have an impact on the results obtained using the pilot-SABER rubric on equity and

¹⁵ Refer to Appendix 8 for a full list of all 116 countries grouped by their respective regions.

inclusion. In other words, policies of 77 countries worldwide including both developed and developing countries are classified according to the country's status of ratification to the Convention on the Rights of Persons with Disabilities (CRPD), economic status measured by the gross national product (GNP), as well as level of primary education enrollment which will be measured by the net enrollment rate (NER).

To explain more in detail how the pilot rubric functions in terms of how it benchmarks country policies on educational equity and inclusion for social groups, the following Table 4-4 and 4-5 will be used for further illustration. The following Tables 4-4 and 4-5 illustrate the example of taking "gender" and assessing whether or not the special needs of those marginalized groups within this category are addressed appropriately in policy documents.

With regard to the columns in the pilot-SABER rubric as visually depicted in Table 4-4, note that there are four patterns, one for each column, and that these patterns correspond to three different perspectives on equity. These perspectives (or patterns identified in looking at policy documents) can be adapted to any of the five categories of socially disadvantaged groups. Moreover, it should be noted that these perspectives on equity of education build on each other. For instance, pattern one is no government policy; in pattern two, there is a national policy; in pattern three, not only is there recognition in national policy goals but, furthermore, there are legal and administrative strategies in place. And lastly, with pattern four, allocation of the national budget is assured.

Table 4-4: Pilot-SABER Rubric on Equity and Inclusion based on three equity concepts/perspectives

Pattern 1	Pattern 2	Pattern 3	Pattern 4
<u>No government policy for gender equity of access.</u>	Gender equity of resource inputs for quality of education <u>is recognized as one of the national policy goals.</u>	<u>Legal and administrative frameworks are structured to promote and achieve learning outcomes for quality of education in gender.</u> (including international conventions)	<u>Allocation of the national budget is assured to promote and achieve gender equity of access. (Or gender equity of access is already achieved.)</u>

Source:created by author based on Pilot-SABER Rubric on Equity and Inclusion

And for the fourth perspective on inclusion (diversity) as shown in Table 4-5, there are also four patterns, but in contrast to the four patterns of the other three perspectives, the characteristics are illustrated at a different level, that is, through the lens of the notions of inclusion (diversity) and inclusive education. Thus, this dimension is evaluated for the extent to which should be characterized as either no policy, special education, integrated education or inclusive education. To differentiate the three types of education, firstly, special education refers to the type of schooling for only those with special needs such as disability. Secondly, integrated

education refers to the type of schooling where children with special needs are physically integrated into the same school as those with children without special education needs but are in separate classrooms with special education. While thirdly, inclusive education is the type of education where both children with and without special education needs share the same classes together and education.

Table 4-5: Pilot-SABER Rubric on Equity and Inclusion based on inclusion (diversity)

Pattern 1	Pattern 2	Pattern 3	Pattern 4
<u>No policy discussions on special classrooms vs. inclusive classrooms.</u>	Special classrooms are chosen by the policy to promote equity (protection of rights) of gender in education (<u>special education</u>).	Integrated classrooms are chosen by the policy to promote equity (equal opportunity) of gender in education. (<u>integrated education</u>).	Inclusive classrooms are chosen by the policy to promote equal opportunity and also regarded as a positive promotion of diversity and quality of education for all children, both boys and girls (<u>inclusive education</u>).

Source: created by author based on Pilot-SABER Rubric on Equity and Inclusion

4.6 Methodology 2-B: Using the Pilot-SABER Rubric at the National Policy Level in Cambodia

4.6.1 Data sources

For data collection with regard to the national policy level, a case study of Cambodia's

policy on educational equity and inclusion has been thoroughly investigated. All available policy documents were gathered related to educational equity and inclusion in the government of Cambodia. In the end, a total of 130 documents were compiled for qualitative desk review analysis in usage of the pilot-SABER rubric on equity and inclusion. The types of the policy documents collected are partially detailed in Figure 4-2.

Figure 4-2: A partial list of collected data sources in Cambodia: legislation/laws, polices/plans, administrative frameworks, programs, projects and budget documents

Constitution of Cambodia	Education Law of Cambodia	Education Strategic Plan 2009-2013 ESP Education Strategic Plan 2014-2018	Law on the Protection and the Promotion of the Rights of Persons with Disabilities	Prakas Inter Ministerial on the Criteria Definitions of Disability Classification 2009
Policy on education for children with disabilities 2008	Child Friendly School Policy 2007 Primary Education	EFA National Action Plan 2003-2015	National Bilingual Education action plan in draft	2008 National Country Report on Inclusive Education
Including the excluded: Integrating disability into the EFA FastTrack Initiative processes and National Education Plans in Cambodia	Child Friendly Schools (CFS) Master Plan 2007-2011	Cambodian Disabled People's Organization (CDPO) Report on Current Situation of Education for Children with Disabilities	Policy on Child Friendly School For Basic Education (Grade 1-9) 2012	Guideline on Accelerated Learning approved in 2013
Handicap International Inclusive Education Good Practices	Roles and Tasks of District Training and Monitoring Teams 2008 (revision in 2014)	Child Friendly Schools Policy for Basic Education Master Plan 2014-2018	Master plan for research development in the education sector 2011-2015	Prakas on Bilingual Education approved and endorsed in 2013

Source: created by author based on Appendix 2

As it can be observed from the Figure 4-2, a variety of data sources ranging from legislation, laws, policies, plans, administrative frameworks, programs, projects and budget

documents were compiled by the author through qualitative field work conducted in Cambodia.

4.6.2 Description of the main methodology

In usage of all the compiled documents totaling 130 sources from Cambodia, the main methodology consists of the pilot-SABER rubric on equity and inclusion as it was the case for the methodology implied for policy documents at the international policy level. However, in this part of the methodology, it has also aimed to conduct a field research in order to obtain key findings based on qualitative field interviews consisting of the following principle elements. First of all, interviews in the form of individual interviews or focus group discussions have been conducted in Phnom Penh, Cambodia for a duration of a total of two months. The periods for this field work were separated into four sets of dates, one in October 2013, two in December 2013 and the fourth one in February to March 2014. The field research comprised of qualitative, semi-structured interviews with open-ended questions targeting mainly policy makers. The main objective and purpose of this methodology were to obtain qualitative primary data through actual interviews with informants who were actually involved either in the process of development or the writing process of policy documents related to educational equity and inclusion. Such a methodology was applied in order to obtain relevant data and key findings in response to the research questions of this research study on how and why disparities are existent within different educational equity concepts as well as across various social groups as defined

by gender, ethnicity, disability, poverty (income gap) and geographical location, either rural or urban.

It must also be clarified and mentioned that in this particular part of the methodology referred to as methodology 2-B, a separate approach was applied to the pilot-SABER framework. In other words, the pilot-SABER rubric on equity and inclusion was re-arranged by the author into a questionnaire to easily facilitate qualitative interviews and focus groups with relevant stakeholders involved in the supply side of educational equity and inclusion for different targeted social groups. This questionnaire type of the pilot-SABER framework is included in Appendix 4 for further reference. Additionally, the author has utilized the original pilot-SABER rubric to conduct qualitative situational desk review analysis of the 130 policy documents as like it was case for policy analyses conducted through the methodology used for 77 countries at the international policy level.

4.7 Summary

With regard to the research methodologies referred to as 2-A and 2-B, they signify the pilot-SABER framework on the rubric on equity and inclusion. However, the major difference between research methodologies 2-A and 2-B is that the overall pilot-SABER rubric on equity and inclusion referred to as research methodology 2-A has been re-arranged into a questionnaire type of interview survey referred to as research methodology 2-B. As for the comparative analysis conducted with policies at the international level, the author has used research

methodology 2-A or the pilot-SABER rubric to undertake qualitative desk review analyses. And, as for the comparative analysis conducted with policies at the national level in Cambodia, both research methodologies referred to as 2-A (pilot-SABER rubric) and 2-B or what is called as the pilot-SABER questionnaire/survey have been utilized. The reason why both methodologies have been employed for data sources in Cambodia is simply because the author has undertaken qualitative desk review analyses of collected policies in Cambodia herself using the rubric (2-A). On the other hand and very importantly, primary data were also obtained through qualitative interviews with informants in Cambodia using the questionnaire/survey (2-B).

Chapter 5 Comparative Data Analysis of EFA NPAs and EFA 2000 Assessment Reports

5.1 Introduction

The main aim of this chapter is to present the key findings obtained after conducting a thorough comparative situational desk review analysis of special needs education based on the notions of inclusion (diversity). Data analysis in brief has been conducted at the international policy level in 60 countries from Asia and Africa through an in-depth review study of a total of 77 reports including EFA 2000 Assessment Reports and EFA National Plans of Action. However, prior to moving directly to the main findings observed through this data analysis, the author will present the general guidelines on how the two sets of data sources have been formulated in accordance with these particular guided manuals. As such, the author intends to assure that the data sources which have been utilized for this particular research study of the dissertation maintain a certain level or degree of consistency and coherency in its contents.

5.2 Guidelines on EFA 2000 Assessment Reports and EFA NPAs

5.2.1 Overview on the guideline of EFA 2000 Assessment Reports

Ever since the movement was launched at the World Conference on Education for All in 1990 at Jomtien, and the adoption of the Dakar Framework for Action, national governments have been active and progressing towards attaining the six EFA goals.¹⁶ Thus, the EFA 2000

¹⁶ The Dakar Framework Education for All Goals:

1. Expanding and improving comprehensive early childhood care and education, especially for the most vulnerable and disadvantaged children;

Assessment has been an exercise to evaluate the educational progress of the countries in order to reflect the past ten years of achievements and to give new, increased attention and effort to meeting the basic learning needs for all. The following are the three main objectives as set forth by UNESCO (1998, p.2);

- (i) To construct a comprehensive picture of their progress towards their own Education for All goals since the 1990 Jomtien Conference
- (ii) To identify priorities and promising strategies for overcoming obstacles and accelerating progress
- (iii) To revise their national plans of action accordingly.

Not only of the EFA impacts and the trends so far towards each country's EFA goals, yet the 2000 Assessment aims at obtaining information on the kinds of gaps and disparities which exist in terms of providing basic education for all children, youth and adults. Furthermore, each

2. Ensuring that by 2015 all children, particularly girls, children in difficult circumstances and those belonging to ethnic minorities, have access to a complete free and compulsory primary education of good quality;
3. Ensuring that the learning needs of all young people and adults are met through equitable access to appropriate learning and life skills programmes;
4. Achieving a 50 per cent improvement in levels of adult literacy by 2015, especially for women, and equitable access to basic and continuing education for all adults;
5. Eliminating gender disparities in primary and secondary education by 2005, and achieving gender equality in education by 2015, with a focus on ensuring girl's full and equal access to and achievement in basic education of good quality;
6. Improving all aspects of the quality of education, and ensuring excellence of all so that recognized and measurable learning outcomes are achieved by all, especially in literacy, numeracy, and essential life skills.
(from UNESCO The World Education Forum Website on The Framework for Action:
<http://www.unesco.org/education/wef/en-conf/dakframeng.shtml>)

and every type of actor should be involved both from the supply side and the demand side of education including teachers, pupils, illiterates, parents, communities, educational institutions and programs ranging from public, private, formal to non-formal education. All levels of the national government involved with public expenditure, the central, provincial, district and local governments should be involved in the process of this 2000 Assessment.

The 2000 Assessment is formulated based on data coverage categorized into three parts; part one as the descriptive section indicating general background information on the country's information on geography, economy and the educational situation, as well as a descriptive explanation on the current status of EFA goals, targets and strategies. The objective of part two is developed to capture the main features of the EFA goals on the cross-cutting issues from early childhood care and development, primary education, learning achievement and outcomes and adult literacy. There are in addition two other dimensions, notably training and essential skills and education for better living. Lastly, part three has its role of examining future national policies to be adopted and planned in that country with the aim of attaining the six EFA goals.

5.2.2 Overview on the guideline of the EFA National Plan of Action¹⁷

It is crucial in this sub-section to explore the general overview of the EFA National Plan of Action in relation to its significance with the EFA 2000 Assessment Report. First of all, the

¹⁷ The information provided in this section are contained in the following two guidelines:
Development of a Plan of Action Methodological Brief (Chang, n.d.)
EFA Preparation of national plans of action Country guidelines (UNESCO, 2000a)

EFA National Action Plans are to be utilized by national education administrators at times of planning or elaborating on their national education sector strategy plans or action programs.¹⁸

According to Chang (n.d., p.2);

An education action plan is the operational translation of the education policy of a government, (comprising);

(i) The sector analysis: consists of a diagnostic of structural, functional, and pedagogical aspects of an education system as well as the setting up of options and areas of improvements.

(ii) The policy and the strategies: presents the policy framework concerning the mission, the policy objectives/orientations as well as the strategies of institutional reform and effective implementation of the education policy

(iii) The action program: describes the actions and activities to carry out, the resources (human, technical, physical, and financial) required, the responsibilities and the implementation timeframe.

It merits a part here to make note that the EFA 2000 Assessment has played a major role on the development and the planning of education National Plans of Action. As specifically

¹⁸ National Education Sector Strategy Plans/Programmes are developed at the national level with further in-depth coverage of educational strategies and plans compared to the EFA National Plan of Action

referred by UNESCO (2000a), “the preparation of a national EFA plan (that) should be ready by 2002 at the latest- sooner if possible is the information, strategies and plans that currently exist in regard to each country.” (p.9) In order to produce such elements, “(t)he evidence amassed during the national, regional and thematic EFA 2000 Assessment process; in addition to basic data, the assessment reports contain up-to-date analyses of the strengths and weaknesses of country-level performance vis-à-vis basic education over the past decade...” (p.9) should be the main source of reference for the EFA NPA. In other words, the EFA 2000 Assessment Reports should in principal have played a critical part in the development and the planning of EFA National Plans of Action produced by at least the year 2002 with improved sector analysis and effective strategies for implementation for the achievement of the six EFA goals.

Having thoroughly reviewed the general overview on the guidelines of the reports; EFA 2000 Assessment Reports and the EFA National Plans of Action, it can be stated that these two sets of sources are closely connected to each other in terms of some of the progress which in principle should be reflected in the EFA NPAs in comparison to the 2000 Assessment Reports. Having said that, in the following presentation of data analyses to come, this chapter will also make implications on some of those differences which were observed between the two different but linked two setss of data sources.

5.3 Key Findings

5.3.1 Part one based on comparison of SEN based on disadvantaged or at-risk groups

First, identification on groups of persons considered to be included in any one of the categories named as; “disadvantaged groups”, “vulnerable groups”, “excluded groups” or the “marginalized groups” was undertaken through the classification process as indicated in Appendix 7. According to this classification process, the following results were found as explained in Table 5-1.

Table 5-1: Reference to disadvantaged groups by number of reports and plans

Disadvantaged groups	Total # of Reports	✓	✗
Vulnerable groups			
Excluded groups	77	65	12
Marginalized groups			

Source: created by author

As shown in Table 5-1 above, it is revealed that out of the 77 reports and plans reviewed, nearly all of them, 65 reports and plans had reference to groups of people categorized as “disadvantaged groups”, “vulnerable groups”, “excluded groups” as well as “marginalized groups”. On the other hand, 12 reports and plans had no reference or indication to such groups.

5.3.2 Part two based on comparison of SEN based on inclusion (diversity) by category

Next, among the groups of persons identified as “disadvantaged” or other terms as used by the author in the previous sub-section, it is crucial to investigate who exactly are groups of disadvantaged persons identified at the national policy level in accordance to the 16 different categories of special education needs as listed in Table 4-3 in chapter 4. Through review study undertaken of 77 reports and plans from 60 countries, it has become clear that the group of disabled persons became the first in place in terms of the number of reports and plans totaling 60, identifying disabled persons as one of the disadvantaged groups. Looking at the following Table 5-2 depicts of the current situation regarding all the 16 categories of groups with special education needs by number of reports and plans.

Table 5-2: Total number of reports and plans by categories of SEN

Total # of Reports	Total # of Countries	Disabled Persons	Gifted Children	Street/Working Children	Remote/Nomadic Populations	Minority Groups: Linguistic/Ethnic/Cultural/Religious	Abused Children	Refugees/IDPs	Migrants	Child Soldiers	Poverty-Stricken children	HIV/AIDS Children	Orphans/Separated Children	Jailed Children	Illiterate Youth	Out-of-School Children	Others
77	60	✓: 60	✓: 5	✓: 20	✓: 37	✓: 28	✓: 2	✓: 7	✓: 3	✓: 2	✓: 22	✓: 7	✓: 13	✓: 5	✓: 26	✓: 20	✓: 3
		✗: 17	✗: 72	✗: 57	✗: 40	✗: 49	✗: 75	✗: 70	✗: 74	✗: 75	✗: 55	✗: 70	✗: 64	✗: 72	✗: 51	✗: 57	✗: 74
2000 Assessment:		41	French: 25	✓: Reports/Plans identifying this group as "Disadvantaged Groups"													
NPA:		32	English: 52	✗: Reports/Plans not identifying this group as "Disadvantaged Groups"													
Others:		4															

Source: created by author based on raw data from EFA NPAs and 2000 Assessment Reports

Table 5-3: Priority categories of groups with Special Education Needs (SEN)

1	Disabled Persons (60)*	8	HIV/AIDs Children/Orphans (7) Refugees/IDPs (7)
2	Remote/Nomadic Populations (37)	9	Jailed (5)
3	Minorities (Linguistic, Ethnic, Cultural, Religious) (28)		Gifted (5)
4	Illiterate Youth (26)	10	Migrants (3) Other SEN ¹⁹ (3)
5	Poverty-Stricken Children (22)	11	Abused (2) Child Soldiers (2)
6	Street/Working Children (20) Out-of-School Children (20)		
7	Orphans/Separated Children (13)		

Source: created by author

Note: * The numbers indicated inside the brackets refer to the total number of reports and plans

As revealed in Table 5-2 and Table 5-3, followed by the group of disabled persons identified in a total of 60 reports and plans, the second group identified with special education needs was the remote and nomadic populations with a total number of 37 reports and plans. And thirdly, there were in total 28 reports and plans identifying minority groups including linguistic, ethnic, cultural and religious minorities. The other groups with special education

¹⁹ Other Special Education Needs have been identified by the author in the reports and plans reviewed and studies, all which are specific to the context of the country apart from the 16 categories and include the following: teenage pregnancy, school dropouts, unemployed, traumatized children from wars, children in squatter areas, farm workers and children war affected areas.

needs identified in more the 20 reports and plans include the illiterate youth, poverty-stricken children, street and working children as well as out of school children.

As it became clearly evident that the three priority categories of groups with special education needs considered as disadvantaged groups were the disabled persons, remote and nomadic populations and the minority groups, the least prioritized categories of groups with special education needs were the gifted children with 4 reports and plans, next the migrants and groups categorized as others with a total of 3 reports and plans. And lastly among the 16 categories were the abused and the child soldiers. As referred in footnote 19 in page 240 of this particular chapter, the group of persons with other categories of special education needs include needs that are featured as problematic or serious issues in the current situation of that specific country which needs immediate attention, thus identifying those categories as groups of people who are disadvantaged.

According to the review study undertaken with the reports and plans, although the categories of special education needs were prioritized among the disabled persons, remote and nomadic populations and minority groups, generally speaking as shown in Table 5-2, there were at least 2 reports and plans identifying each and every 16 categories of special education needs. This implies the fact that the notion of inclusion or the definition of inclusion has extended and spread to include a variety of special education needs, not solely limited to persons with disabilities.

One of the distinctions made between integrated education and inclusive education regarding its definition, as mentioned in the part of literature review in chapter 2 of this dissertation, is that before the Salamanca Statement which was adopted in 1994, integrated educational settings were targeted only for those with disabilities. Whereas with inclusive educational settings, the definition of inclusion has diversified itself to include special education needs not only limited to those with disabilities. In such terms, review study of the reports and plans indicates a certain degree of “inclusiveness” or an “inclusive environment” as well as “inclusion (diversity)” which “...recognize and respond to the diverse needs of their students, accommodating both different styles and rates of learning and ensuring quality education to all...” (UNESCO, 1994, p.12)

5.3.3 Part three based on comparison of SEN based on inclusion (diversity) by country

This part of the sub-section will now analyze how diverse and inclusive countries are in meeting the special education needs of all children and youth. It has classified the countries in accordance to the number of special education needs each country has identified, ranging from 0, which are countries with policy papers with no reference to SEN²⁰, with countries which identify up to 10 different categories of SEN. The different types of categories of SEN beyond 10 are not listed in Table 5-4, as there were no countries identifying more than 10 types of SEN.

²⁰ This however does not imply that those countries which do not specify SEN neither identifies “disadvantaged groups”. There are countries not specific of SEN, but identify or have reference to “disadvantaged groups”.

The results are shown in Table 5-4 in the following page 147 and through analysis of the given results, the country identifying the highest number of special education needs was Namibia with a total of 10 different categories of SEN. Those countries including Malawi, Chad, Burundi, India and Zimbabwe follow Namibia, each country identifying 8 to 9 different categories of special education needs. By contrast, it becomes obvious that countries with reference to less than 5 types of special education needs are the majority, with 16 countries specific to one special type of needs and 9 countries which do not mention about any type of special need at all.

From such results, comparing the total number of special education needs identified in each report and plan by country, it may be worthwhile to make note that the definition of inclusion in terms of accepting a variety of SEN and creating diversity in its educational setting, country policies of majority of the developing countries in Asia and Africa are not inclusive in this term.

Table 5-4: Total number of special education needs by total number of countries²¹

Total Number of SEN	Countries	Total
0	Afghanistan/ Benin/ Cape Verde/ Chad /Democratic Republic of Congo/ Mauritius/ Somalia/ Sao Tome and Principe /Sri Lanka	9
1	Bhutan/ Botswana/ Cameroon/ Comoros/ Ethiopia/ Gambia/ Guinea/ Guinea Bissau/ Indonesia/ (Republic of Korea)/ Maldives/ Myanmar/ Senegal/ Tanzania(Zanzibar)/ Pacific/ Ghana	16
2	Bhutan/ Cameroon/ Djibouti/ Gabon/ Lesotho/ Mali/ Seychelles/Sri Lanka/ Myanmar/ Kenya	10
3	Bangladesh/ Gambia/ Liberia/ Philippines/ Sao Tome and Principe/ Senegal/ Uganda/ Vietnam/ Pakistan	9
4	Democratic Republic of Congo/ DPRK of Korea/ Gabon/ Nepal/ Papua New Guinea/ Togo/ Uzbekistan/ Vietnam	8
5	Burkina Faso/ China/ Madagascar/ Mongolia/ Mozambique/ Niger	6
6	Botswana/ Congo/ Cote d'Ivoire/ Lao PDR/ Namibia/ Pakistan/ Tanzania (Mainland)	7
7	Cambodia/ Congo/ Kazakhstan/ Zambia/ Nepal	5
8	Burundi/ India/ Zimbabwe	3
9	Malawi/ Chad	2
10	Namibia	1

Source: created by the author

Despite the given results as shown in Table 5-4 that indicate a low level of inclusion

²¹ The results include countries which appear more than once within the category of the total number of SEN, but this is because both the EFA 2000 Assessment Report and the EFA National Plan of Action are available and have been reviewed for those countries.

(diversity) by definition itself amongst developing countries in Asia and Africa, in-depth analysis of the reports and plans behind a situation lacking a diversified environment highlights a clear gap between what is declared as “inclusion” in the 1994 Salamanca Statement in comparison to what is recognized as “inclusion” at the international policy level. Moreover, it reveals the fact that the two terms, “inclusion”, “inclusiveness” or “diversity” in certain occasions have been interpreted, recognized and utilized in different ways with alternative strategies in some countries.

To look further into those alternative interpretations, firstly, for those countries which do not specify special education needs at all, it can be noted that education policies of those countries neglect the issue of inclusion itself. Secondly, but more interestingly, there is a specific pattern amongst certain countries such as Laos PDR highlighting a conflict arising between the definition of inclusion at the international policy level and as those with the principles of the 1994 Salamanca Statement. One can depict of the evident gap in perception of what is inclusion is at the two levels, yet on the other hand, this pattern gives insights into questioning the relevance of “inclusion (diversity)” as introduced in the Salamanca Statement in comparison to what should really be understood about inclusive education. For example, in Laos PDR, priority “disadvantaged groups” are identified as disabled persons and ethnic and language minority groups. In this particular country, it recognizes the concept of inclusive education based on the notion of inclusion (diversity) of special education needs, yet has purposely intended to target

these two disadvantaged groups for the following reasons.

In Laos PDR, as stated in the EFA NPA Laos PDR 2003-2015, “ethnic groups often face serious supply constraints in education... In general, provinces with large ethnic group populations have more villages without any schools, account for more incomplete primary schools, and seriously lack qualified teachers.” (p.25) Furthermore, it goes to saying that,

(W)hen minority children do enroll in school, the drop-out rate is very high, particularly in the first two years of schooling. The curriculum is not geared towards the needs of ethnic group children. Many teachers are not natives of the communities in which they teach, do not speak the local language, and have difficult time communicating with and teaching local children. (p.25)

In Laos PDR, it sets out clear policy for these two target groups for the main reason that they are the priority group, facing the most serious concerns in terms of education in this particular country given the country’s geographical and regional characteristics. Such similar patterns as to that of Laos PDR among other certain countries were also present. In other words, those countries prioritizing the notion of inclusion and special education needs towards specific target groups imply that national governments at the policy level are not discussing issues concerning how governments can incorporate and create an inclusive educational setting for all

disadvantaged groups with all types of special education needs. Through this qualitative and comparative situational review study, there was not a single country presenting policies or educational strategies of including all children with all types of special education needs within one single classroom. In other words, this is a clear indication that the notion of “inclusion (diversity)” of all special education needs as set forth in the guiding principles of the 1994 Salamanca Statement is not a topic for discussion at the international policy level. Furthermore, it reveals that there is an evident gap and disparities existing at this stage of developing country policies on educational equity and inclusion, largely questioning the relevance of notions of “inclusion (diversity)” and the more practical concept of “inclusive education” itself.

5.3.4 Comparison of SEN based on inclusion (diversity) by reports and plans

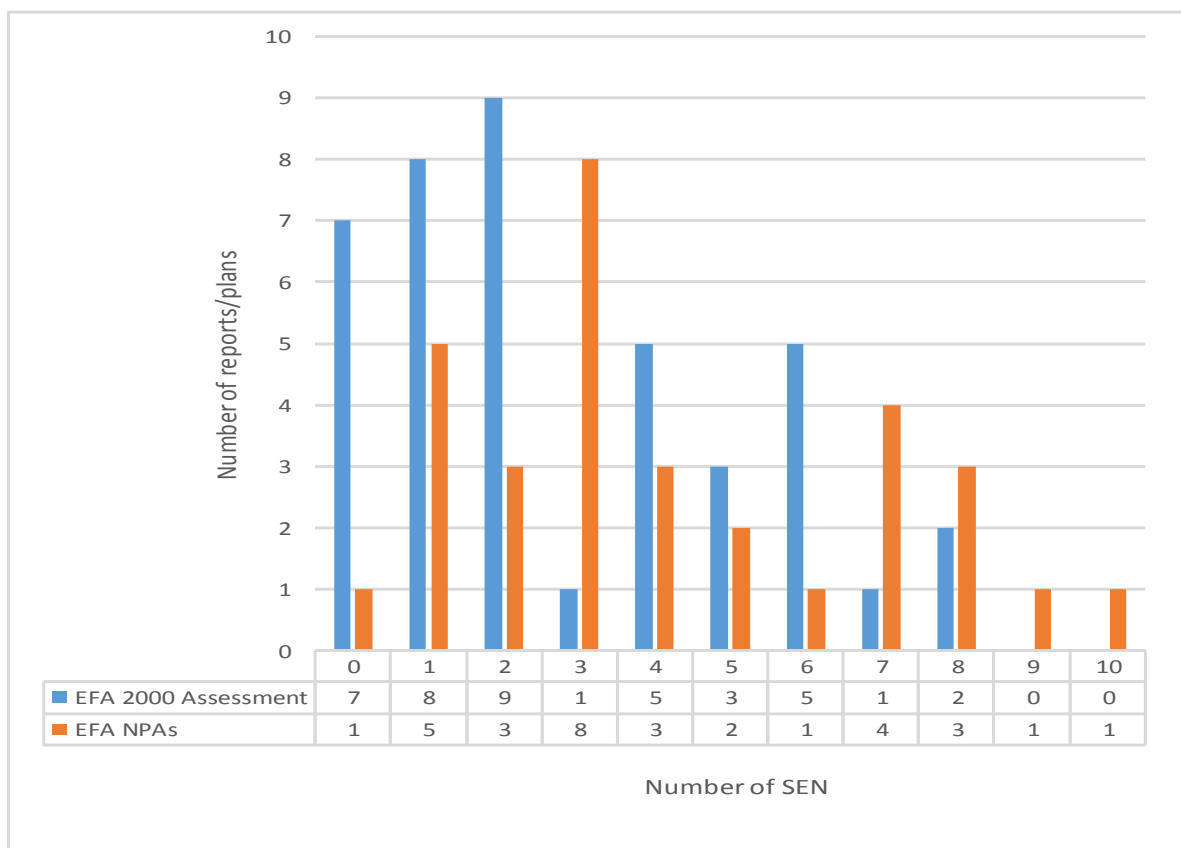
Comparative situational analysis so far has aimed to capture the notion of inclusion or inclusiveness at the country level in terms of how international policies have identified and recognized categories of groups with special education needs based on their understanding of inclusion (diversity) and inclusive education. In this final part of this sub-section, comparative analysis of country policies were conducted with the aim of comparing the total number of SEN identified or recognized in the EFA 2000 Assessment reports and the EFA National Plans of Action. In other words, the results as illustrated below in Figure 5-1 has aimed to analyze the trends among the two different type of reports on the basis of inclusion (diversity).

The results as shown in Figure 5-1 well depicts that the total number of EFA 2000

Assessment reports are high in number when the number of special education needs identified in those reports are low in number. On the contrary, the situation works out in an opposite direction, with a relatively low number of the total EFA NPAs when the number of recognized SEN in the plans is low, but as the total number of SEN increases, the total number of EFA NPAs increases in comparison to the EFA 2000 Assessment reports.

To summarize the results as stated above, it implies the fact that generally speaking, the notions of “inclusion (diversity)” are better recognized in the EFA NPAs than in the EFA 2000 Assessments so to speak. Evidently, the EFA NPAs have all been published after the 2000 Assessment Reports, thus in principal, the progress on the concepts of “inclusion (diversity)” is an obvious fact. However, this particular research study does make an important implication on the current situation of the understanding of inclusive education, That is, ever since the 1994 Salamanca Statement, there has been some gradual progress and impact on international policies towards the movement of promoting inclusion and embracing diversity. It can be said that such a movement is taken by country policies based on the understanding that not only is it a basic human right to accept all special education needs of all children and youth towards a diversified environment, but also recognized as a positive improvement for the development of education.

Figure 5-1: Total number of SEN by the total number of 2000 Assessment Reports and EFA NPAs



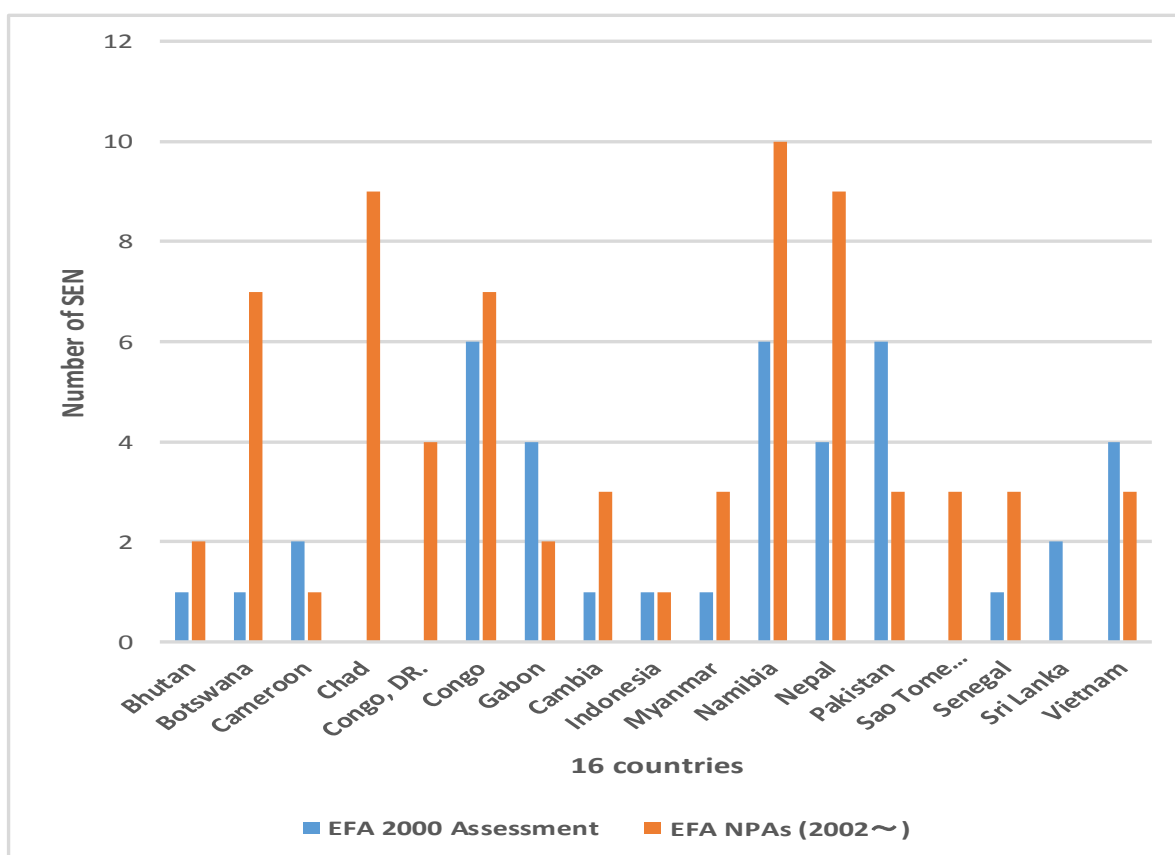
Source: created by the author

In the particular graph Figure 5-1 as shown above, it demonstrates the total number of SEN by the total number of EFA 2000 Assessment Reports and the EFA National Plans of Action based on each of the 16 countries. The numbers of countries have been limited to 16, as they were the only countries out of a total of 60 countries with both sources including the 2000 EFA Assessment Reports and the EFA NPAs made available through the UNESCO Education Sector Plans and Policies website.

According to the results as shown in this graph Figure 5-1, the results illustrate similar trends to those results presented in the next graph Figure 5-2, presenting 11 out of 16 EFA

National Plans of Action having more number of special education needs than the EFA 2000 Assessment reports. The results also showed that there were some countries which identified 0 categories of groups with special education needs in their EFA 2000 Assessment Reports, yet identifying more than 2 types of special education needs in their EFA NPAs. To be specific, those countries such as Chad, Democratic Republic of Congo and Sao Tome and Principe suggest the important role of the EFA National Plan of Action, in terms of identifying special education needs towards the notions of “inclusion (diversity)” as well as inclusive educational settings.

Figure 5-2: Total number of SEN by country and total number of reports/plans



Source: created by the author

Now that qualitative and comparative situational review analysis has been undertaken to depict of the current situation of inclusion (diversity) based on the primary understanding of how diverse special education needs are being accepted at the international policy level, it thus becomes pivotal at this stage of this research study, to conduct further qualitative and comparative analysis on the different patterns of educational strategies and interventions in place to meet the special educational needs of those disadvantaged persons. Having said that, the progress patterns will be analyzed, again using the same 60 reports and plans which have identified disabled persons as one of their groups of disadvantaged persons. On another note, it must also be mentioned that the reason why the author has targeted those reports and plans identifying only the disabled persons to be used for this part of data analysis is mainly because discussions on the type of educational settings or schools to be provided only took place targeting those children with disabilities.

5.4 Comparison of Educational Patterns and Progress for the Social Group defined by Disability

As explained previously in the introductory part of this dissertation, the traditional educational approach towards groups of persons with disabilities was exclusion, behind negative and discriminatory attitudes towards the disabled persons and as a result, they could not benefit at all from educational opportunities. Eventual positive progress towards disabled persons has introduced special, integrated and inclusive educational settings. In this particular

part of the section conducting qualitative and comparative situational review analysis, it investigates the different patterns at which each country is moving the path along and towards the notions of “inclusion (diversity)”, either in the form of integrated educational settings or inclusive educational settings.

Thorough qualitative review of the identified reports and plans, the progress patterns of countries in creating an inclusive environment can be classified into the following five patterns as explained below in Table 5-5. In these five patterns, it demonstrate the various issues of conflict and challenges behind the international trend of inclusive education as declared in the 1994 Salamanca Statement. Also, those conflicting issues and perspectives as depicted in the five patterns of policies highlight the other debatable challenge on the relevance of implementing inclusive educational settings in developing countries.

Table 5-5: Five patterns of educational provision for persons with disabilities

Pattern A	No educational provision for the disabled persons
Pattern B	Educational provision solely limited to special education and no discussion on integrated or inclusive policies and strategies
<i>Pattern C</i>	<i>Educational provision in the form of special education and policies with policies and strategies which are negative towards integrated or inclusive policies and strategies</i>
<i>Pattern D</i>	<i>Educational provision in the form of special education and policies with policies and strategies which are positive towards integrated or inclusive educational settings</i>
Pattern E	Educational provision in the form of special education with integrated or inclusive policies without detailed strategies for implementation

Source: created by the author

The five patterns as described above will now be examined in detail through national government policies from the EFA 2000 Assessment Reports and EFA National Plans of Action.

5.4.1 PATTERN A and PATTERN B

With Pattern A, there were in total 9 countries which identified “disabled persons” as one or of their “disadvantaged groups”, yet stated that they had no educational opportunities for such groups of persons or no clear educational strategies marked within the policy papers. Those countries were Djibouti, Liberia, Madagascar, Mali, Seychelles, Tanzania (Zanzibar), The Pacific Islands, Tanzania and Pakistan.

In Comoros, its national policy recognizes the importance of “special education”, but there are no elaborated discussions on either integrated or inclusive education or schooling.

Likewise with the Democratic Republic of Congo, it recognizes the importance of developing its special education schools and programs without any kind of reference to integrated or inclusive schools. Similarly, in Congo's EFA 2000 Assessment Report, there are strategies to promote the development of special education for example, construction and rehabilitation of new classrooms, special schools, construction of special centers for the mentally handicapped and implementation of these centers in every region where there are special schools established. Furthermore, these strategies in Congo's National Action Plan are named as "inclusive education" which indicates that the terms "inclusion (diversity)" are not fully understood by this country. In Guinea Bissau, special education is seen as an approach for social integration. In Niger, "special education has the mission for education and the formation of physically and mentally disabled persons towards social integration." (EFA 2000 Assessment Niger part III L'Education Spécialisée) Similarly in Sao Tome and Principe, development of special education remains as its objective to meet the educational needs of disabled children. Furthermore, in Togo, discussions on the creation of special schools, special education, extending to special education teacher training and construction of special centers for the disabled are addressed. In Nepal, "identification of the status of disabled people, developing suitable self-learning modules and provisions of Community Learning Centers" (EFA NPA Nepal 2003, p.41) are stated in its policy, yet not mention of any integrative or inclusive educational policies. In Kazakhstan, its policy addresses the lack of "special correctional educational establishments."

(EFA NPA Kazakhstan, p.11) Moreover, it addresses that “at present more than 56 thousand children with developmental disabilities have to attend general schools without access to professional help.” (EFA NPA Kazakhstan, p.12) It is clear that Kazakhstan recognizes the importance of “special correctional education” within its country’s context. And lastly in Zambia, disabled children are benefitting from education through what are called “community schools”. There were in total 13 countries with such a pattern.

5.4.2 PATTERN C

With this particular pattern (Pattern C), it illustrates interesting findings about inclusion (diversity) and inclusive education at the international policy level, and there were in total 10 countries with such a pattern. For example, in the EFA NPA 2003 of Bangladesh, pattern C is clearly illustrated as follows;

The NPA I recognized the need (of inclusive education) but felt that “normal primary schools” could not provide both “education and expensive arrangements required for treatment of the disability” and proposed that Ministry of Social Welfare should provide this service through the specialized institutions under normal Allocation of Business (EFA NPA II Bangladesh 2003-2015, 7.13)

From the statement above, it can be inferred that in Bangladesh, not only does it make

implication about the difficulties of inclusive education implementation, but in addition recognize inclusive education as a costly means of educational provision. Furthermore, it continues to argue that with an inclusive educational setting, quality education cannot be provided for the disabled students. In other words in Bangladesh, the government has taken the policy of providing educational services for the disabled through specialized institutions questioning the relevance and validity of inclusive educational settings in terms of cost and quality which implies a different perspective as to that of the Salamanca Statement adopted in 1994.

Likewise in Botswana, the validity and the relevance of inclusive education is highly questioned from the perspective of assessment procedures for children with disabilities. In the current situation of Botswana,

(S)tudents with disabilities continue to sit for examinations of questionable validity as is the case with examinations that are translated into Braille for blind students, and those that are not adjusted to the correct vocabulary levels in the case of deaf students. (EFA 2000 Assessment Botswana, 9.4)

One of the major concerns or criticisms towards the relevance of introducing an inclusive educational setting as also reviewed in the chapter on literature review are claims by

professionals and experts with disabilities that in particular with the deaf students, they are a group of people with their own unique deaf culture with the use of “sign language” which originates from their own deaf culture and not that of translation of their national language into sign language. With such claims, in Botswana, it clearly depicts and recognizes the difficult circumstances whereby the deaf, blind and the deaf/blind students could be integrated in an inclusive educational setting with other non-disabled children. The same remark is made on the methods of assessment and examination styles among these two groups of disabled children and youth. It can also be inferred that similar claims be made about the curricula, teaching methodology and textbooks concerning deaf, blind and deaf/blind students. Additionally, in Botswana’s EFA National Action Plan, it also questions the validity of inclusive education in the following ways;

(S)pecial schools units, schools, and other NGOs offering special education follow(ing) the national education curricula (because) there are limitations to effectively assist the special needs learners to succeed and access both tertiary education and the job market, (and) there is still the need to make the curricula adaptable to learners with special needs.

(p.22)

As Botswana questions the validity of inclusive education on one side, it presents a clear

policy of “identifying students with learning abilities, placing their students in relevant educational institutions, and providing special learner materials and assistance where necessary.” (EFA 2000 Assessment Botswana, 3.6) Instead of addressing a holistic inclusionary approach, Botswana recognizes the necessity of both special institutions and integrated settings, conducting assessment to evaluate which educational setting best suits the needs of that particular individual with a disability or disabilities.

In other reports, taking for example the case of Burundi’s EFA NPA, it clearly states that the current on-going curricular at the primary education level seems somewhat awkward in relation to what disabled students need, and moreover implies that disabled students require special education. In Ethiopia, its policy implementation in the field of special needs education is through the integrated approach of education as such, “(a) total of 34 new schools and 66 additional classrooms will be constructed to accommodate the children with special needs.” (EESDP Ethiopia, p.46) Moreover, the issue of conflict in terms of braille and sign language is not considered a problematic issue, since “short-term training programs will be offered in Braille, sign language, mobility, orientation, etc. to teachers and professionals to enhance the integrated special education program and further enrich the formal education curricular materials.” (EESDP Ethiopia, p.46)

In India, educational strategies of children with disabilities are clearly addressed, yet investigation into its policy illustrates somewhat an explicit view on what is feasible and what

is not with integrated or inclusive education. For instance, it states that,

The strategy of including disabled children would be based on a wide range of options, including regular schools, special schools, open learning system, open schools, non-formal and alternative schools, home-based education, itinerant teacher model, remedial teaching, part-time classes and community rehabilitation. (EFA NPA India, p.37)

Furthermore, it makes a rather clear statement saying, “(a)s far as possible, every child with special needs would be in regular school with the necessary support services.” (EFA NPA India, p.37) With this case of India’s policy on educational pattern and progress, it is interesting to observe that India’s national policy places emphasis on assessment of identifying all disabled children through surveys and micro-planning as well as functional and formal assessment. Furthermore, there is a program namely as the individual educational plan (IEP) which “would test the effectiveness of various strategies and models by measuring the learning achievement of children with special needs periodically, after developing indicators.” (EFA NPA India, p. 37)

In Sri Lanka, there are two types of programs implemented in relation to special education, one which is the integrated special education program under which “handicapped children attend normal schools and learn with normal children (and) the other is the special

schools program where handicapped children learn in special schools...” (EFA 2000 Assessment Sri Lanka, Part I, (e) a.) It can be inferred in this country that the form of inclusive and integrated educational setting are considered positive for some children, but not always the case for other disabled children. In Uganda, its national policy implies specific actions for the promotion on the enrollment of primary school students with disabilities by “expanding existing educational facilities and establishment of new primary schools to accommodate the new entrants.” (EFA 2000 Assessment Uganda, Part II, 6.5, 7.2)

In Nepal’s EFA 2000 Assessment, it is encouraging to observe its detailed strategies in the development and promotion of “inclusive education” for children with non-severe (mild to moderate) disabilities in primary schools as such;

Resource classes will be established to prepare children with disabilities to enter normal classes, and they will be established in selected regular primary schools. Each resources class will have 10 students with the same type of disability. Each class will be provided with one trained teacher in the respective area of disability and adequate teaching-learning materials. Multiple ways of involving communities in providing financial support and temporary residential care at resource classes for children with moderate disabilities have been proposed. Specialized NGOs will be supported in providing education to children with disabilities who cannot attend inclusive classes. (EFA 2000 Assessment Nepal, 5.2.2)

In Laos PDR, Article 14 of the Education Law states that, “(e)stablishment of Special Schools for People with Disabilities” has the mandate to establish special schools for people with severe disabilities. “As for those with light disabilities, the State is responsible for facilitating their enrollment in local schools, as well as for mobilizing both private sector and civil society to invest in the establishment of inclusive education schools.” (EFA NPA Laos, PDR 2003-2015, p.12)

5.4.3 *PATTERN D*

In contrast to pattern C as illustrated above, in this particular pattern, national government policies of 10 countries in total demonstrate relatively positive attitudes towards the ideas of integration and inclusive educational settings with actual on-going development, planning and strategies of such settings. In Bhutan, for example, educational provision for the disabled takes place in the form of special education, yet active promotion of integrated education settings are in place from 1997 onwards, so that “ educational programs and facilities developed to integrate, wherever possible, disabled children into the regular schools...” (EFA 2000 Assessment Bhutan, 3.9) To be more specific with the policy of Bhutan, it uses the expression “wherever possible” with the development and promotion of integrated education, which implies a positive notion of this inclusive educational approach, yet at the same time it also acknowledges the limitations to such an approach, suggesting certain conditions in its validity and relevance.

In China, movements towards increased construction of special schools to accommodate the disabled children are on the rise, however at the same time, the country of China recognizes the significance of mainstreaming in the form of “establish(ing) (of) more special education schools and special education classes attached to regular schools” and “intensive promotion of mainstreaming”. (EFA NPA China, p.43 and 44) On the contrary, in Cote d’Ivoire, inclusive schools are recognized as an educational approach suggesting positive aspects even for the deaf, blind and deaf/blind students. In this particular country, it is interesting to observe that the Declaration of the Salamanca Statement is mentioned as a turning point in having launched a pilot project of integrating and/or including children with disabilities into ordinary schools. In the Maldives, it recognizes also the need to “complete a needs assessment of special needs students, and provide in-service training for teachers to mainstream these students where possible (and) provide specialized instructions for special needs students who are unable to cope in mainstream situation.” (EFA NPA Maldives 2001, p. 8) In the Maldives as described in the above statements, the idea of fully mainstreaming students holds limitation depending on the different special needs of students.

Similarly, in Mozambique, it addresses the significance and importance of identifying the groups of those with special needs. In Mozambique,

(C)hildren with special educational needs are divided into two groups, those who are not

seriously disabled and who may be enrolled in normal schools but will require individual and specialized attention, and those who do have serious disabilities and will require attendance in special schools. (EFA 2000 Assessment Mozambique, Part I, 1.Special Education)

Although Mozambique expresses a positive attitude towards integrated education by stating that “(t)he majority of these children (with special education needs) will be integrated in normal schools which will have separate support systems”, (EFA 2000 Assessment Mozambique, Part I, 1.Special Education) it clearly indicates the need for special or separate support systems, identifying the positive role of special education itself as well. On the other hand, “the key to the Ministry’s strategy for improving the educational services provided to children with special needs is the principle of inclusion.” (EFA 2000 Assessment Mozambique, Part III, 11.6.2) In addition, Mozambique acknowledges the fact that “to the greatest extent possible, those with special needs will be integrated into existing schools and classrooms rather than segregated in separate schools or excluded from school altogether.” (EFA 2000 Assessment Mozambique, Part III, 11.6.2) Although there are no elaborated discussions questioning the validity of inclusive education, it can be inferred that it only suggests integrated educational settings instead of an inclusionary approach, yet addresses required efforts to prepare parents and communities for the changes in their schools that may accompany inclusion.

In Senegal, through its national policies, it is ambiguous as to decide its definition of “inclusive education” as to that of “integrated education”, but thorough review of its policy indicate that the government of Senegal promotes the notion of integrated education by improving existing facilities and construction of new classrooms to accommodate disabled children. In Vietnam, activities promoting inclusion are active in cooperation with UN agencies and NGOs since 1991, however the actual forms of inclusive and integrative education programs are not clearly stated. To continue with the case of Zimbabwe, this country policy is very positive about the development of integrated and inclusive forms of education in the following way;

Providing adequate equipment and facilities for disabled children and integrating special education into the formal school system (and) adopting the concept of inclusive education where children with special educational needs were integrated into the normal school system, taking full account of individual differences and situations. (except for those with severe mental disabilities.) (EFA NPA Zimbabwe, Part I, 1.2)

In addition, it is interesting to take note that in Zimbabwe’s EFA 2000 Assessment Report, it emphasizes the pupil-teacher ratios in the following order; starting with ordinary classes at the primary school level at 1:40, special classes at 1:19, children with disabilities at 1:7, deaf

and hearing impaired at 1:7, severely mentally handicapped at 1:10 and the blind, visually and physically handicapped at 1:10. The government of Zimbabwe well recognizes the special or additional care and support that children with disabilities require in classrooms and from such a perspective, the government sees the role of teachers as a critical factor and as such, it well acknowledges the burden and responsibilities of teachers to be well planned and organized in classrooms well in advance. In Namibia, the policies demonstrate a very positive attitude towards the issue of inclusive education for all, even for children with severe learning difficulties in the following way;

The government, in conformity with the Salamanca Framework for Action (1994), makes provisions for all children, irrespective of their special educational needs, to benefit from the same education through mainstream education. However, in Namibia, the reality is that children with severe learning difficulties receive education and training in special schools. The challenge for us would be to train teachers and personnel and to provide teaching and learning facilities that can cater for the needs of children with special needs in mainstream schools. (EFA NPA Namibia, p.16)

From the above statement, it can be inferred that Namibia agrees or is positive towards the notion of inclusion, regardless of the type of disability and is showing efforts to make a

complete change from the special type of education to the inclusive type of education. In the case of Uzbekistan, its policy on inclusion and inclusive education is very obvious as reviewed in its EFA National Plan of Action, as “(t)here is already a national concept for special needs in education and an index of inclusion.” (p.26) Moreover, in the plan highlighting “Laws and Politics”, (p.27) there is a proposal to change the law on education and to include inclusion.

5.4.4 PATTERN E

And lastly in this pattern, policies of integrated or inclusive education are included, but in such policies, there are no clear visions or realistic strategies in line with the country’s context in achieving such an educational environment. For example in Cameroon, its policy acknowledges the obstacles in creating an inclusive environment by stating “negative perception (or) physical barriers” (EFA NPA Cameroon, p.11) which must seek adequate strategies, however its strategy remain ambiguous lacking details, “creation and construction of necessary equipments in schools to adapt to the difficult situations of children”. (EFA NPA Cameroon, p.11) Other examples include national government policies of Chad, for example, “the objective is to promote schooling of disabled children and disadvantaged children and it will be about creating inclusive schools”, (EFA NPA Chad, p.47) yet goes on to state that “(creating inclusive schools) is about mobilizing parents and partners in favor of such schools by financial means”. (EFA NPA Chad, p.47) Although the financial aspects are highlighted, its policy do not address specific views or actions for implementation other than the need to create

inclusive schools.

In Gambia, action to increase access to education for the disabled children is coordinated under the Special Needs Education Unit which “keep(s) a register of disabled children in the formal system and those in especially difficult circumstances. An additional classroom for the children with learning difficulties will be built at the present school.” (EFA NPA Gambia, p.32)

This is an interesting movement in Gambia’s national policy, as it suggests future educational strategies mainly through the integrated approach and its core focus strategies are placed in mainstreaming. Furthermore, it clearly states that inclusive education will be in place for all those children of 7 to 15 years old with mild disabilities. With Guinea, there are “inclusive schools for the physically and the mentally disabled” along with the “development of special education for social integration”, but no clear strategies or prospective are addressed in its report. (EFA 2000 Assessment Guinea, Part III 1.)

In Mongolia, special needs education and inclusive education are set forth as implementation activities with no additional details for implementation. In Myanmar, it states that “the provision of inclusive education in the formal system should be considered (and recognizes) as inclusive education is new to the Myanmar education system, it needs much preparation in infrastructure, social development, and training of specialized teachers.” (EFA NPA Myanmar, p.39) Although Myanmar recognizes the need for development of inclusive education policies, there are no clear strategies or specific interventions to address them. The

same applies for countries such as Cambodia and Burundi. And lastly in Malawi, an assessment has been conducted, which recognizes that “the percentage of primary school classrooms fit to accommodate pupils with special education needs is still small and the number of institutions to cater for those with severe physical disabilities is also small.” (EFA 2000 Assessment Malawi, Part II, Chapter 9, (14)) However, there are no clear strategies to address improvements.

5.5 Conclusion

This particular chapter has aimed to conduct qualitative and comparative situational review analysis of the current situation of special needs education based on the notion of inclusion (diversity), more than 10 years after the declaration of the Salamanca Statement adopted in 1994. This part of qualitative and comparative research analysis has been conducted based on two principle elements at the international policy level. First, through identification of disadvantaged groups and SEN based on the 16 different categories and second, through classification of the types of educational strategies provided for the disabled according to 5 different patterns identified and classified by the author herself. As a result, the following two essential points can be summarized and concluded.

First of all, the notion of inclusion based on diversity together at the international policy level addresses the principle of “inclusion”, as more than 16 categories of disadvantaged groups with special education needs have been identified by all 60 countries in total. Yet interestingly enough, qualitative and comparative policy analysis at each country level clearly depicts the

current situation at which the principles of “inclusion (diversity)” are non-existent for majority of the 60 countries in Asia and Africa. Specifically stating, majority of the countries identified less than 3 different categories of special education needs referred to as “disadvantaged groups” with much priority being placed on the disabled persons. Such key findings imply that the definition of “inclusion (diversity)” as stated in the 1994 Salamanca Statement, meeting the needs of not only the disabled, but all special needs is not recognized and fully understood by each and every country of developing countries in Asia and Africa.

Furthermore, not a single country or policy paper has discussed about “inclusion (diversity)” in terms of accommodating all children and youth with various special education needs in an inclusive educational setting, meaning in one classroom setting. The majority of the countries have specified and prioritized its target disadvantaged groups based on a logical reasoning that given the regional, geographical, social or cultural contexts of certain countries, prioritization of groups with specific SEN becomes a critical “fast-track” initiative and strategy towards the initial steps for inclusion of those countries. On the other hand, inclusion (diversity) is not recognized and understood in the policies of national governments as stated in the guiding principles of the Salamanca Statement of 1994. In other words, although there was a variety in the type of special education needs identified, when looking at the country level, majority of the countries had prioritized its target disadvantaged groups. Moreover, there was not a single country discussing how countries can include all types of disadvantaged groups in the same

educational setting as set forth in the definition and the guiding principles of inclusive education in the 1994 Salamanca Statement.

Secondly, regarding classification of educational strategies provided for those with disabilities, identification of 5 patterns have most importantly revealed that the issue of addressing and implementing integrated or inclusive education for the disabled encounters various constraints through negative attitudes expressed in the policy papers of national governments, implying that special schools can better meet the special education needs of the disabled. This is a clear indication at the international policy level that although the 1994 Salamanca Statement has declared that educational policies of national governments to adopt inclusive policies, the situation of certain countries are working in the opposite direction, challenging the realistic relevance of inclusive education as declared in this Statement.

Chapter 6 Comparative Data Analysis of 2008 National Country Reports

6.1 Introduction

In this particular chapter which has aimed to undertake comparative data analysis of 2008 National Country Reports focusing on inclusive education worldwide including both developed and developing countries, the central topic of discussion of this research study on educational equity and inclusion will be thoroughly investigated in-depth. Further to that and to be more explicit, disparities within policy worldwide across different educational equity concepts including inclusion as well as across various disadvantaged social groups will be the core focus of debate and discussion in this particular chapter of data analysis and key findings. And lastly but not the least, it will be the initial attempt to utilize the pilot-SABER rubric on equity and inclusion²² as already explained in chapter 4 of this dissertation, which represents the main methodology applied in this particular chapter.

To be very clear on the outline of the reviewed data sources, this part of the research study has qualitatively reviewed a total number of 77 policies titled as the 2008 National Country Reports focusing on Inclusive Education available from 116 countries worldwide including both developed and developing countries. Policy papers of the 2008 National Country Reports focusing on Inclusive Education from these 116 countries were presented by national heads or representatives of governments during the international conference on education held

²² Refer to Appendix 3 for full details on the pilot-SABER rubric on equity and inclusion

in the year 2008 and organized by UNESCO-IBE on the specific theme of inclusive education.

A full list of these 116 countries are provided for reference in Appendix 9. In addition, out of the 116 countries, 77 countries as of the year 2008 were already State Parties to the Convention on the Rights of Persons with Disabilities (CRPD) from five different regions worldwide. Those regions include Africa, Asia, Eastern European States, GRULAC (Latin American Caribbean States) and WEOG (Western European and Other States). A full list of these 77 State Parties to CRPD grouped by regions worldwide are also provided for reference in Appendix 9.

And nextly, aside from the author's categorization of the countries based on legislative status in terms of ratification to the CRPD, additional socio-economic and educational factors have also been considered as key elements which may have an impact on the country's progress and perception on educational concepts on equity and inclusion. To explain in detail, those socio-economic and educational factors relate first of all to the economic status of the country measured by the gross national product (GNP) and second of all to the level of primary education enrollment which will be measured by the net enrollment rate (NER). In a similar way as to that of how the 77 State Parties to the CRPD were grouped by five regions, all 77 countries were also grouped according to their elements or factors measured by economic status as well as educational status.

6.2 Review of Research Questions and Purposes in using the Pilot-SABER Rubric on Equity and Inclusion

Prior to presenting the data analysis and key findings obtained in this particular part of the research study, the author views essential to briefly reflect upon the main research questions and purposes that this part of research study aims to answer through the usage of the pilot-SABER rubric. Firstly, this part of research study aims to investigate the question, for whom is there policy on educational equity and inclusion worldwide? Secondly, and what are the various target patterns observed for those social groups? In this particular research question, the target patterns refer to the equity indicators assessed and measured in terms of “no government policy”, “there is government policy”, “there are legal and administrative frameworks in place” and lastly, “there is also allocation of the budget”. Additionally, the target patterns for the identified social groups are analyzed in relation to the different educational equity concepts on “access”, “resource inputs”, “learning outputs and outcomes” as well as notions of “inclusion (diversity)”. Thirdly, but most importantly, with regard to this research study are the questions of investigating deeply into how and why there are disparities existent within policy across different educational equity concepts and also across the targeted social groups. Moreover, especially concerning the perspectives on inclusion (diversity) and inclusive education, it observes the differences and or disparities existent between the social group defined by disability and other socially excluded groups of children including those defined by factors related to gender, ethnicity, poverty (income gap) and geographical location, either rural or

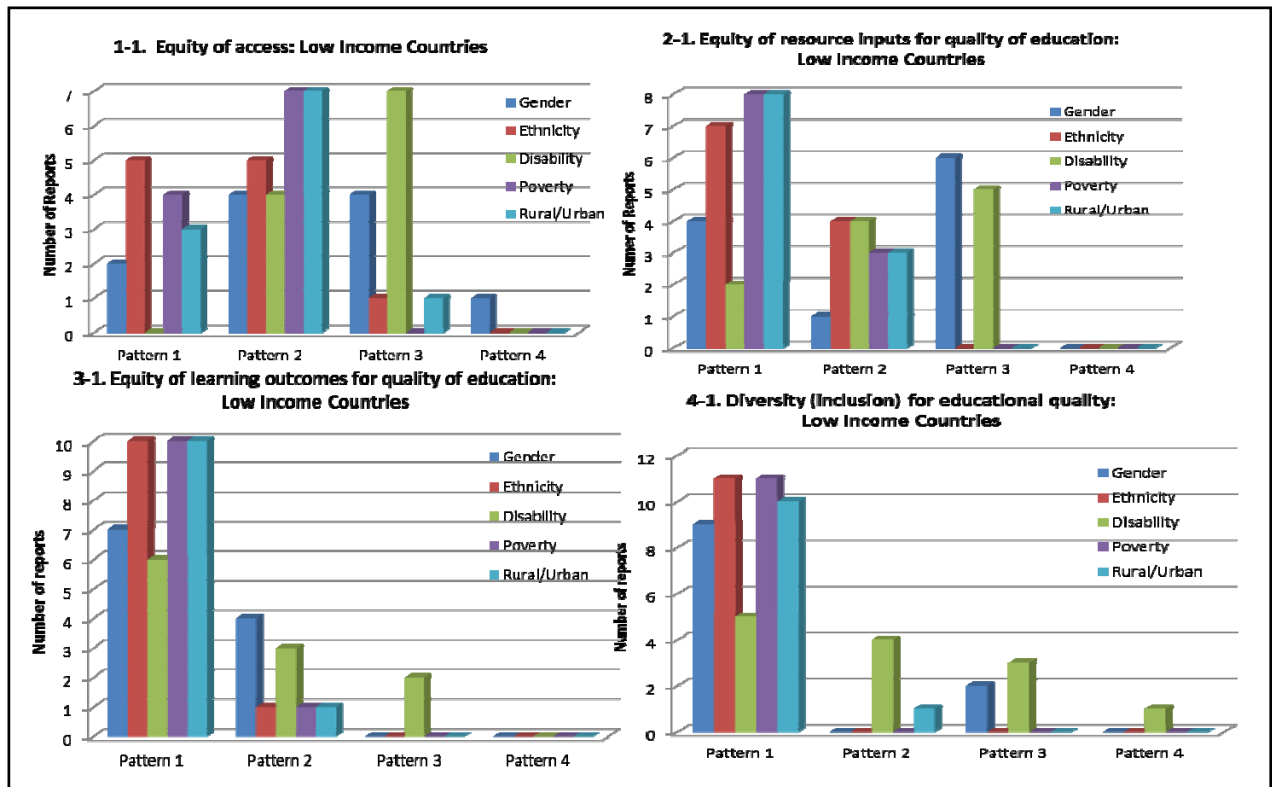
urban. This particular part on inclusive education will reveal some interesting key findings between the dimension on disability and other social factors.

6.3 Key Findings

6.3.1 Part one based on four educational equity concepts according to the income level

Prior to presenting the key findings of this particular sub-section, the author would like to briefly explain how the economic status of countries according to their gross national product (GNP) have been classified. The categorization of countries based on economic status has been done according to the World Bank estimates of 2008 GNI (gross national income) per capita as referred from the 2010 World Development Indicator Report (World Bank, 2010). According to this report, the World Bank's main criterion for classifying economies is the GNI per capita and based on this indicator, every economy is classified as low income, middle income which are further grouped into lower middle income and upper middle income and lastly high income. To be more specific on its economic dimension; low income signify \$ 975 or less; lower middle income range from \$ 976 to \$ 3,855; upper middle income range from \$ 3, 856 to \$ 11,905 and for high income signifying \$ 11, 906 or more. A full list of 77 countries grouped according to their levels of income can be referred to in Appendix 10.

Figure 6-1: Four educational equity concepts for low income countries



Source: created by author based on data analysis

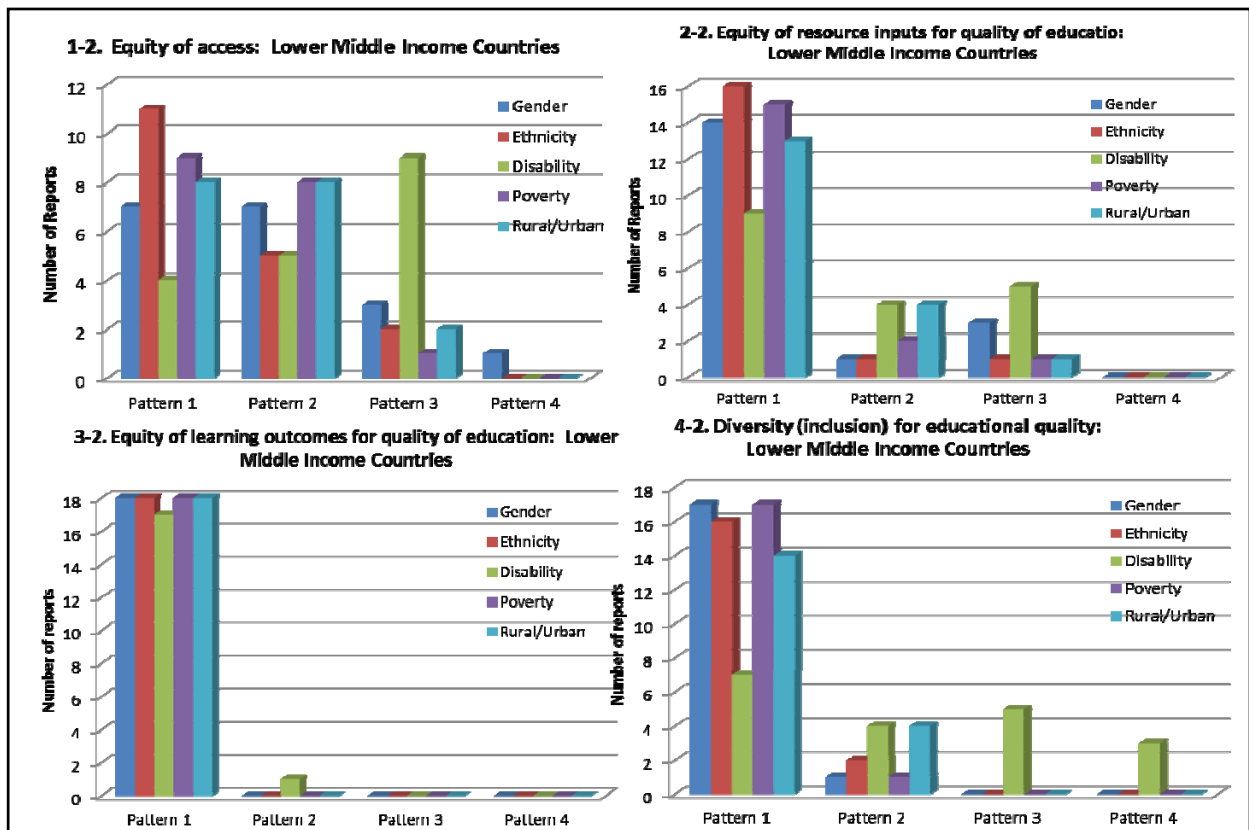
In this particular Figure 6-1 as well as in the other figures to be presented (Figures 6-2, 6-3 and 6-4), it presents the differences observed in the four equity indicator patterns across four different equity concepts and various social groups for low income countries. The four equity indicator patterns from one to four are indicated below running across horizontally and the total number of policy reports are indicated running vertically on the side. Each graph included in the figure starts from equity of access positioned on the upper left hand side and ends with inclusion (diversity) positioned at the lower right hand side of the figure. All of the graphs inside this particular Figure 6-1 are countries classified as low income.

The results of these graphs clearly reveal that the educational concepts on equity of access and equity of resource inputs for quality of education demonstrate relatively a better balanced distribution in the number of four different patterns in comparison to the other two educational equity concepts on equity of learning outputs, outcomes and equity of inclusion (diversity). In other words, the policies of low income countries with regard to equity of access and equity of resource inputs for all five socially marginalized groups are better well planned and developed. Whereas on the other hand, policies of low income countries with regard to equity of learning outputs and outcomes for quality of education and equity of inclusion (diversity) for educational quality are far less planned and developed. As a result, worldwide policies in majority of the low income countries identify pattern one, meaning these countries have no specific policies on such equity concepts related to educational outcomes and inclusion (diversity).

At the same time, it is worthwhile to make a note from this Figure 6-1 that when the social group defined by disability is closely looked into, it can be well observed that for this particular social group, pattern two indicating that there is government policy is high in the total number of reports for all four educational equity concepts in comparison to the remaining social groups defined by gender, ethnicity, poverty and rural/urban. Such a result is clearly evident when the graph located on the lower right hand side with regard to the educational equity concept on inclusion (diversity) is looked into. This point will be elaborated further at a later stage in this chapter.

Moving on to look at the policies of countries classified as lower middle income countries, the results are illustrated in the following Figure 6-2.

Figure 6-2: Four educational equity concepts for lower middle income countries



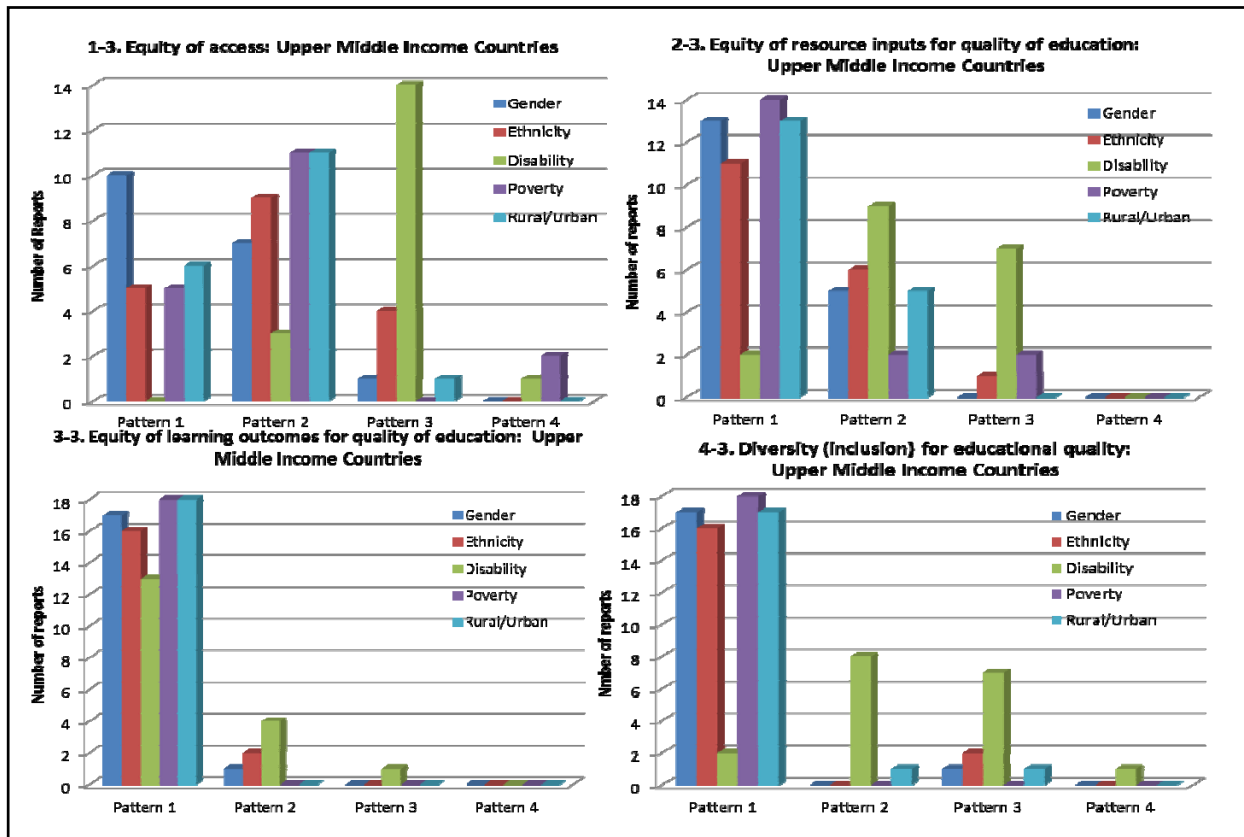
Source: created by author based on data analysis

The results of the graphs as depicted above in the Figure 6-2, it can be said that similar trends can be observed to that of low income countries. With that being said, the educational concept on equity of access is the most widely recognized or identified educational equity concept in worldwide policies for lower middle income countries as well. There are less number

of reports which have no government policy on equity of access meaning that there are more number of policies which recognize patterns two and three with the existence of national government policy and even legal and administrative frameworks in place. On the other hand, although the number of patterns two and three are higher in number for this educational equity concept on access, when the educational dimension shifts to equity of resource inputs, the number of patterns two and three suddenly decline in number. In contrast to the low income countries, the decline in number of policies for patterns two and three for low middle income countries is far more in number, suggesting a rather curious point and result.

As far as educational concepts on learning outputs and outcomes as well as inclusion (diversity) are concerned, the results of the graphs show that the majority of country policies do not recognize policy on these two particular educational equity concepts for all social groups with the exception of the social group defined by disability. And again, this is a similar finding observed with that of low income countries as well in the way that there are patterns two, three and four identified in certain number of country policies for the equity concept on educational inclusion (diversity) with discussion taking place between special education, integrated education and inclusive education.

Figure 6-3: Four educational equity concepts for upper middle income countries

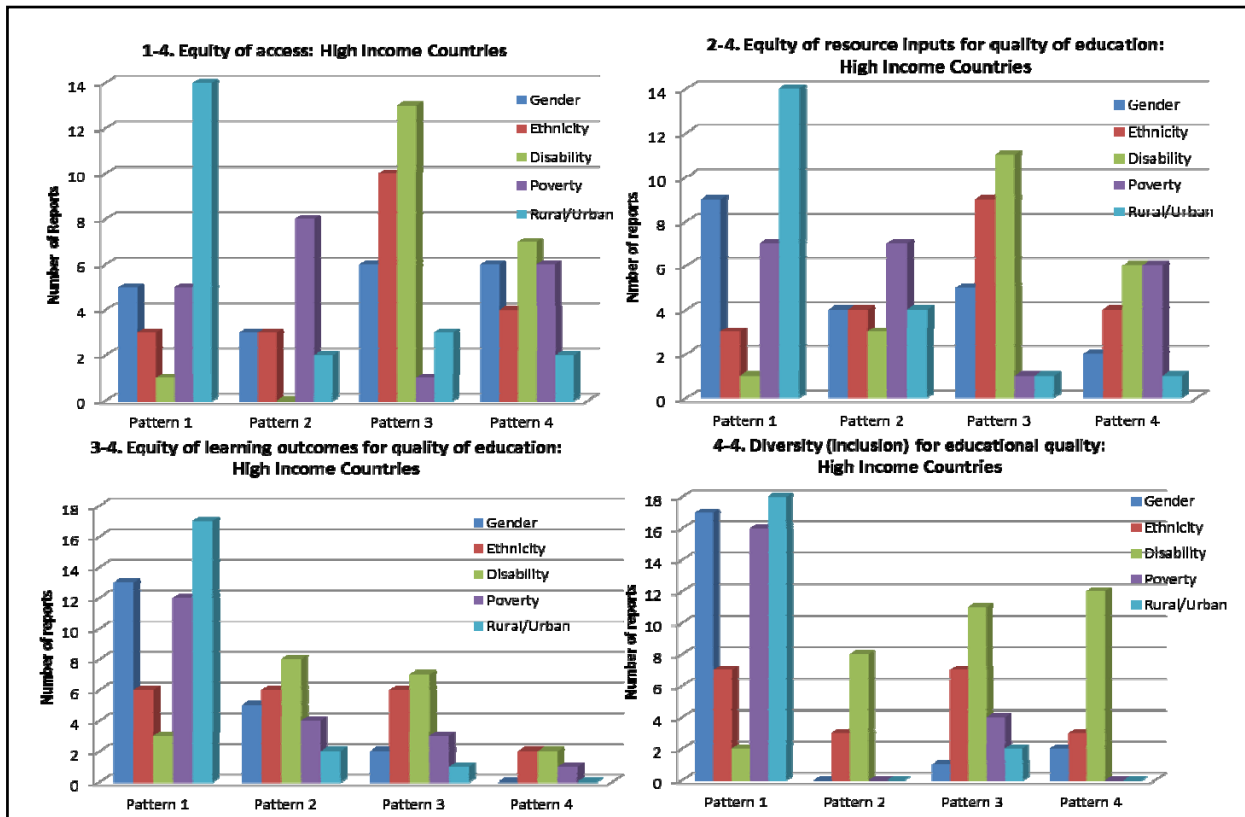


Source: created by author based on data analysis

With regard to Figure 6-3 illustrated above, once again, similar results as to that for low income countries and lower middle income countries are drawn. However, to be very specific, the author can state that the results obtained for upper middle income countries are more or less similar to that of low income countries, specifically for the educational concept on equity of resource inputs for quality education. In other words, the distribution of patterns two and three signifying the existence of national policy in addition to legal and administrative frameworks are fairly more equally balanced with more number of country policies recognizing this educational equity concept on resource inputs.

On the other hand and on general terms, numerous country policies classified as upper middle income present the importance of addressing equity of access and equity of resource inputs for quality of education for all socially disadvantaged groups of children. On the contrary, as the educational equity concepts change to equity of learning outcomes and inclusion (diversity), majority of country policies do not address the significance of such educational equity concepts in their policy documents. Hence, the graphs present high number of reports categorized as pattern one or not government policy. However, there is once again a slight exception for the social group defined by disability since there are quite a few number of policy reports for this social group identifying patterns two and three even for the educational equity concepts on learning outcomes and in particular for inclusion (diversity).

Figure 6-4: Four educational equity concepts for high income countries



Source: created by author based on data analysis

And lastly, presenting the results obtained for those countries with high income, the Figure 6-4 can be referred to as indicated above. With the findings obtained for country polices with high income, it is highly interesting to make note that for this particular group of high income countries, the graphs demonstrate completely a different trend in terms of the progress in patterns within country policies across all four educational equity concepts and all five social groups. To put it in other words, each and every graph for high income countries demonstrate a different trend in distribution of patterns by number of reports in contrast to the other groups of countries classified as low income, lower middle income and upper middle income countries.

More specifically saying, this different trend in distribution of patterns represented by the number of reports is that all the patterns are more fairly represented and balanced not only for the educational concept on equity of access but for the rest of the remaining educational equity concepts as well. It can be analyzed that the number of country policies highlighting the importance of concepts other than equity of access and resource inputs are clearly visible in this Figure 6-4. Moreover, the distribution of patterns one to four for equity of learning outcomes and inclusion (diversity) is far better balanced for high income countries. This proves the fact that the level of economy is one of the crucial factors in determining how well countries can plan and develop policies to reflect diverse educational equity concepts concurrently.

And as for the last remark on the Figure 6-4, in terms of the social group defined by disability as to that of other social groups, more number of country policies have recognized and identified patterns two, three and four for all educational equity concepts and this is particularly evident for equity of learning outcomes and inclusion (diversity). This part of the key finding showing disparities between the social group defined by disability and other social groups defined by gender, ethnicity, poverty (income level) and geographical location, whether rural or urban will be analyzed later in this chapter.

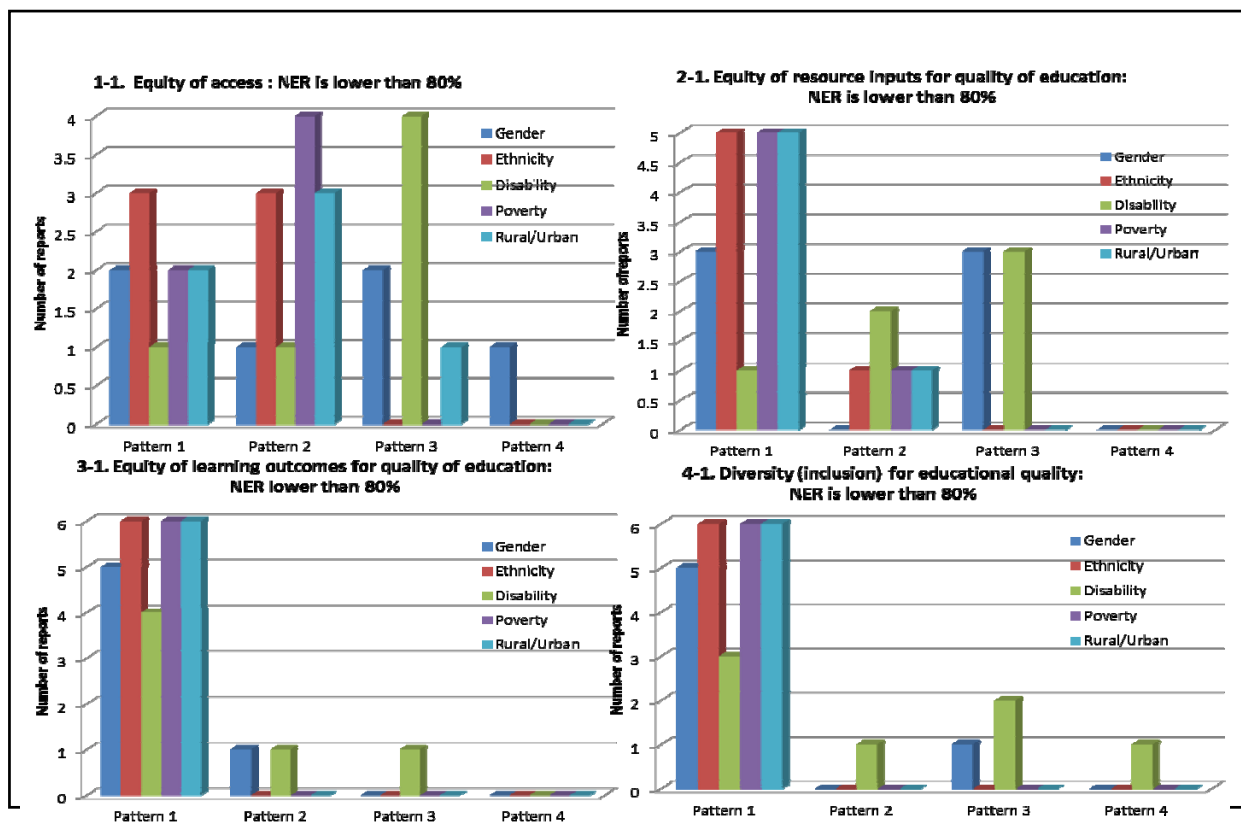
6.3.2 Part two based on four educational equity concepts according to the educational status

Next, moving on to present the results and key findings obtained based on four educational equity concepts according to the education status, the author will firstly explain

how the country policies were classified according to different levels of educational status. In a similar method as to that described in the previous sub-section (6.3.1), all countries have been classified according to the World Bank's estimates of the 2008 net enrollment rate (NER) obtained from the 2008 World Development Indicator Report. According to this report, there are three levels of net enrollment rate of primary education comprised in the following ways; firstly NER of primary education is lower than 80%, secondly, NER of primary education is between 80% and 90% and lastly, the NER of primary education is higher than 90%. A full list of countries classified according to their respective educational status is provided for reference in Appendix 11.

Prior to thoroughly looking into the obtained results and key findings, the author would like to mention and clarify the reasons why the estimates of net enrollment rate of primary education from the 2008 World Development Indicator Report and the level of primary education were used. Firstly, the author has used the estimates of the year 2008 to categorize all countries according to levels of educational status since the data sources utilized for this research study were the 2008 National Country Reports on Inclusive Education and thus a level of consistency and coherency concerning the year were maintained for accurate analyses. Secondly, the primary level of education was the target for this research study since all data sources including the 2008 National Country Reports as well as the EFA 2000 Assessment Reports and the EFA National Plans of Action target the primary education level.

Figure 6-5: Four educational equity concepts for countries with NER lower than 80%



Source: created by author based on data analysis

In this particular Figure 6-5 well as in the other two figures to be presented (Figures 6-6 and 6-7), once again, they all present the differences observed in the four equity indicator patterns across four different equity concepts and various social groups for those countries with a net enrollment rate (NER) in primary education lower than 80%, between 80% and 90% and higher than 90%. The four equity indicator patterns from one to four are indicated below running horizontally and the total number of policy reports are indicated running to the side vertically. Each graph included in the figure starts from equity of access located on the upper left hand side and ends with inclusion (diversity) located at the lower right hand side of the box

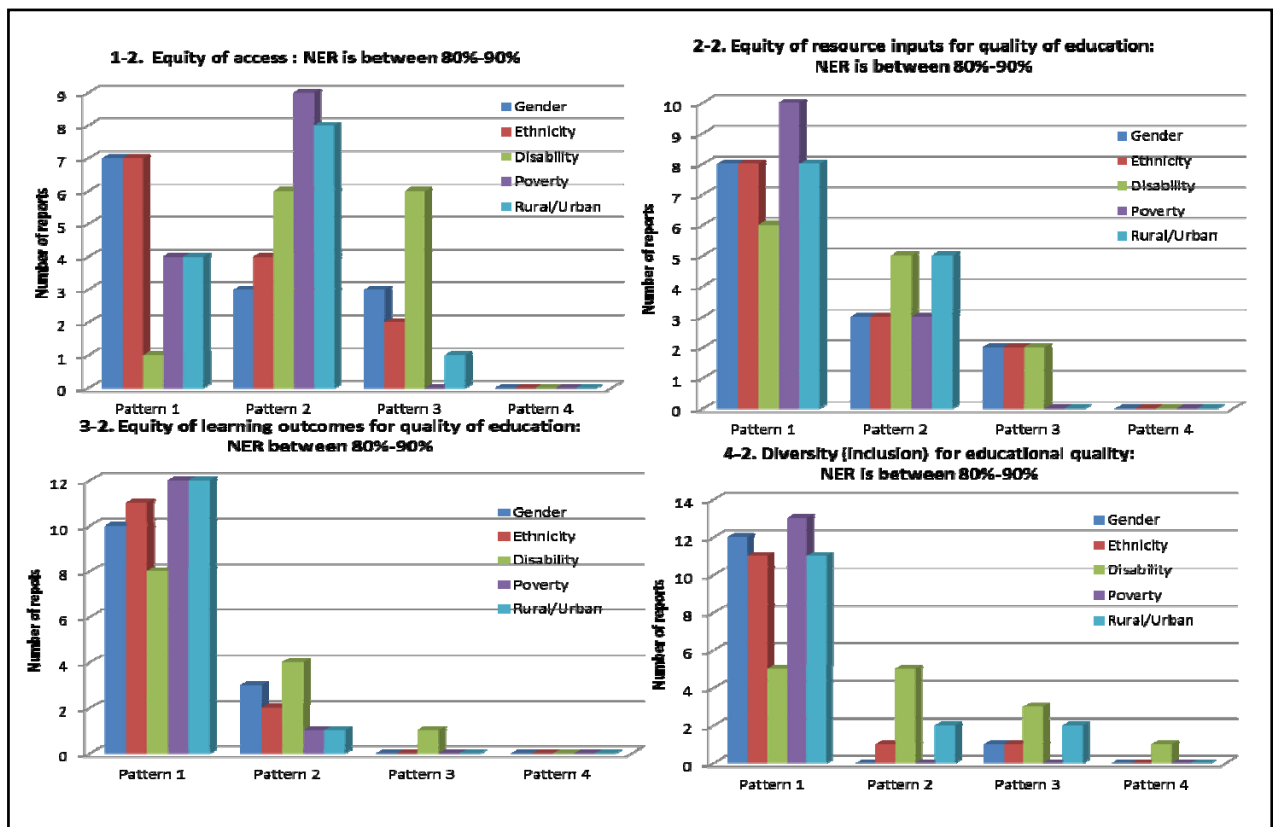
figure. All of the graphs inside this Figure 6-5 are countries classified as those with NER of primary education lower than 80%.

Looking at this Figure 6-5 targeting countries with NER lower than 80%, it can be said that similar results have been obtained as to that of countries with low income which was presented in Figure 6-1. In other words, the distribution of all four patterns from pattern one to pattern four are relatively well balanced for the educational concept on equity of access with less number of policy reports categorized as pattern one or no government policy. Whereas there are more number of country reports which have identified patterns two and three meaning that country policies recognize the importance of equity of access with legal and administrative frameworks in place. It is also interesting to observe that for the social group defined by gender, there is a high number of reports in contrast to other social groups for patterns three and four. It is promising to note that countries with NER lower than 80% are putting much efforts to promote the access of schooling and education for girls. When looking at the other three educational equity concepts for this particular group of countries, although some country policies recognize the significance of equity of resource inputs for quality of education with some policies which benchmark pattern two and three, the number of policy reports decreases all of a sudden when educational concepts on learning outcomes and inclusion (diversity) are considered.

Likewise for results obtained through the lens of the educational status of countries, the

particular group defined by disability demonstrate somewhat a particular aspect which is in contrast to the other four social groups. To put it in other words, the number of policy reports identifying patterns two, three and four for educational concepts on equity of resource inputs, learning outcomes and inclusion (diversity) are existent for the social group defined by disability only when there are no government policies for those defined by gender, ethnicity, poverty and rural/urban.

Figure 6-6: Four educational equity concepts for countries with NER between 80% to 90%



Source: created by author based on data analysis

And next, taking a look at the results obtained for those country policies grouped in the

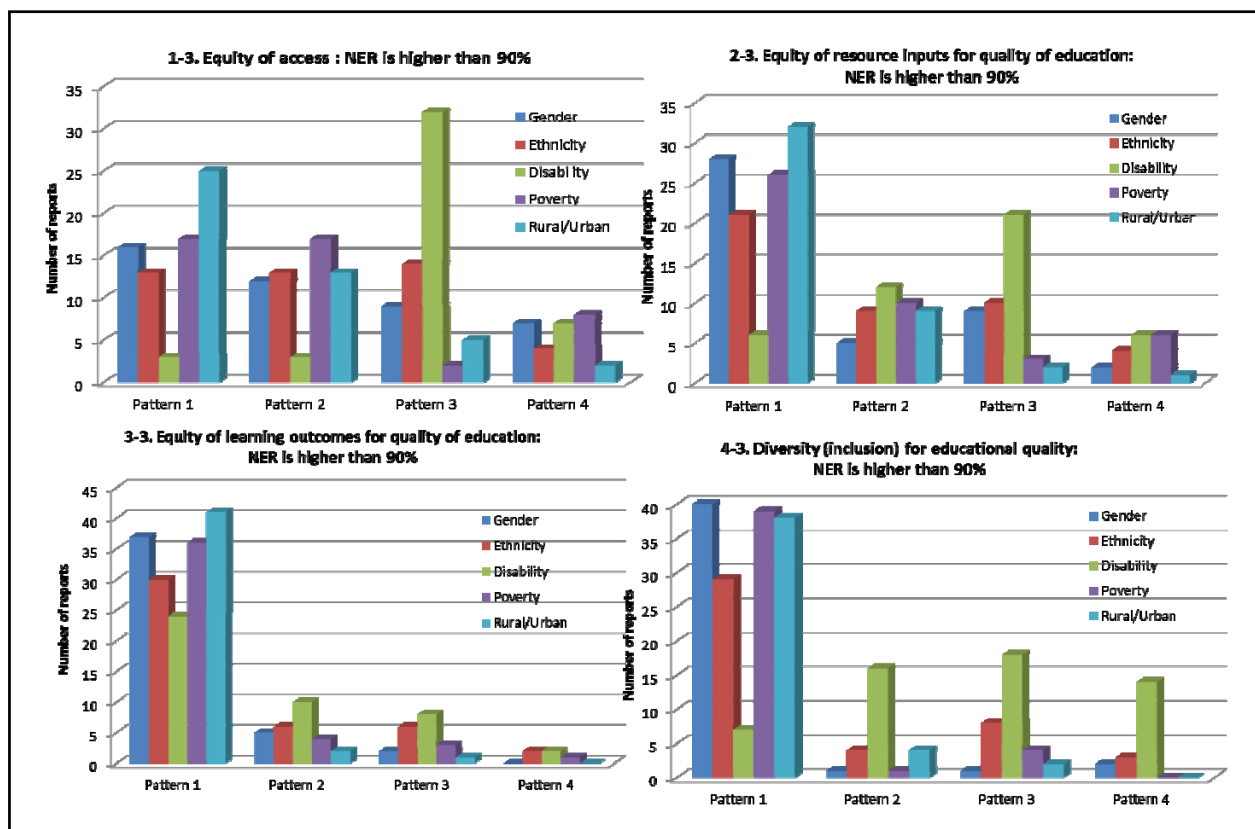
category of NER ranging between 80% to 90%, Figure 6-6 here above presents those results. In similar ways as to that of the previous graphs presented in Figure 6-5, the trends for this particular Figure 6-6 share similar features. To be more explicit and in detail, it can be inferred that as the level of educational equity concepts change from the first equity concept on access to the fourth equity concept on inclusion (diversity), the number of country policies decline for patterns two, three and four. A fairly more balanced distribution of patterns are reflected for all social groups for equity of access and equity of resource inputs for quality of education with the exception of pattern four with no policies allocating budget for these two educational equity concepts. In contrast to those countries with NER lower than 80%, countries with NER ranging between 80% to 90% have more number of government policies for the third and fourth educational equity concepts on learning outcomes and inclusion (diversity) although the total number of policies are still relatively small. It can be said that for instance with equity of learning outcomes for quality of education, all social groups defined by gender, ethnicity, disability, poverty and rural/urban identify pattern two or meaning that country policies at least recognize the significance of equity of learning outcomes in their country policies.

With regard to the fourth educational equity concept on inclusion (diversity), once again, there are more number of reports identifying patterns two, three and four in contrast to those countries grouped under the category of NER lower than 80%. At the same time, it can be said that the social group defined by disability is featured with special attention given in terms of

recognition within policies as the number of country policies identifying patterns two, three and four are distinctively higher in number for disability compared to all other social groups.

And lastly, taking a look at the results obtained for those countries classified under the category of NER ranging higher than 90%, the Figure 6-7 is presented below.

Figure 6-7: Four educational equity concepts for countries with NER higher than 90%



Source: created by author based on data analysis

As for this particular Figure 6-7, a distinctive feature is again revealed through the author’s qualitative comparative policy analysis conducted using the pilot-SABER rubric to evaluate country policies. In other words, countries with a high enrollment rate recognize the

importance of all four educational equity concepts including equity for inclusion (diversity). It is very distinctive compared to the other two Figures 6-5 and 6-6 in the way that the distribution of the number of country policies based on identified patterns is much more well and fairly balanced for all four educational equity concepts. There are less number of government policies which do not recognize each and every four educational equity concepts, meaning that there are many more country policies identifying pattern two, signifying that particular educational equity concept is at least recognized as one of the policies. Further to that, there are also more number of government policies recognizing pattern three as well as few for pattern four with regard to educational concepts on equity of resource inputs and learning outcomes. And concerning the educational equity concept on access to inclusion (diversity), it can be observed that more elaborated discussions are taking place within country policies on which type of education or schooling should be provided either in the form of special, integrated or inclusive education.

On the other hand, much more discussion is taking place for the educational concept on equity of inclusion (diversity) for the social group defined by disability observed through this figure as well. This particular feature remains the same in contrast to the other two categories grouped according to NER ranging below 80% and NER ranging between 80% to 90%. From another perspective or angle, it can also be said that there are more number of countries which highlight the importance of equity or resource inputs and learning outcomes for quality of

education as well as inclusion (diversity) in their government policies. Moreover, in many countries, not only does the policy address its importance, but actual legal, administrative and budgetary frameworks are also in place and structured as understood from the policy documents of countries with NER higher than 90%.

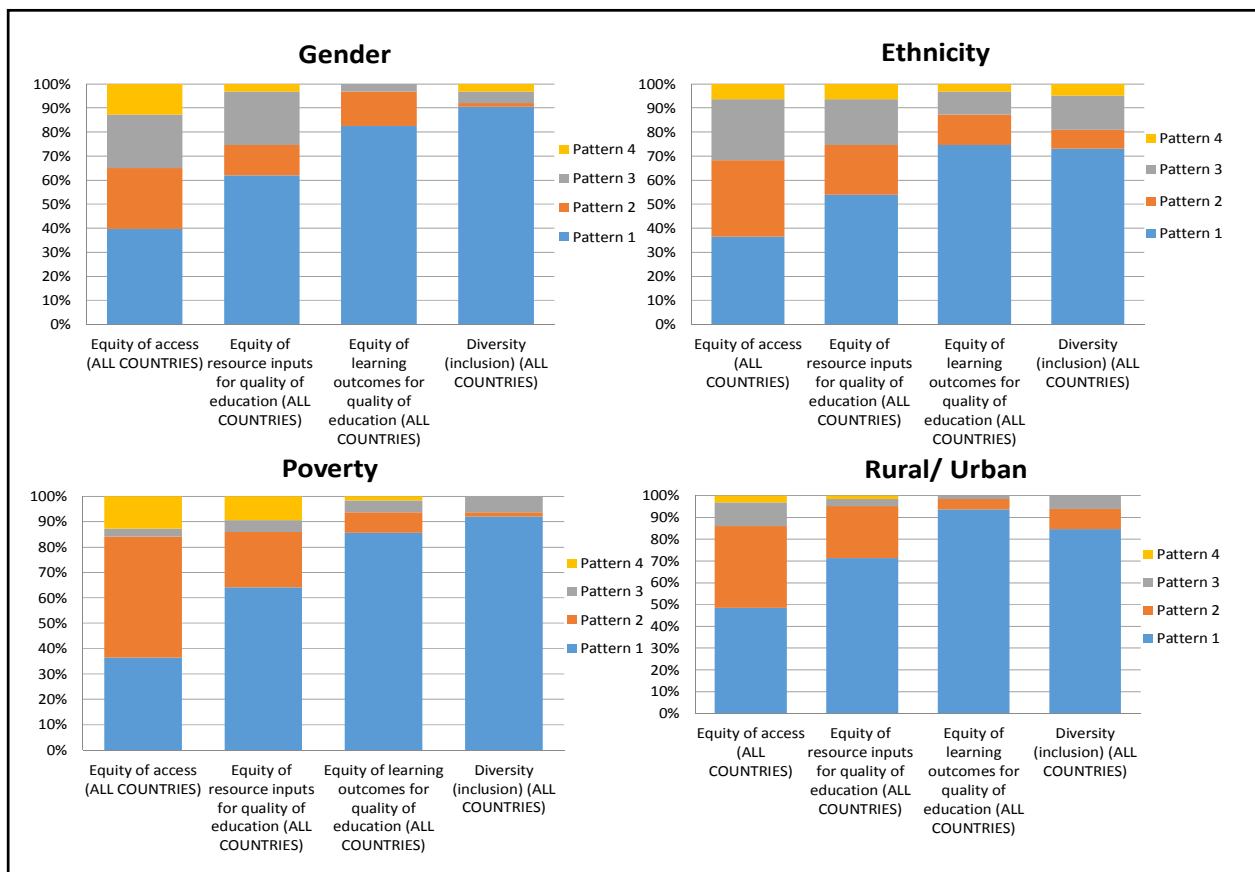
And lastly, it must also be mentioned that country policies categorized by the level of educational status and previously by the level of economic status, the trends and features demonstrate similarities between the two factors. Needless to say, the economic status of countries is directly connected or linked to the level of a country's educational status as well. Hence, it is quite obvious that the results obtained through this data analysis present and share commonalities between the two factors on income and educational levels. On the other hand, it must also be highlighted that the two factors on income and education nevertheless prove to be factors having a large impact on how and why country policies recognize all four educational equity concepts across various social groups.

6.3.3 Part three based on educational equity concepts according to five social groups

In this particular sub-section, the author aims to further clarify the points made in previous sub-sections about the distinctive feature observed between the social group defined by disability and other social groups defined by gender, ethnicity, poverty and rural/urban. Therefore, in the following Figures 6-8 and 6-9, the author has organized the graphs by each social group, looking at the distribution of the four patterns by percentage of all four educational

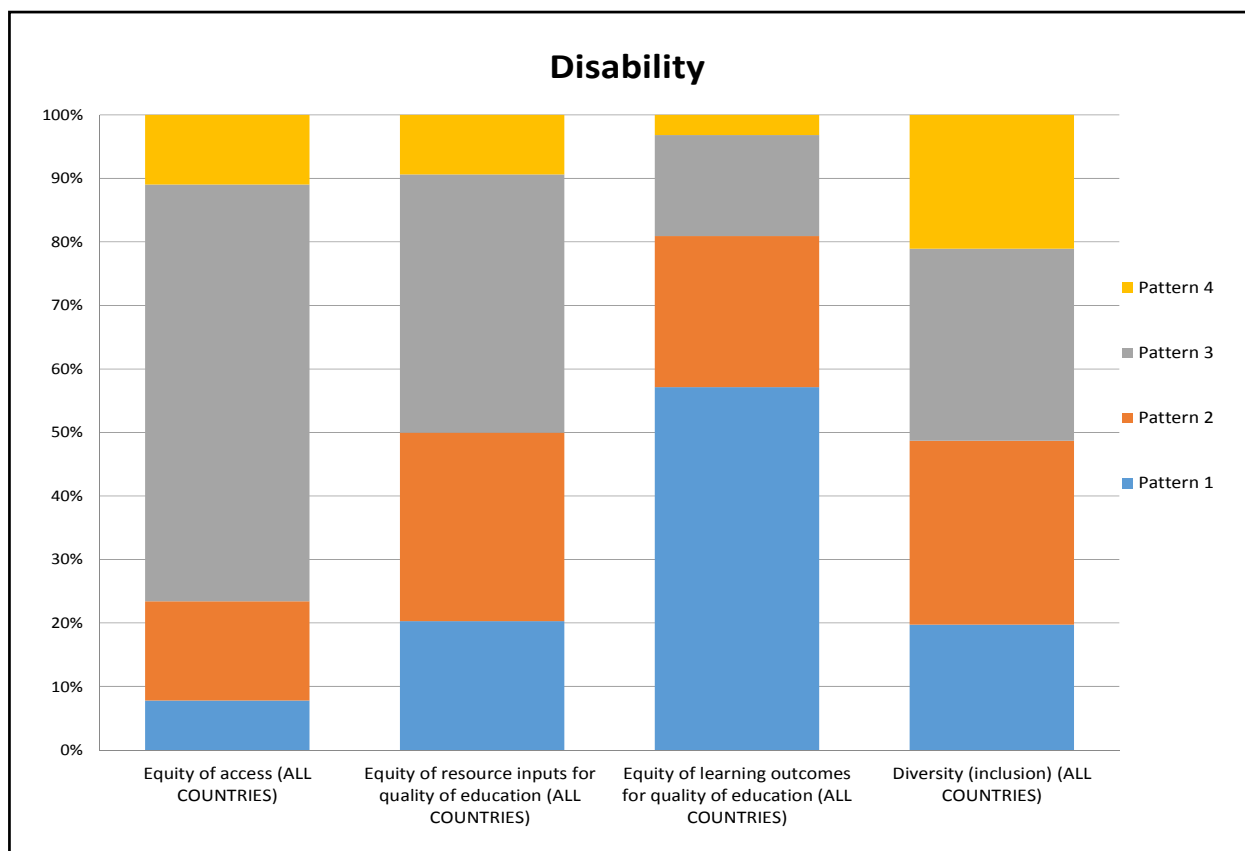
equity concepts. The Figure 6-8 including four graphs include gender, ethnicity, poverty and rural/urban. While the Figure 6-9 includes only the social group defined by disability in order to investigate how the distribution of patterns as indicated by percentage ratios differ by each and every social group.

Figure 6-8: All educational equity concepts and percentage of patterns for social groups defined by gender, ethnicity, poverty and rural/urban



Source: created by author based on data analysis

Figure 6-9: All educational equity concepts and percentage of patterns for the social group defined by disability



Source: created by author based on data analysis

By looking and comparing the two Figures 6-8 and 6-9, it clearly demonstrates the difference in the way that each pattern is distributed between disability and other factors associated with gender, ethnicity, poverty and rural/urban. To be more explicit and detailed, this difference is very obvious with the distribution of pattern one for disability in comparison to other social groups. It can be observed that for the social group defined by disability, for all four educational equity concepts, the percentage of pattern one is 20% or lower except for equity of learning outcomes for quality of education. However, even with this particular education equity

concept, the percentage is slightly over 50% and pattern two represents roughly 25% in total and including pattern three, it totals approximately 40%. Whereas for social groups defined by gender, ethnicity, poverty and rural/urban, the distribution of patterns is quite different in the way that with pattern one, its distribution as indicated by percentages is high in number for all four educational equity concepts across all four social groups with the exception of equity of access. Nevertheless, the percentage of pattern one for the four social groups surpasses 30% and nearly 50% for the group defined by rural and urban but the social group defined by disability, the percentage of country policies which do not recognize equity of access accounts for less than 10%. Similar observations can be made for the educational concept on equity of resource inputs for quality of education, where the percentage of pattern one covers the majority of the entire or total number of reports with more than 50%, yet this percentage only accounts to 20% for the social group defined by disability. In other words, there are high number of patterns two and three represented for disability but for the case with other four social groups, pattern one is its represented pattern.

Lastly and interestingly enough, by looking at the distribution of patterns by percentage for the fourth educational equity concept on inclusion (diversity), once again, a distinctive feature for the social group defined by disability is existant in comparison to the other four social groups. When looking at groups associated with gender, ethnicity, poverty and rural/urban, they all demonstrate a common characteristic in the sense that there are hardly any

discussions taking place within these four social groups on the type of education that should be provided based on inclusion (diversity); either special, integrated or inclusive education. In large contrast, for the social group associated with disability, it is well observed that much discussion is taking place between special, integrated and inclusive educational settings represented by patterns two, three and four. From such results as illustrated above in the two Figures 6-8 and 6-9, the author can summarize that concerning the educational concept on equity of inclusion (diversity), country policies worldwide are discussing this dimension and issue targeting the social group defined by disabilities only. Furthermore, it can be said that with regard to the other four social groups defined by gender, ethnicity, poverty and rural/urban, the current fact that worldwide countries are not debating or promoting the issues on equity of inclusion (diversity) in their policy documents, it can be assumed that the notions of inclusion (diversity) are not intended for practice for various reasons by countries. The reasons behind these key findings and the given current situation of government policies towards the educational concept on equity of inclusion (diversity) will be elaborated further in the concluding chapter (Chapter 8).

6.4 Conclusion

Throughout this chapter conducting comparative and qualitative review analysis of data sources targeting the 2008 National Country Reports on inclusive education from 77 countries worldwide including developed and developing countries, various key findings have been

obtained from different dimensions and angles. Moreover, the initial attempt in using the original policy goal ratings tool named as the pilot-SABER rubric on equity and inclusion has allowed much opportunities to compile and gather key research findings on policies worldwide related to educational equity and inclusion across various social groups. In addition, the author's attempt to conduct this data analysis based on different dimensions, mainly including the economic and educational perspectives have added value to the overall key findings of this research study. In summary, the following main findings have been obtained in this particular part of the research study.

First of all, from the economic dimension and perspective, representation of patterns one through four of all four different educational equity concepts is far more advanced in high income countries in comparison to other low income countries including lower middle and upper middle income countries. Similarly, from the educational dimension and perspective, representation of patterns one through four of all four different educational equity concepts is slightly better balanced in countries with a high NER of primary education in comparison to those countries with lower NER of primary education.

Second of all, by comparing the four different educational equity concepts across various income and NER levels, the first educational concept on equity of access is relatively high prioritized in policies of all countries worldwide. Furthermore, there are more number of policies identifying patterns two, three and four signifying the fact that in addition to recognition of

policies, there are legal and administrative as well as budgetary frameworks structured within governments, or at least is stated so at the policy level. On the other hand, the educational concept on equity of resource inputs and learning outcomes are not well highlighted in policies of all countries worldwide, more particularly with learning outcomes for quality of education. It can be said that the educational concept on equity of learning outcomes is a concept which is hardly highlighted or discussed in country policies with much more emphasis highlighted on educational concepts related to equity of access and resource inputs. As for the educational perspective on equity of inclusion (diversity), this particular emerging and new concept, namely as inclusive education as introduced in the 1994 Salamanca Statement is not a notion that is noticeably debated in country policies except for the social group defined by disability.

And third of all or in general summary, it has become clearly evident throughout this particular chapter that depending on the income level and the net enrollment rate of countries worldwide, the quality of policy planning and development on educational equity and inclusion differs. The two factors on income and education levels have a huge impact on how far the four educational equity concepts are reflected into the policy documents. It has become obvious that those countries with low levels of income and lower net enrollment rates face numerous constraints in planning and developing policies in terms of maintaining the same levels of educational equity and inclusion for all socially disadvantaged groups. However, it can also be seen as a very positive movement to observe that regardless of the income level or net

enrollment rates, majority of the 77 countries recognize the importance of addressing educational equity and inclusion specifically on the concept targeting equity of access and also some for equity of resource inputs for quality of education for all the five targeted social groups in their national policies. However, even though there was mention about educational equity concept on equity of inclusion (diversity) for groups with disabilities, discussion on inclusion (diversity) and inclusive education still remains extremely limited. Thus, it can be suggested that equity for different educational concepts in the education system remains to be a concept not highly discussed and debated in worldwide policies, especially depending on the level of income and also education.

Chapter 7 Comparative Data Analysis of Policy related to Educational Equity and Inclusion within the Context of Cambodia

7.1 Introduction

In this final chapter of data analyses to be presented in this research study of the dissertation, data sources on policy will be now analyzed further in-depth at the national context level, taking the case study of Cambodia. What is meant by further in-depth analysis is that the author has gathered all available policy documents related to the the field of educational equity and inclusion in the government of Cambodia which are data sources that are more local specific and detailed in its contents. In this introductory section, it will first of all once again briefly explain the kinds of sources that were gathered and collected through field work in Cambodia in addition to the particular methodology used for this part of research study and analyses. Then, in the following sections and sub-sections to come, prior to presenting the key results and findings, a general overview of current situation including its educational status concerning various social groups defined by fmain actors associated with gender, ethnicity, disability, poverty and rural/urban will be thoroughly explored.

Concerning the collected data sources in Cambodia, the author has gathered a total of 130 documents or data sources which include ones related to legislation, laws, policies, plans, administrative frameworks, programs, projects and budget. A detailed explanation on the methodology of how these documents were compiled has already been mentioned in chapter 4 of this dissertation, however to review again in brief, the author has mainly collected data

sources from the Ministry of Education, Youth and Sports of the Royal Government of Cambodia (MOEYS) , Ministry of Social Affairs, Veterans and Youth Rehabilitation of the Government of Cambodia (MOSAVY) and all others mainly through international organizations including UNESCO, UNICEF and the World Bank as well as from the Royal University of Phnom Penh (RUPP) in Cambodia. Visits to the Provincial Office of Education and the District Office of Education in Kampot Province were made for data collection as well. All of these data sources were gathered through field work conducted over a total of two months with visits being made separately at four different periods.

And with regard to the specific methodology utilized to analyze the policy documents and other data sources of Cambodia, the original framework using the pilot-SABER rubric was used but in two separate ways. Firstly, in order to obtain primary data through interviews with policy makers and all other relevant informants, the pilot-SABER rubric was re-arranged into a questionnaire or survey so that the interviewees were able to follow the policy-goal ratings tool in the form of separate questions and providing evidence or proof for those responses. A detailed description of this pilot-SABER questionnaire/survey can be found in Appendix 4. And secondly, the author has also conducted analysis of all data sources collected in Cambodia totalling 130 documents by using the original form of the pilot-SABER rubric on equity and inclusion to obtain further details and results.

7.2 Children with Disabilities in Cambodia

Taking a look at the rate of disability prevalence in Cambodia in relation to social groups, Cambodia is one of the developing countries still amidst recovery from its nearly three decades of violent conflict and the tragedies of the genocide regime of the Khmer rouge with political stability returning only in 1998. The recent and long turbulent history of political and economic instability together with the hardship of Cambodians have left many consequences in the country. One of the results being the large number of landmine and combat victims of all ages, different types of disabilities including multiple conditions. It also left the majority of Cambodians suffering from starvation and malnutrition, a developing country scarce on its resources and human capacity.

Despite its challenging socio-economic and political environment, Cambodia has shown positive efforts in terms of strong policy champions or policy for disability and other vulnerable groups of children in the country (Kalyunpur, 2011; Powel, 2005). Kalyunpur (2011) also states that Cambodia is unlike many other developing countries whereby the tendency is for children with disabilities to be left behind and overlooked completely.

The official statistics on the percentages of persons with disabilities vary within the country, but here, the author will make note of the official data being released in 1999, 2004 and 2008 in the Cambodia Socio-Economic Survey (CSES) and National Census undertaken by the National Institute of Statistics (NIS). According to the official data released in 1999, 2% of the total population had disabilities of which were all caused due to 11.4% by landmines,

10.8% by war, 32.5% by diseases and 5.5% by traffic accidents, 7.2% by other accidents, 20.5% from birth and 12% others. In 2004, the CSES records 4% of the total population having a disability, while the 2008 National Census has released official data totalling 1.4% of the total population with disabilities.

Other statistics noted from available resources including VanLeit et al (2007) estimates that 4.7% of the population or more than half a million people in Cambodia have a disability. Furthermore, this journal marks that almost half of those with disabilities are under the age of 20. The same percentage has also been released by CSES of NIS at 4.7% which seems to be the highest figure on the number of persons with disabilities. Furthermore, according to this set of data from CSES, 30% are with visual impairments, followed by 24% with mobility-related impairments and hearing impairments at 15%. Also in this particular survey, it was noted that the overall prevalence of disabilities is higher among rural residents at 4.9% and 4.0% for urban residents.

In the report from World Vision (2007) (as noted by Powell, 2005), it is noted that although the causes of disabilities are very much related to high incidence of casualties of war and victims of unexploded ordnance, poverty is the main factor underlying disability in Cambodia. Other statistics taken from the Asian Development Bank (1997) show that in 1997, 9.8% of Cambodians are living with a disability, while the statistics reported by United Nations Development Program in 1999 reports that 15% of Cambodians are living with some kind of a

disability. (CDPO, 2010). One of the major reasons why there are gaps between the statistics given by the government of Cambodia and those given by international organizations is due to the fact that the current data collection system of disabilities in Cambodia includes only six types of impairment and moreover, the definition of each type of impairment is not clearly specified. Handicap International 's study conducted in 2012 on childhood disability in Cambodia reports that 1 out of every 10 children aged 2 to 9 years old has a disability. (CRS, 2013). The proportion of children in the age group (0-4) is 10.25%, children (0-14) are 33.7%, the economically productive age group (15-64) is 62% and the elderly population (65+) is at 4.3%.

7.3 Current Situation of all Social Groups in Cambodia

7.3.1 Economic, social and cultural factors affecting the current situation of social groups

According to Thomas (2005), the National Poverty Reduction Strategy Paper (NPRSP 2002) states the issue of poverty in Cambodia remains a very serious concern as it can be observed from some basic figures. For example, in this paper, it is said that 36 percent of the Cambodia population are faced to live below the poverty line of US \$0.40-0.63. Not only limited to poverty, but the fact that over 70 percent of the poor in Cambodia are employed in the agriculture sector with 12% to 15% without owning agricultural land makes the country extremely difficult to live surpassing the poverty line. The serious poverty situation in the

country leaves the poor people to typically lack access to basic social services such as health centers and schools. Furthermore, the state of poverty leaves the disabled people, minority groups, people living with HIV/AIDS, the elderly and children particularly vulnerable in society. Including also girls and women who are generally disadvantaged in the Cambodian society.

Going back to the social group of people affected by disabilities in Cambodia, in terms of those people affected by landmines, in 2003, approximately three people per day were killed or injured by mines or unexploded ordinance (UXO). And one of the main reasons why many people get affected and injured by landmines was because of incidents which were associated with daily livelihood activities and the number of such casualties accounting to 97%, meaning that the majority of people affected are civilians. Further to that, it is the poor people who become predominantly the victims of landmines due to that fact that they have no choice but to live near such areas and obliged to enter landmine areas to collect food for their lives, as explained by International Campaign to Ban Landmines (2004) Also, another major reason why Cambodians have a high prevalence of disabilities is associated with the serious situation of poverty as explained previously. The fact that Cambodians are poor makes them farther to reach and access basic necessities concerning health care and illnesses or injuries which remain untreated and as such a result, people often suffer from a permanent disability.

Apart from mainly the economic causes and reasons as to why the social group defined by disability makes them vulnerable and disadvantaged in society, there are also other social

and cultural perceptions and causes which make persons with disabilities to stand at a weaker position in society and within the entire country. That is, the majority of disabled people in Cambodia continue to face discrimination and stigma. In the context of Cambodia, although the high rate or percentage of persons with disabilities mean that there are more number of disabled persons being exposed in society to those people without disabilities, discrimination through teasing and name-calling is very widespread, especially for those with severe disabilities compared to amputees who face less discrimination.

For instance, there is evidence that suggests that some children who are born with severe disabilities are never given a proper name at all and are called by their name of disability. Not only limited to names, but in Cambodia, it is still very often to see cases where families with children with disabilities hide them away with less food or without clothes or even unwashed and tied up. Such practices towards children and those with disabilities are totally unacceptable by no reason whatsoever and they even imply or indicate that families and communities neglect such children in a way of not considering such children to be fully human.

The following Table 7-1 looks at some of the names given to children and those with disabilities depict the situation of how the Cambodian society perceive certain types of disabilities in their socio-cultural context.

Table 7-1: Names used for certain types of disabilities in Cambodia

Frog:	used for people who crawl or people with cerebral palsy
Dancing walk:	name for various kinds of physical disability and cerebral palsy
Malnourished:	name for people with withered and weakened limb
Kwak:	used for blind people
Stupid, crazy, mad:	used for people with mental health problems and intellectual disabilities
Useless and cannot do anything:	used for people with severe disabilities and cerebral palsy
Mad pig:	used for people with epilepsy
Kbot:	used for people with amputated arms

Source: created and modified by author based on Thomas (2005, p.28)

Moreover, it has been found that there is some degree of isolation and exclusion from community social events for those with disabilities. The role of monks from pagodas play a central part of community lives for the Cambodians, however, people with disabilities often are not visited by those monks as well as including friends, neighbors or even family members. In terms of social or ceremonial events, many disabled people are not often invited to weddings, festivals or village meetings.

On the other hand, it must also be mentioned that not all persons with disabilities are suffering from poverty, however, they are over-represented among the poor group. Moreover, in terms of socio-cultural discrimination, the degree and the type of disability often determine their situations. Nonetheless, it must be reiterated that children, especially girls and women with disabilities are often left vulnerable and especially those with severe physical and intellectual

impairments. Moreover within the context of Cambodia, it is considered that the blind people face considerable difficulties but among those with disabilities, the deaf is considered to be the most excluded in society. For instance, it is said that “blindness cuts you off from things, but deafness cuts you off from people, (and) most deaf people in Cambodia have never met another deaf person” (Thomas, 2005 p.32) It therefore becomes extremely crucial that the society recognize special needs of those with disabilities and accommodate them accordingly including mainstream programmes and development initiatives. When movements as such do occur and take place, those with disabilities are just equally capable as those without disabilities to excel and contribute as much as others to the development of the Cambodian society.

In addition to the good framework which should be promoted and established as above, there is also a need to support persons with disabilities with additional approaches such as by empowering persons with disabilities to be included at all levels of decision making processes. As previously stated, people with disabilities in some cases are not considered as being fully human in society which is a major unacceptable factor restricting the full participation and provision of equal opportunities and as a result, preventing them from functioning as full members of society. It becomes essential that the abilities of person with disabilities to be more widely recognized by society through public awareness and mass educational campaigns. As of now, activities and programs to enhance the promotion of those disabilities into the mainstream development programs not only through government or public measures but to mobilize the

private sector becomes crucially important as they are non-existent currently.

Despite the negative, discriminatory attitudes and teasing which people with disabilities in Cambodia face, this has not always been the case for the country with more than 85% of Cambodians practicing Buddhism and believing in Karma. Cambodians believe that when they commit good, they will receive good and vice versa, committing bad, receives bad. Although believing in Buddhist theory and teaching relate the outcome of disability to a bad commitment that people have committed in their previous lives, the teaching of Karma also teaches the people to have mercy for the weak and as previously stated, doing good for others or those in need will bring good luck to themselves. As a result, it has been the long tradition and custom for Cambodians to donate and provide charities to the poor or those with disabilities. On the other hand, this long religious tradition and custom to show compassion and understanding to those with disabilities or disadvantaged social groups has been developed within the country, such feelings have devastatingly weakened due to people's long suffering of civil war and conflict.

Apart from public awareness and social attitudes towards vulnerable and marginalized social groups within the Cambodian country as a result of various factors including its tragic history of long periods of war and genocide, physical structures related to infrastructure of buildings and roads contain numerous obstacles, especially for those persons with disabilities. For instance, majority of public building entrances and exits are inaccessible for persons with disabilities. Not solely limited to outer facilities but inner facilities such as toilets are usually

located on higher levels without enough space for wheelchairs or support handles. To be more specific, such problems remain more and more problematic in public facilities where all people must have equal access to including hospitals, schools and other insitutions. One of the major reasons why such structures are not in construction is due to the fact that there is no responsible government body to fully regulate such tasks for planning, development and implementation.

And lastly, it should be well noted that inclusion of persons with disabilities in families, communities and the entire society and country not only contributes to establish a sense of dignity and self-confidence among them, but is also directly linked to reduce poverty and stimulate the nation's development. It should be well understood that although disability may stand as a condition of occupational disadvantage at present, however, those disadvantages in principle can be solved and many of them overcome through appropriate laws and regulations, policy measures, programs and accessible services. In other words, the approach to overcoming the social model of disability sees its solution in putting forth a multi-sectoral approach with the involvement of all stakeholders to aim for the shared and common goal of transforming society towards equity and inclusion.

7.3.2 The current educational status of all social groups

Prior to looking at Cambodia's situation, according to UNESCO (2009b), "98% of CWDs in developing countries didn't attend schools; or it can be said that less than 10% of them had access to any form of education." (p.7-8) Furthermore, the Education Index ranking

of 0.502 (from 1.0) in the Human Development Report 2011 signals continuing difficulties with education provision, especially in the context of multidimensional poverty, gender and social inequality captured in the report's Inequality-Adjusted Human Development Index (HDI).

The situation in Cambodia is more critical than in most countries because it has one of the highest rates of disability in the world. Although the enrollment rates for primary school aged children stand at around 95% which has observed significant improvements over the past decade, there is a serious problem associated with high-drop out rates in the transition from primary to lower secondary schools. Furthermore, the number of out-of-school children in primary schools numbers 31,047 of which 28,902 are females and 2,145 for males. (UNESCO Institute of Statistics, 2011)

This particular growing problem finds its root causes among marginalized students affected by factors including poverty, gender, ethnicity, disability and geographical location as well as a mixture or combination of such factors worsen their situations.

Taking a look at the social group defined by ethnicity, their literacy rate is far below the national average especially for girls. For instance, in Cambodia, the government officially recognizes groups of ethnic minorities within the country including the indigenous minorities who also known as highlanders or Khmer-Loeu, Cham or Khmer-Islam and foreign immigrants which include Chinese, Vietnamese and Thai. In terms of their residence, it is recognized that diverse ethnic minority groups live in the five north-eastern provinces of Cambodia including

Stung Treng, Rattanakiri, Mondulakiri, Kratie and Preah Vihear. The Cambodian government recognizes the four official categories for ethnic groups in the country;. Also, there are various ethnic groups which make up approximately 57% of the inhabitants in the north-eastern part of Rattanakiri province who all speak their own minority languages with only few speaking the national language of Cambodia which is the Khmer language. This linguistic barrier of not being able to use the Khmer language has been the foremost challenge, especially for vulnerable people including women and children as they have very limited access to education. As a result, there are numerous successive generations growing up illiterate in terms of the national language which is a crucial factor in gaining access to development as well as empowerment of such vulnerable social groups. Also, most of the children in the remotest areas of Rattanakiri do not have any access to education or schooling given their history of settling in those areas after the upheavals of the Khmer Rouge regime when nobody dared to talk about any forms of education then.

To look at some numbers, there is less than 10% of children who manage to complete primary education and only few who continue and move on to secondary education. However on the brighter side, the families and communities who live in these remotest areas of Cambodia and who belong to ethnic minorities now have hopes in education. It is the wish of the majority to preserve their own ethnic culture, language and tradition through generations to come but at the same time, they also wish to acquire the Khmer language in order to find better jobs

including government officials.

Although the hopes of ethnic minorities in seeking educational opportunities are high, the current situation of education and schooling that are accessible are extremely limited. For example, in Mondulakiri province, there are 92 ethnic minority villages but out of this number, 16 ethnic minority villages do not have primary schools at all and 17 villages have only limited grade levels of primary education.

And nextly, taking a look at the social group defined by disability in terms of their access to education, the provision of educational programs for persons with disabilities are mainly managed by international and national NGOs with partial involvement of the government or the MOEYS in the recent few years with a focus on children with disabilities. To date, there are only very limited number of special schools and classes which are services provided to only a fraction of children with disabilities and limited to only few types of disabilities in the entire country of Cambodia concentrating in urban areas as well. On the other side, many children with mainly physical disabilities are in fact enrolled in schools in the mainstream public education system. However, the reality in many of those schools is that the current environment in terms of physical infrastructure, resources, pedagogy and other needed support is non-existent and as a result, integration and inclusion of those children with physical disabilities are often neglected, leading to drop-outs of such vulnerable children. In other words, schools or educational systems must create an appropriate environment, meaning that children with

disabilities are not just physically present in schools. They must be learning by receiving the type of education which meets their needs and included fully in the school life. Although this is clearly evident as the needs are there, teaching methods in terms of pedagogy in majority of Cambodian schools still rely uniquely on rote learning only.

As it was described earlier in this chapter on section 7.2, the public awareness built towards those with disabilities is the major cause for such social groups to face marginalization and discrimination. In addition to public attitudes, those with disabilities receive few support and encouragement even from their families and communities in terms of accessing schools and education. It is not just the problem of neglect or indifference with parents, but at times, parents become often over-protective and tend to keep them at home by worrying that their child will be bullied in schools by their classmates and teachers or may run into an accident. And even if students with disabilities do get the opportunity to receive education, they face state, public and private sector barriers for employment opportunities. For example, according to the Council of Minister's decision No. 1356 SRC/NN/1995, 223 SRC/NN/1997, 872 SRC/NN/1997, 835 SRC/NN/1998 and 39 SRC/NN/1999 imposed by MOEYS states that, "(r)ecruitment (of teachers for higher education, public pre-schools and primary schools) must be made among (student) candidates of either gender, of Cambodian nationality, who have clear bio-data, good health and are free of disabilities." (as cited by JICA, 2002)

On another note, it is found that there are significant number of children with disabilities

who actually attend schools. Statistics gathered by the Special Education Office (SEO) of MOEYS in 2004 has recorded that 80,203 children with disabilities are enrolled in schools of whom 32, 255 are girls. Concerning the type of disabilities it refers to, the most common form of disability is what is called as a learning disability and the next category being speaking difficulties. However, due to the poor assessment system and management of disabilities, if children with those two types of disabilities (learning and speaking) were much more properly assessed, they may not be categorized as those with disabilities.

And concerning the gap existing due to geographical location, this gap between urban and rural areas remain huge in addition to the gap between districts and provinces in the country of Cambodia. The regional disparities are obvious with dropout rates ranging from 5% in Takeo to over 15% in three provinces (Koh Kong, Rattanakiri and Mondulkiri) according to UNESCO (2010) and RUPP (2013). However, the biggest gap which exists in the country is related to the income level striking the social group affected by poverty.

7.3.3 General overview of inclusive education in Cambodia

As defined in The 1994 Salamanca Statement Framework for Action on Special Needs Education, inclusive education means that;

(S)chools should accommodate all children regardless of their physical, intellectual, social, emotional, linguistic or other conditions. This should include disabled and gifted children,

street and working children, children from remote or nomadic populations, children from linguistic, ethnic or cultural minorities and children from other disadvantaged or marginalized areas or groups. (Introduction, p.6)

In the Cambodian context, the policy on inclusive education targets three main social groups and special programs including; education for children with disabilities (CWD), bilingual education (BE) for ethnic indigenous minorities and accelerated learning (AL) for over-aged children. The policy and master plan on education for children with disabilities (CWD) was approved in 2009 and the concepts of inclusive education was integrated into the Child Friendly School (CFS) policy and master plan for basic education (grade 1-9) which was initially developed in 2007 and the current version of this master plan is being operated from 2014 to 2018. For bilingual education (BE), the Prakas on BE was approved and endorsed in 2013 and there is also the national bilingual education action plan being currently drafted. For accelerated learning (AL), guideline on accelerated learning was approved in 2013 but its implementation still remains in its pilot stages.

In terms of the administrative framework, at the national level, there is the Special Education Office (SEO) created in the Primary Education Department (PED) under the General Department of Education (GDE). Moreover, terms of reference and the structure of CFS Steering Committee and Sub-Committee on special education or inclusive education is

currently now under revision but have not yet been approved. At the sub-national level, the provincial implementation teams (PITs) for children with disabilities, bilingual education and accelerated learning, in addition to the district training monitoring teams (DTMTs) is in place.

In terms of the budget, less than 1% of the programme budget under the primary education department is allocated for children with disabilities in 2012 and 2013. Furthermore, 0% of the programme budget is allocated for bilingual education and accelerated learning. In terms of the current coverage of inclusive education, as of 2013, basic inclusive education is integrated in pre-training service in 18 PTTCs (Provincial Teacher Training Colleges) and rolled out in in-service training in more than 22 districts in 17 provinces. Bilingual education is being implemented in 32 (63%) state primary schools and 19 (37%) community schools in 5 provinces (Rattanakiri, Mondulhiri, Stung Treng, Kratie and Preah Vihear). There have been so far 200 government and community teachers trained and some 5000 children from ethnic minorities enrolled in schools. For accelerated learning, the programme has been implemented in 6 provinces and more than 3000 over-aged children and drop outs have been enrolled in more than 100 classes.

7.4 Key Findings

In this part of the section on key findings, it consists of major key findings based on the qualitative and comparative situational review analysis of collected documents in Cambodia using the two methodologies (2-A and 2-B) using the pilot rubric on educational equity and

inclusion. It assesses four types of equity concepts (equity of access, equity of inputs, equity of outcomes, diversity and inclusion) along four dimensions (national constitution and laws, national policies and plans, administrative frameworks, allocation of the national budget). Having conducted a thorough review of all the documents, this research study explores the degree and level of policy language relevant to achieving the four pillars of educational equity concepts in order to benchmark policies of Cambodia for better policy development of the government.

To be more specific, the equity indicators look at whether marginalized groups as defined by gender, ethnicity, disability, poverty (income level) and geographical location, whether rural or urban are mentioned in the policies and, if so, whether there is mention of it in the National Constitution and the Education Law as well as other legal frameworks and further to that, whether there is any type of budget allocation provided. The collected 130 documents in Cambodia have been classified into national laws, legislation, policies, administrative frameworks and plans, programs, projects and budget documents.

7.4.1 Part one based on equity of access in legislation, education systems and budget allocation

In terms of international conventions that the government of Cambodia has ratified, the following ones have already been ratified as shown in Table 7-2 below.

Table 7-2: International conventions ratified by the Government of Cambodia

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1. The International Covenant on Economic, Social and Cultural Rights
 2. The International Covenant on Civil and Political Rights
 3. The Convention Against Torture and Other Cruel, Inhuman or Degrading Treatment or Punishment
 4. The Convention on the Rights of the Child
 5. The Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination Against Women
 6. The Convention relating to the Status of Refugees and its 1969 Protocol
 7. The Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Racial Discrimination
 8. The Convention on the Suppression and Punishment of the Crime of Apartheid
 9. The Convention on the Prevention of the Crime of Genocide
 10. The Supplementary Convention on the Abolition of Slavery
 11. The Slave Trade and Institutions and Practices similar to Slavery
 12. The Convention for the Amelioration of the Condition of the Wounded and Sick in Armed Forces in the Field
 13. The Convention for the Amelioration of the Condition of the Wounded, Sick and Shipwrecked Members of Armed forces at Sea
 14. The Convention relative to the Treatment of Prisoners of War
 15. The Convention relative to the Protection of Civilian Persons in Time of War
 16. The Convention on the Rights of Persons with Disabilities
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Source: created by the author base on data analysis

As it can be inferred from the above Table 7-2, the government of Cambodia has ratified quite a large number of international conventions and it can be said that Cambodia is one of the countries, which is showing its desires to follow and maintain international human rights rules and regulations. In particular, in terms of whether the educational concept on equity of access

to educational rights are assured through international conventions, the fact that the government of Cambodia has ratified the above conventions well proves that the country has its own will to take responsibility in providing educational equity to access to its citizens based on international set of rules and regulations. In other words, equity of access to educational rights under the umbrella of international conventions is assured in the government of Cambodia, at least in policy documents.

National Constitution and Education Law

According to the Constitution of Cambodia and the Education Law of Cambodia, primary and lower secondary education are free and compulsory. Moreover, the Constitution states that “The State shall provide free primary and secondary education to all citizens in public schools,” meaning that the provision of education should also be free for diverse groups of students that include social groups defined by their gender, ethnicity, disability status, income level, and geographical location, whether rural or urban. Further to that, in the Education Law of 2007, Article 39, states that “disabled learners have the same rights as able learners.” Moreover,

(D)isabled learners of either sex have the right to study with able learners if there is sufficient facilitation in the study process. Disabled learners who are not able to learn with able learners, even with facilitation, have the right to receive special education in

separate special classes at community schools in their locality. (MOEYS, 2007, Article 39)

Thus, per these foundational documents, it can be seen that the educational concept on equity of access is legally guaranteed for nine years of basic and free compulsory schooling in primary and lower secondary education . Such legislative movements have been adopted and come into force only very recently, on December 8th, 2007 to ensure and strengthen adequate governance and accountability of the government in addressing the rights of learners with disabilities to learn with their non-disabled peers as depicted in the Education Law (MOEYS, 2007, Chapter 7, Article 38 and 39).

National policies and plans

The Policy on Non-Formal Education is the key in this area. It states,

The Royal Government is concerned about... All people of both sexes and all races living in the Royal Kingdom of Cambodia who don't have access to public school (the formal education system): poor people and those living in difficult circumstances, working children and youths and the out-of-school, ethnic minority children and youth, adults aged 15 to 45 years. (Kingdom of Cambodia, n.d., p. 2)

Moreover, for social groups defined by gender, income level (poverty) and geographical location, whether rural or urban, there is a scholarship program for primary and lower secondary school students, and for ethnic minorities, bilingual educational programs are run in primary schools, according to the Policy for Bilingual Education (MOEYS, 2012). For disability, a prevalence study on students with low vision was conducted in 2010 and, subsequently, a support program was piloted in 2010 and 2011. Following from this, the MOEYS has planned to provide low vision and hearing supports for three years (2014 to 2017) with trust funds from the Global Partnership For Education, according to a representative of the World Bank. And next, in the Education Sector Plan (ESP) 2014 to 2018, inclusive education is stated to be a priority area. This particular ESP 2014-2018 which was very recently planned and developed in Cambodia highlights a few interesting points to be noted here.

For instance, unlike the previously developed ESPs, the planning process of the current ESP in its implementation has involved a wide range of substantive national and sub-national consultation including numerous educational authorities from the provincial levels. Not solely limited to the breakthrough for Cambodia's educational planning in terms of those authorities engaged, but the structure of the this current ESP 2014-2018 is based on upon a sub-sectoral planning paradigm covering three policy areas and five key sub-sectors of the education system, access, internal efficiency, equity, quality, management and including a brief background. There are also what are called core breakthrough indicators (CBI) under each policy area, which can

be related to each of the five sub-sectors as well. Other than the CBI, there are also outcome indicators specified for each of the five sub-sectors. In addition, a range of programs and activities are listed for each of the five sub-sectors, in order to aim to reach the stated policy objectives of each of the five sub-sectors.

Taking a look at its contents, specifically related to disadvantaged social groups, various marginalized and at-risk groups are targeted, “such as (the) underserved communities, girls, the poor, children with disabilities, orphans, children in hard to reach communities and ethnic minorities” (Chattopadhyay, 2012 p.15) Under the new structure of the current ESP, the social groups defined by their respective factors are affirmed in the strategies of the five different sub-sectors. For example, according to the (Chattopadhyay, 2012 p.15), under the first strategy of primary education, it affirms to “strengthen the inclusion of all 6 year old children including the marginalized groups such as children in disadvantaged areas, over aged children, children from poor families, ethnic minorities, children with disabilities and migrants.” Moreover, in the strategy of secondary education, the ESP articulates the provision of “scholarships and nutrition to students from poor families and marginalized groups, especially female students.” (Chattopadhyay, 2012 p.16)

What can be stated is that the current ESP in its implementation is a huge progress in the sense that it reflects a true and realistic understanding of what can be achieved or attained within the next five years in a feasible manner in accordance to Cambodia’s overall national

development strategy. Moreover, the new sub-sectoral approach which was applied in the current ESP is also a demonstration of past failures in policies and shows that lessons have been learned from such past policies defining limitations of priorities and programs set solely by line departments of the MOEYS instead of the sub-sectoral planning approach.

As part of the process and outcome of the Education Law Article 38 and 39, the Ministry has developed the National Policy on Education for Children with Disabilities in 2008 to ensure the equal rights of all children with disabilities to an equal education with non-disabled children. Moreover, this particular policy supports and works in alignment with the Child Friendly Schools policy and implementation guidelines developed in collaboration with UNICEF. The national policies developed by MOEYS in 2008 as well as the Child Friendly Schools general policy delineate the roles and responsibilities of all stakeholders, particularly educational institutions, in developing the potential of children with disabilities and providing appropriate interventions to increase the participation of children with disabilities as active members of their communities and nation now and in the future. Furthermore, the Child Friendly School program implemented by MOEYS together with the cooperation of UNICEF is a key objective for the Ministry to cope and work with partners to keep all children at school.

Overall, then, it is clear that various policies and plans have been developed to promote educational equity of access to inclusive education and schooling for every Cambodian child. In particular, special policies and plans have been developed to further progress the educational

access of particular disadvantaged social groups of children.

And lastly, in the recent 2nd National Forum on Inclusive Education which was held in Cambodia, the Minister of Education, Youth and Sport has quoted the speech of the Prime Minister delivered on December 10th, 2013 at the occasion of the Cambodia Day for People with Disabilities by highlighting the importance to “(m)anage to register all the teachers of children with disabilities into the payroll of the Ministry of Education, Youth, and Sport (and) (d)ocument the experience of teaching person with disabilities to ensure the sustainability of the program.” (MOEYS, 2013)

Administrative frameworks

In the Primary Education Department of the MOEYS, there is the Special Education Office (SEO) in charge of inclusive education. In the Secondary Education Department, there is the scholarship office. Also, there is the Department of Non-Formal Education (DNFE) and at the provincial and district levels, there is the Provincial Office of Education (POE) and the District Office of Education (DOE). However, there is no division or unit structure at the sub-national levels of education administration in charge of diverse groups of students.

In terms of other Ministries within the government of Cambodia other than the MOEYS in charge of affairs related to diverse populations or social groups as defined by factors associated with gender, ethnicity, disability, poverty and rural/urban, the Ministry of Women

Affairs and the Ministry of Social Affairs, Veterans, and Youth Rehabilitation (MOSAVY) work and coordinate closely with MOEYS.

In terms of administrative frameworks structured at the central government level, it can be said that there is enough administrative structure in place to manage and promote the educational concept on equity of access in schooling and education for all children including those disadvantaged or at-risk social groups.

Allocation of the national budget

In terms of the budget allocation, the government in fact dedicated funds for the scholarship programs through the Global Partnership for Education for those children with disabilities associated with vision and hearing impairments. Apart from this example, however, the only other clear instance in which the government is directing budgetary resources to addressing educational equity of access is in relation to bilingual education. Although this program has not yet reached all types of ethnic minorities, it is being expanded to cover the remaining groups.

Ultimately, allocation of the budget to ensure equity of access to education is an area where much progress is needed. Various incentive programs have been set in place for both the supply and demand sides of education and social groups, but the budget as a whole still is very small, and most of the policies in this area heavily depend on international donor aid and the

support of the local non-governmental organizations.

Concretely, document review indicated that less than one percent of the program budget of the Primary Education Department is being allocated for disability initiatives in the years 2012 and 2013. Moreover, zero percent of the program budget is allocated for bilingual education and accelerated learning for this same time period. Furthermore, in terms of the overall budget, for year 2013, the total financing for the Primary Education Department was 36, 078, 245 USD, excluding teachers' salaries and operational costs. From this total, 11, 347, 550 USD is from the government with the remaining 24, 730, 695 USD coming from development partners and non-governmental organizations. On another note, Cambodia in the recent years have shown relatively high and stable GDP growth projections, at the same time, the current funding level for education as a whole stands at 1.8% of GDP, which is the lowest in the region. In order for Cambodia to meet and achieve educational aspirations such as joining PISA assessments and economic targets, the government must act more ambitiously and aggressively make public investments in education.

7.4.2 Part two based on equity of resource inputs for quality of education in legislation, education systems and budget allocation

National Constitution and legal provision

The national constitution includes a statement that relates to the educational concept on

equity of resource inputs for quality of education for diverse groups of student from social groups defined by gender, ethnicity, disability status, income gap (poverty) and geographical location, whether rural or urban. Specifically, the constitutions states, “(t)he State shall protect and upgrade citizens’ rights to quality education at all levels and shall take necessary steps for quality education to reach all citizens.” (Kingdom of Cambodia, 1993, Article 65). Moreover, the Education Law includes the following language, “(t)he State shall promote the quality of education to satisfy the basic education and professional needs for the careers of the learners to better improve their capacity and to enable the learners to efficiently participate in the development of the country.” (MOEYS, 2007, Article 21)

Also, the Law on the Protection and the Promotion of the Rights of Persons with Disabilities was drafted in 1996 by MOSAVY, in cooperation with the Cambodian Disabled People’s Organization (CDPO) and the Disability Action Council (DAC). (MOEYS, 2009) This law was adopted by the Cambodian National Assembly on May 29th 2009, and the goal of this law is to protect and promote the rights of persons with disabilities within the Kingdom of Cambodia. In Article 28 of this Law on the Protection and the Promotion of the Rights of Persons with Disabilities states;

The State shall develop policies and national strategies for the education of pupils and students and disabilities such as promoting inclusive education for pupils and students

with disabilities to the utmost extent possible; establishing special classes to respond to the needs of pupils and students with disabilities. (MOEYS, 2009)

Furthermore, Article 29 of this document then states;

The Ministry in charge of education shall develop programmes for educational establishments to provide accessible facilities for pupils and students with disabilities such as buildings, classrooms and study places, sign language and Braille, educational techniques and pedagogy corresponding to the types of disabilities, study materials or other equipment to assist pupils and students with disabilities. Training and teaching materials for teachers or professors and others corresponding to the actual needs of each pupil and student with disabilities. (MOEYS, 2009)

The overarching point here is that, according to the number of important texts, Cambodia has indicated its high level of policy when it comes to the educational concept on equity of resource inputs for quality education for marginalized social groups.

National policies and plans

In terms of national policies and plans in Cambodia, the educational concept on equity of resource inputs has been targeted through various policies and plans, such as the Child Friendly School policy as well as the newly developed teacher training manuals on inclusive education for children with disabilities in 2012. For instance, the MOEYS is determined to address the issue of improving the quality of education for ethnic minority areas which is an area where much more attention is needed. Those measures include ones to ensure that more experienced and trained teachers are posted to schools in those areas as well as providing an adequate supply of basic education materials and textbooks. On the other hand, in ethnic minority areas, the critical issue of language used in the curriculum and textbooks needs to be considered carefully for sustained quality education.

As for present measures taken by the MOEYS, development of textbooks and curriculum in Khmer scripts as well as in their national language are promoted to encourage learning of both the national language and their own ethnic languages which is based on a bilingual education program. In addition, a new life skills program is being introduced in the Khmer language based on the social and cultural traditions of selected minority groups, so as to maintain the objective of ensuring curriculum relevance for ethnic minority groups and bilingualism at the same time.

Through these few examples, it can be inferred that the government of Cambodia has

taken some meaningful action related to adopting policies and plans to facilitate the development of better quality education for all children in the country. That being said, future research should further investigate whether these similar actions are being financed with the government's funding or with funding provided by other actors, and with what implications.

Administrative framework

Administratively, although the Special Education Office and the Scholarship Office which are both located at the central government level receive funds annually to perform their planned activities, there are no structures at the sub-national level to make progress in this area for implementation at provincial and district levels. As previously stated in the sub-section, the Ministry of Women Affairs and the Ministry of Social Affairs (MOSAVY) are two responsible ministries other than the MOEYS in charge of the educational concept on equity of resource inputs for quality of education for diverse social groups or populations defined by gender, ethnicity, disability status, income level (poverty) and geographical location, whether rural or urban. Further research should be conducted not only to investigate the sub-national structures which should be employed by these different ministries but also assess the lessons that could be learned from the ministries for MOEYS.

Allocation of the budget

The budget is allocated based on the previous year's allocations; the problem, currently, seems to be that the current resources do not cover the whole scope of needs of those target social groups as defined by their gender, ethnicity, disability, poverty or income level and geographical location either rural/urban. Thus, although it can be said that the government and international donors favor allocation of the budget to ensure access to schooling for individuals coming from socially disadvantaged groups, when it comes to ensuring their quality of education in terms of the educational concept on equity of resource inputs, this is not yet an area where neither the government or donors direct attention.

7.4.3 Part three based on equity of learning outcomes for quality of education in legislation, education systems and budget allocation

For this particular area, this research study shows that hardly any policy work has been done. Although there are National Assessment Tests on mathematics and the Khmer language are conducted regularly for the grades three, six and nine, there are no set initiatives yet to manage and monitor the progress of student learning outcomes for the socially disadvantaged groups. Furthermore, the Special Education Office in charge of inclusive education for disability groups, ethnic minorities and those children in need of accelerated learning does not manage manage the relevant data directly, which makes it difficult to assess the performance and growth or decline in performance of these students from various marginalized social groups.

The School Quality Assurance Department was only established in the recent years where the National Assessment Office and School Quality Assurance Office are structured within the current organigram of the MOEYS. As such, it can be said that the capacities of the ministry are not yet developed to meet this particular educational concept on equity of learning outcomes for quality of education for the social groups in neither legislation, education systems and budget allocation.

With regard to national polices in relation to the current implemented Education Sector Plan (ESP) 2014-2018, the baseline values which are presented in this particular document are primarily focused on access (enrollment rates) and efficiency (transition and drop-out rates) at various levels of education. However, there are no available baseline values highlighting the dimension on learning outcomes and outputs. Therefore, one of the critical issues which needs to be urgently addressed and improved is the learning outcome indicators to measure learning achievements across all the five sub-sectors in the ESP for strategical and operational plans.

Another aspect within the documen to the ESP is to connect the Core Breakthrough Indicators (CBI) with the policy (Area two) on “Improving quality and efficiency in education service”. (MOEYS, 2014, p.4) This is to ensure that learning achievement measures are incorporated in the learning outcome indicators more explicitly and that the assessment systems currently in place for the grades three, six and nine should enable the MOEYS in charge of inclusive education to monitor the learning outcomes directly of those social groups at-risk.

Also in relation to the data system managed by the Education Management Information System (EMIS) in Cambodia, the problem of data inconsistencies existing between EMIS and the ESP needs to be improved and resolved at the soonest. Going forward, such inconsistencies in data address further challenges to collecting reliable and quality data within EMIS and ESP, otherwise it makes it extremely challenging for the country to plan and manage baselines for targets and indicators throughout the monitoring mechanism as well.

7.4.4 Part four based on on inclusion (diversity) for quality of education in legislation, education systems and budget allocation

Although inclusive education is the main principle in which education is being put forward by the government of Cambodia, thorough review of data sources revealed that there are no statements related to how schools and/or classrooms should be separated according to each diverse groups of students from social groups defined by their gender, ethnicity, disability status, income level and geographical location. That is to say, in neither the constitution nor in the laws, policies, plans and administrative structures of the government did this part of the educational concept find mention of how groups should be treated in either special, integrated or inclusive educational settings.

Similarly, in terms of the budget, there is also no allocation specifically for the development of schools and/or classrooms only for disadvantaged groups defined by gender, ethnicity, disability status, income level and geographical location. However, in line with the

concept of integrated education, the government has in fact allocated some of the budget for the development of schools and/or classrooms so as to promote equity in education (equal opportunity) where children with special needs are physically integrated into the same school as those with children without special needs, but are in separate classrooms with special education. In addition, and in line with the concept of inclusive education, there is also some government budget allocation specifically for the development of schools and/or classrooms that should incorporate diverse groups so as to promote equity in education (equal opportunity) and also to promote diversity and quality of education for all children, both for those with and without special education needs (inclusive education). The takeaway here is that Cambodia is trying, at least to some extent, to create educational equity based on inclusion (diversity), meaning that it is trying to either integrate or include both children with and without special education needs into one classroom setting.

7.5 Conclusion

Concluding this particular part of the chapter of this dissertation, firstly, in terms of policy for the educational equity concept of access is assured for all social groups defined by gender, ethnicity, disability status, income level and geographical location. The policy is there for various socially disadvantaged groups to ensure access of education and schooling as an opportunity for all children of Cambodia. However, as it moves from equity in access to equity in inputs, outputs and outcomes, it is well observed that educational equity is not assured for all

social groups. Equity concepts related to process (inputs) and internal results (outputs/outcomes) are not reflected in Cambodia's current policy. As for policy related to inclusion (diversity) and inclusive education, equity is also limited, this time to social groups defined by their disability status and ethnicity (or, more specifically, their first language). Overall, then, it can be seen that policy related to educational equity on inclusion (diversity) and inclusive education are not targeting all social groups of disadvantaged children.

Thus, it seems difficult for the government of Cambodia, at this point, to maintain a focus on all four educational concepts on equity and inclusion concurrently. One reason for this is because the government places the highest priority on the equity concept of access, and is not currently prioritizing equity of inputs, outputs/outcomes and inclusion (diversity) and inclusive education. This is, in turn, a result of issues related to both the budget and to sensitivity on the part of the government of Cambodia. In terms of the budget, because the government of Cambodia considers access the most important for all vulnerable social groups, it has not yet shifted its resources to other aspects of equity. This is closely related to, or is perhaps a consequence of the issue of "sensitivity," meaning that, in this context of ongoing post-war recovery, the government of Cambodia has consciously decided that the realization of various educational equity concepts for each and every social group is not high on its agenda, given the situation of the country and the fact that it has many other issues and challenges to tackle other than the socially disadvantaged groups. In the context of competing demands for resources, the

issue of inclusive education for all social groups is still an emerging topic.

Going forward, one issue to address is the problem of the communication at and between the central and the local levels, including the provincial offices of education and other actors from both the supply and demand sides of education. By communication problems, reference is made, for instance, to the fact that, while the central government understands educational equity concepts in certain ways, as the levels change from the central level to the local level, there are obstacles to the dissemination of information about educational equity concepts. Thus, not only are there challenges when it comes to communicating information, but there will be additional challenges related to ensuring that all actors arrive at the same understanding of the various forms of educational equity concepts, in particular to that of inclusion (diversity). These challenges will need to be addressed in the future in order to make progress related to equity in education for all social groups.

In terms of recommendations which could be made for the government of Cambodia, the following are suggested. First, and most basically, there is a need to increase budget for education for children from various social groups. Second, the data especially for children with disabilities should be published through the EMIS with clear disaggregation by age, type and severity. Third, in addition to hiring additional staff and specialists to work with various marginalized social groups, the government should also invest in training and degree programs for these staff. Fourth, in terms of the issue of miscommunication between the central and

provincial and district levels, more training should be conducted for provincial and district offices of education to advocate the concept of inclusive education, and this should be accompanied by adequate dissemination of information. Fifth, and lastly, the government should identify and adapt a replicable model for serving students from various marginalized social groups. In the future, by increasing funding, enhancing capacity, improving data collection, strengthening communication, and revising policy, the government would be able to make great strides in its provision of services and in the realization of educational equity for all marginalized groups.

Chapter 8 Discussion and Reflections on Findings and Concluding Remarks

In this last chapter of the dissertation, it will discuss and elaborate further on the findings as gathered in chapters five, six and seven. Furthermore, the author's reflections on the findings will also attempt to apply academic theories and make implications on some of the academic contributions that this research study in the dissertation has aimed to address in the field of educational development, specifically concerning educational equity and inclusive education. Not solely limited to academic contributions but in addition, policy and practical implications will also be made explicit.

8.1 Summary of Data Analysis

Firstly, based on policy analysis conducted using sources including the EFA 2000 Assessment Reports and the EFA National Plans of Action, the following main points have been revealed. In terms of the degree in which the notions of inclusion and embracing diversity are recognized in relation to groups defined by their special education needs, the two notions are not fully reflected in policy statements as addressed in the principles of the 1994 Salamanca Statement. In other words, although inclusion (diversity) and inclusive education in principle encompasses all those with special education needs, majority of policy documents mostly recognized disabilities as the vulnerable group. In addition to the social group defined by disability, other groups defined by social factors such as gender, ethnicity, rurality and poverty

were also identified as priority categories with reference to the discussion on who exactly are labeled as disadvantaged or at-risk groups.

In relation to what has been revealed through academic literature review on demographic variables that are often used to characterize or cluster persons into strata or groups, academic research studies which have been conducted by Haug (1977), Secada (1989), Green (1983), Davis and McCaul (1997) and Kelly (1997) illustrate similarities in terms of the definition of at-risk groups in comparison to the author's qualitative analysis of policy documents as explained in chapter five. Hence, what has been revealed through policy analysis of sources coming from the EFA 2000 Assessment Reports and EFA National Plans of Action demonstrate similar findings as that from what is also revealed through academic literature on demographic characteristics on social strata of groups.

Secondly, moving on to summarize policy analysis conducted through the use of sources on the 2008 National Reports of Education according to various external factors related to economy, education and legislative status, several major findings were discovered. First of all, in relation to the impact of various factors affecting the level of educational equity concepts which are recognized according to different social groups, one major finding was made very clear. That is, from both the economic and educational perspectives, representation of patterns one through four of all four different educational equity concepts is far more advanced in high income countries as well as those countries with a higher level of net enrollment rate in primary

education. In other words, those countries with higher levels of income and education, not only is policy recognized for each educational equity concept but additionally, there is administrative framework and also budget allocated to that specific educational equity concept in comparison to other lower income countries and those countries with lower net enrollment rates in primary education.

On the other hand, comparing the four different educational equity concepts amongst different income and net education rate levels, the first perspective on equity of access in education is relatively high prioritized in policies of all countries with more number of patterns two, three and four. While in general, equity of resource inputs and learning outcomes are not well highlighted in policies of all countries, more particularly with learning outcomes for quality of education. And as for the perspective on inclusion (diversity), this particular new concept on inclusive education as introduced in the Salamanca Statement in 1994 is not a notion that is noticeably debated in country policies except for the social group defined by disability. To continue further, comparing the findings revealed from the perspectives of different strata of social groups, it has been found that major differences exist between the social group on disability and other social groups defined by gender, ethnicity, poverty and rurality. In other words, for the group defined by disability, there are more patterns two, three and four identified for all the educational equity concepts. However, for the groups defined by gender, ethnicity, poverty and geographical location, majority of country policies is represented by pattern one,

meaning no policy recognized for each of the educational equity concepts and less number of patterns two, three and four, meaning that the policy trend is completely intended in the opposite direction as to that of the disability group.

And thirdly, when investigation was carried out at the national local context level in Cambodia, similar trends have been discovered to that of the trends revealed at the international context level for policy. That is, in the context of Cambodia, through analysis undertaken with the use of policy documents collected in the field totaling 130 sources, policy is evidently existent for various socially disadvantaged groups to ensure the access of education and schooling as an opportunity for all children in Cambodia. However, it was found that as the educational equity concepts change from access to inputs, outputs and outcomes, the last three educational equity concepts are not assured for all the social groups. To be more detailed, ensuring access or opportunity for schooling are targeted only for the groups as defined by disability, ethnicity and those children needing accelerated learning. Furthermore, in terms of the Cambodian context, as the educational equity concept change from process (inputs) to internal results (outputs/outcomes) and inclusion (diversity) and inclusive education, equity on these aspects do not target social groups other than ones defined by gender, disability and ethnicity. As a matter of fact, no groups are being targeted for internal results on outputs and outcomes. To put it in other words, much fewer social groups are being targeted within the national local context of Cambodia, signifying that there is less policy for a diverse spectrum

of special education needs in the current policy framework of the government of Cambodia.

8.2 Key Findings in relation to the Research Questions

In this particular research study of the dissertation, four sets of research questions have been raised concerning policy on educational equity, inclusion (diversity) and inclusive education. First of all, for whom is there policy on equity of education worldwide and also through the eyes of the national local context in Cambodia. Or in other words, concerning equity of education measured at the international and national policy levels, who are the target groups of different socially excluded children in terms of gender, ethnicity, disability, poverty and geographical location, either rural or urban. In response to this particular research question, there are two main findings. Firstly, it can be said that the educational equity concept in ensuring “access” as a process of schooling is the only equity concept which is being assured for all social groups including ones defined by gender, ethnicity, disability, poverty and rural/urban or geographical location.

However, when talking about other educational equity concepts related to inputs, outputs and outcomes, as well as inclusion (diversity) and inclusive education, not all social groups are equally recognized. In other words, huge disparity is existent in how educational equity concepts are identified between the social group defined by disability and other groups defined by gender, ethnicity, poverty and geographical location. That is, equity of all four educational concepts is much more assured for the social group on disability, but this is not the case for

other social groups. And moreover, this trend is common for both policies investigated at the international level and also those policies which have been collected at the national local level and which connects more to what is happening on the grounds at the implementation level. In other words, policy is existent for various socially disadvantaged groups to ensure the access of education and schooling as an opportunity for all children in the Cambodian context as well.

The next research question and what are the different target patterns observed for those social groups across various kinds of educational equity concepts have been answered in the following ways. Firstly, advanced patterns referring to patterns three and four meaning not only is there recognition of policy but also legal and budgetary frameworks have been implemented at the policy level for relatively all the social groups defined by gender, ethnicity, disability, poverty and rural/urban on the educational equity concept of access to education. However, the progress in the context of policies according to target patterns becomes less advanced or latent as the educational equity concepts shift from access to quality and to inclusive education for all the social groups. And moreover, the same trend in the change of target patterns of educational equity concepts apply for social groups other than the group defined by disability. That is, when we compare the social group of disability to other social groups, there is less room for groups defined by gender, ethnicity, poverty and rural/urban to be covered by educational equity concepts for target patterns two, three and four. However in terms of disability, there is fairly a balanced distribution of target patterns including those of patterns

three and four demonstrating a clear distinction between disability and other social strata of groups.

Additionally, concerning the perspective of inclusion (diversity), and what are the differences/gaps observed between disability and other socially excluded groups of children defined by gender, ethnicity, poverty and rural/urban. The fourth dimension of educational equity concept on inclusion (diversity) and inclusive education as previously stated plays a very prominent role in this research study as it is a new added dimension of quality education or the internal results of the educational system. In contrast to the outputs and outcomes of the quality of education, this new added dimension places significance on skills more relatively concerned with non-cognitive skills and is also based on the assumption that equity should be provided to promote and embrace the notion of inclusion (diversity) in all classrooms for all learners, those with and without special education needs with the ultimate goal of improving the quality of education for all learners through inclusive education. Based on this assumption and the research framework of this study, one of the major findings revealed in terms of inclusion (diversity) for targeted social groups were as follows. For instance, discussion based on special education, integrated education and inclusive education was evident for the social group on disability with debates on whether education should be provided in the form of special, integrated or inclusive education for this social group defined by disability. Furthermore, worldwide policies have debated this issue with policies intended or targeted towards inclusive

education, but at the same time, there were also many policies discussing this matter in terms of special and integrated education suggesting that inclusive education is not the type of education being discussed at the international policy level. On the other hand, discussions surrounding inclusion (diversity) and inclusive education for social groups defined by gender, ethnicity, poverty and rurality were not debated as much as the social group on disability. For instance, the type of education for gender or poverty was not discussed at all in policy documents which perhaps offers room for improvements in the pilot-SABER rubric on equity and inclusion since discussions on such an issue may have not been relevant for these two social groups in the first place. At the same time, the author also takes into account that issues on inclusion (diversity) and inclusive education are still key factors for both groups defined by gender and poverty, requiring more room for intended policy debates in the field of educational development. Whereas for social groups defined by ethnicity and geographical location, much discussion was centered upon special education and integrated education with hardly any debate on the possibility of providing inclusive education for these two social groups. Such key findings suggest the fact that for social groups defined by ethnicity and rurality, inclusive education is not the type of education intended in worldwide policies. Moreover with the national local context of Cambodia, similar findings were also revealed in terms of the difference between the social groups defined by disability and ethnicity. In the Cambodian context, intended policies were mainly targeted for the social groups on disability, ethnicity and those children needing

accelerated learning. In terms of social factors related to gender, poverty and geographical location, no independent or individual policies have been developed thus far on the form of education to be provided within the government policy of Cambodia. However, factors related to poverty and geographical location are aspects of which both of them have been considered within the context of disability, ethnicity and those children needing accelerated learning together as multiple disadvantages. And going back to the social group on disability and ethnicity, discussions surrounding inclusive education remain a big challenge, especially those children from ethnic minorities and thus, intended Cambodian policies are still limited to special and integrated types of education but interestingly enough, those types of education are named as inclusive education. As for children with disabilities, inclusive education is the intended policy which is being debated within the country policy of Cambodia. However, remarks must also be made that although inclusive education is ideally discussed in diverse policy documents of Cambodia as that of what is stated in the principles of the 1994 Salamanca Statement, numerous issues remain unclear and ambiguous as to how such inclusive education can be implemented, considering the current educational situation of the country. For instance, although policy and administrative frameworks are in place to promote the implementation of inclusive education as intended in numerous policy documents, one cannot deny the fact that the allocation of the budget even on minimal standards does not seem to be incorporated in the policy documents, which questions the feasibility of putting inclusive education into practice as

intended in policies. There are huge obvious disparities noticed between the different developing target patterns of the pilot-SABER rubric on equity and inclusion which depicts problematic aspects of policy within the government of Cambodia.

And next, the research question on how is policy for the targeted social groups as in the intended target patterns affected by which external factors can be responded by the main findings as follows. First of all, at the international policy level, it was clear and evident that external factors related to economic, educational and legislative dimensions had a relatively huge impact in the ways in which worldwide country policies recognized educational equity concepts in terms of its development stages as reflected in different target patterns for each of the social groups. To be more concrete, it was found that economic and educational status of countries worldwide had a large impact on the development of policies and the more advanced countries are in their levels of income, intended policies were also more advanced with many countries having budget allocation for that specific educational equity concept and the targeted social group. Whereas for countries with lower levels of income, it also became very evident and clear that educational equity concepts were recognized as intended policies of numerous countries, yet no further progress in terms of administrative framework or budget allocation were identified in their policies. And similarly, with that of the primary education level measured by the net enrollment rate, it became also very explicit that trends followed the same patterns as with that of the income status. Needless to say, the educational status of countries

are closely linked to the income levels of countries, thus it is obvious that similar trends were observed between the two impact factors. In summary, countries with higher levels of net enrollment rates of primary education recognized more educational equity concepts with much more progress in patterns associated with existence of policies, administrative framework and budgetary allocation. Furthermore, it can be said that for those countries worldwide with lower levels of net enrollment rate, educational equity on access to education was the only educational equity concept which was prioritized in contrast to other educational equity concepts on resource inputs, outputs and outcomes as well as inclusion (diversity) and inclusive education. This suggests that those countries with lower levels of net enrollment rate for primary education identifies the educational equity concept on access to education as of their primary concern and priority, however with regard to other educational equity concepts, although certain countries do recognize them as one of their national policies, administrative and legislative frameworks in addition to its budgetary allocation are not intended in policies. The reasons as to why such trends are apparent in international and national intended policies will be explored a bit later in this chapter. And prior to investigating the last research question, let us summarize the situation through the lens of the national local context in Cambodia. In responding to the research question on how is the current situation of policy affected by which external factors, the author has built upon two major points related to the question of sensitivity and the problem of budget. These points have been concluded based on conducted qualitative interviews with policy

makers and to be more explicit, the two aspects on sensitivity and budget are much related to external factors concerning levels of economy and education which were just seen as major impact factors on the development of intended policies worldwide.

And lastly, the fourth research question concerns and why are there disparities existent in policy within different educational equity concepts related to access and quality of education as well as within different social groups between the international and national levels. The question on why disparities are observed in intended policies worldwide and also at the national local context is the key point of this research study and it is extremely critical to investigate the background reasons as to why the revealed findings from this research study demonstrate disparities across various dimensions. It will also thoroughly cover the aspects on why or the reasons to these existing disparities and in the next upcoming section, it will attempt to apply academic theories from two different approaches to analyze and explain those reasons. Prior to this section, it will aim to respond to this last research question.

First of all, in response to why are there disparities existent in policy within different educational equity concepts at the international level, this research question can be partially answered by explaining that educational equity concept on access to education is highly prioritized in all countries worldwide regardless of economic, educational and legislative factors. However, the reasons as to why huge disparities exist between educational access and quality of education including inclusion (diversity) and inclusive education are largely due to

levels of income and the educational status. These two main factors have an impact on the difference between how countries worldwide are capable of attaining advanced levels of target patterns in policy development even at the intended policy level. On another note, it can also be explained that for those countries worldwide with lower levels of income and educational status, they are only capable of trying to achieve the educational equity concept on access to education with the majority of policies trying at least to achieve administrative framework and in some cases, with the allocation of the budget. In other words, it can well be depicted that lower income countries are facing the situation of having to prioritize the educational equity concept on access to education leaving no room to reflect upon other educational equity concepts on quality of education, especially learning outputs and outcomes and this is largely due to the aspect on budgetary challenges which also links to the problem of sensitivity.

And attaching this research question to the national local context level in Cambodia, similar reasons can be used to explain why disparities are existent within the four educational equity concepts. In other words, firstly due to budgetary constraints, policy makers of the government of Cambodia have voiced out limitations in ways that they can recognize or identify all educational equity concepts concurrently and as a result, policy makers are faced with the situation of the need to prioritize educational equity concepts and thus, educational access becomes the top priority for the country. It remains difficult to maintain all four educational equity concepts of access, inputs, outputs, outcomes and inclusive education to the equivalent

level concurrently. In other words, policy for the government of Cambodia targets disability, ethnicity and children in need of accelerated learning as its core focus. In terms of the budget, because the government of Cambodia considers access to education and schooling the most important for all social groups, it does not allow room to give thoughts to other educational equity aspects. In addition, there is the question of sensitivity as touched upon in other parts of the section in this chapter which is related to budgetary obstacles as well. The country of Cambodia is still amidst the process of recovering from the turmoil of war and on the part of the government, it does not or cannot consider all educational equity concepts for each and every social group as priority issues. Policy makers have also voiced out that for the current situation of Cambodia, it has other challenges that the country needs to concentrate on and the issue of inclusive education including all social groups defined by gender, ethnicity, disability, poverty and rurality is still in its initial stages of development or an emerging topic for consideration on the part of the government of Cambodia. The following Figure 8-1 illustrates visually what has been explained throughout this section of this chapter in attempting to answer four research questions of this research study.

Figure 8-1: Disparities observed in policy on four educational equity concepts at the international and national levels

Policy	Access	Inputs	Outputs/ Outcomes	Inclusion (diversity) and Inclusive Education
International Level	Gender, Ethnicity, Disability, Poverty, Rural/Urban	Gender, Disability, Poverty	Gender	Disability
Cambodia (National Level)	Disability, Ethnicity, Accelerated Learning, Gender, Poverty, Rural/Urban	Gender, Disability,	None	Disability, Ethnicity

Source: created by the author based on research study findings

8.3 Challenging and Applying Academic Theories from Two Approaches to Key Findings

8.3.1 The theory of justice through the lens of allocative justice

Now that the four research questions of this research study have been answered, it

becomes critical and also crucial to look at the findings through the lens of academic theories which have been reviewed in chapter two of this dissertation. In particular, academic theories in relation to the theory of justice but more specifically, the allocative justice as introduced by Rawls (1972) as well as the individual and the social models of disability will be applied with the attempt to analyze how findings of this research study can be well explained from these two academic approaches.

Through investigation on the reasons why disparities are existent in policy at the international and national levels within different educational equity concepts and also between different social groups, numerous reasons associated with external factors on economic status, educational status and legislative status which are also connected to budgetary challenges and the aspect on sensitivity have been raised in the previous section of this particular chapter. First of all, let us review briefly the principle as raised by Rawls (1972) in his theory of allocative justice.

(A)llocative justice applies when a given collection of goods is to be divided among definite individuals with known desires and needs. The collection to be allotted is not the product of these individuals, nor do they stand in any existing cooperative relations. Since there are no prior claims on the things to be distributed, it is natural to share them out according to desires and needs, or even to maximize the net balance of satisfaction.

Justice becomes a kind of efficiency, unless equality is preferred. Suitably generalized, the allocative conception leads to the classical utilitarian view. For as we have seen, this doctrine assimilates justice to the benevolence of the impartial spectator and the latter in turn to the most efficient design of institutions to promote the greatest balance of satisfaction... Thus given existing desires and preferences, and the developments into the future which they allow, the statesman's aim is to set up those social schemes that will best approximate an already specified goal. (Rawls, 1971, p. 77)

8.3.2 Applying the theory of allocative justice in relation to budget and sensitivity

Disparities within policy on equity and inclusion across educational concepts

As it can be observed, this principle of allocative justice can be applied to explain the background reasons of budgetary constraints and the dimension on sensitivity which illustrate the reasons why huge disparities are existent in intended policies in terms of educational equity concepts both at international and national levels. To explain more in detail, the important aspect on sensitivity is closely linked to the points as raised by Rawls (1971) stating that “allocative justice applies when a given collection of goods is to be divided among definite individuals with known desires and needs.” (p.77) In other words, the reason why it remains difficult to maintain all four educational equity concepts in a concurrent manner can be explained by using the principle of allocative justice. For those countries with lower levels of

income and also by taking the case study of Cambodia which is a country still facing numerous obstacles in terms of recovery from turmoil, the key issue on sensitivity pointing out areas where priority must be emphasized on one concept was the aspect on educational equity concept on access to education. The keywords on “sensitivity” and “priority” here suggest to us that in applying the allocative justice of Rawls, these words can be replaced by the words of Rawls on “desires and needs”. Hence, it can be said that considering the academic theory of allocative justice, the four educational equity concepts referring to “a given collection of goods” by Rawls should not be distributed on equal standards considering the specific “desires and needs” of people in order for justice to promote a kind of efficiency or satisfaction. Or, in other words, considering the context of Cambodia faced with all kinds of educational problems on the part of the government and especially those involved in policy making, justice or the state of equity is currently maintained by giving priority to the educational dimension on access to education at the level of policy. This is because the reasons on budgetary constraints and sensitivity naturally evokes “desires and needs” on the part of policy makers of the government of Cambodia to firstly strengthen access of education and in such a way, educational equity and justice is maintained on the part of policy makers. Hence, from the perspective of policy makers developing intended policies of countries including the case of Cambodia, the principle of allocative justice explains the reasons why it is actually not “desired or needed” to maintain the four educational equity concepts to the same level concurrently given the current national

context, but moreover, prioritization of one educational equity concept is considered equal, just and also the most efficient way to go forward with policy implementation on the part of policy makers.

However, it must also be well noted that the way in which this principle of allocative justice as stated by Rawls in terms of “desires and need” to promote the desired “efficiency” in this case of policy is based solely on the perspectives of policy makers responsible to develop intended policies. Thus, one can argue that the current ways in which policy is developed may not be equal and just from the perspectives of actors in demand of various educational equity concepts. To be more explicit, the “desires and needs” as explained in the allocative justice of Rawls may not be the same “desires and needs” of stakeholders involved in the demand sides of education and hence, equity and justice in education may not be attained, lacking efficiency from the perspectives of the demand sides of education. As a result, it can be stated that current developed policies worldwide and also at the national local context of Cambodia assures equity and justice on the part of policy makers, yet it also directly points out insufficient consideration given towards four educational equity concepts on the part of targeted social groups as defined by gender, ethnicity, disability, poverty and rural/urban location.

Disparities within policy on equity and inclusion across social groups

And next, in terms of the disparities observed between different social groups, an evident

gap was revealed between the group defined by disability and other social groups defined by gender, ethnicity, poverty and geographical location both in terms of educational equity concepts and the targeted patterns assessed through the pilot-SABER rubric on equity and inclusion. The key findings observed here once again can be explained using the principle of allocative justice of Rawls by explaining that for policy makers, given the reasons of budget and sensitivity, their “desires and needs” are focused more on the social group defined by disability rather than other social groups defined by gender, ethnicity, poverty and rural and urban location. The reason why the social group on disability is considered as the “desire and need” for policy makers both at the international and national levels most probably is because of the impact of the educational equity concepts on inclusion (diversity) and inclusive education. Although inclusion (diversity) and inclusive education in principle should view all special education needs fairly without any specifications, yet it can be considered that since inclusive education derives its history from special education for those with disabilities, the long established history of special education targeting solely the disabled still remains strong in this field of inclusive education. Thus, analysis of numerous policies reflects this characteristic by highlighting or placing a core focus on those with disabilities when considering educational equity concepts on inclusion in terms of access and quality of education. Moreover, it was also revealed that the educational equity concept on inclusion (diversity) and inclusive education was highly debated amongst the social group defined by disability. This also reflects the fact that in worldwide and national context

policies, inclusive education is still a topic of discussion geared towards disabilities only.

8.3.3 Applying the theories of individual and social models of disability

Disparities within policy on equity and inclusion across educational concepts

Moving on to discuss about how the theories of the individual and social models of disability applies to the key findings analyzed through this research study, several implications can be made. First of all, in relation to how the educational equity concept on access to education is highly prioritized in majority of worldwide and national context local policies, one can depict the situation of how both the individual and social models of disability are applied to enhance education and schooling for those with various special education needs. In many cases, access to education and schooling is being promoted in policies through the individual model by referring to how access to inclusive educational settings can be realized for children with disabilities by implementing special education schools so that children with disabilities can learn through these special schools first, and then transfer to the mainstream schools later on in their schooling years after they have learned to adapt to the mainstream schools. At the same time, many policies including ones gathered at the national local context level in Cambodia also intend to insist on the social model of disability by referring to child friendly school policies which promote changes and transformation of the school environment to enhance schooling opportunities for those children with special education needs.

On the other hand, one cannot deny the fact that in terms of the other three educational equity concepts related to quality of education on inputs, outputs, outcomes and inclusive education, the social model of disability is not applied to enhance internal results of the education system for social groups defined by their respective ascriptive factors. In other words, intended policies are not in the stage of adopting the social model of disability and indirectly implies the individual model of disability by highlighting the fact that educational equity concepts on inputs and outputs on quality of education are not the target of policies and it is upto the individual to be able to adapt to the current provided education system. This of course closely links to the reasons stated earlier on budget and sensitivity, however, policies do not accurately reflect the change in perception of models of disability from the individual to the social model as addressed in academic literature.

Disparities within policy on equity and inclusion across social groups

And lastly, one can also mention about the implication of the key findings related to the difference in social groups on the particular aspect about inclusion (diversity) and inclusive education. That is, in this research study, it was revealed that it was mostly the social group defined by disability in which discussions were taking place on the type of education that should be provided whether in the form of special education, integrated education or inclusive education. And to continue, for the social group defined by disability, discussions were mostly

occurring either in the form of integrated education and inclusive education with a favor in the former type of education. With this key finding in mind, it can be implied that once again, the social model of disability is not the focus of debate in worldwide policies. This is because given the fact that there were many policies intended to choose the integrated type of education, it is clearly obvious that the individual model of disability is still the model intended for practice in policies. This may also be one of the reasons why it explains the difficulty for countries to maintain all four educational equity concepts together at once. To put it in other words, the “desires and needs” of policies are only reflected through the eyes of policy makers instead of the targeted social groups. Moreover, even if educational equity concepts are partially assured for the those with disabilities, in terms of inclusion (diversity) and inclusive education, the principle of allocative justice through the perspective of the disabled is not accurately reflected in intended policy documents.

From a very general perspective, it can be well concluded that educational equity and inclusion with the additional educational concept on inclusive education represents a fundamental challenge to existing academic theories within the field of sociology of education. Education is seen as fundamental role which is directly connected to an inclusive society. As it is stated by Barton (1998), “the notion of inclusivity is a radical one in that it places the welfare of *all* citizens at the centre of consideration.” (p.84)

8.4 Policy Implications and Concluding Remarks

In this particular final section of this concluding chapter, it will attempt to make several policy implications in accordance to what has been stated in previous sections of this chapter, specifically with reference to academic theories applied to the key findings of this research study.

First of all, it can be clearly noted that key findings observed at the level of policy in terms of disparities within policy on educational equity and inclusion (diversity) across international and national contexts, policies seem to reflect only one-sided views. To be more specific, the fact that equity across different educational concepts and social groups considered as disadvantaged or at-risk group in the form of intended target patterns cannot be attained or maintained concurrently addresses two questions. Firstly, the question on whether there is a need to attain and maintain equity at all levels and dimensions is raised. By applying the principle of allocative justice of Rawls, this question can be answered in the following way. That is, if the allocation of goods suitably meets the “desires and needs” of that person or group, it is considered equal, fair and just, thus in such a case, equity in allocative justice is achieved. With due consideration to this principle, this research study concludes that it is not necessarily the “desires and needs” to attain and maintain equity at all levels and dimensions to the same level. Therefore, equity, fairness and justice is achieved in the current intended policies across international and national levels.

However, this study also illustrates the fact that those “desires and needs” only reflect the

perspectives of policy makers responsible for developing policies and those “desires and needs” are largely influenced by external factors associated with economic, educational, legislative and social ones or challenges described as budgetary and sensitivity. Hence, it is worthwhile to lay reflections on whether the “desires and needs” as addressed in the principle of allocative justice by Rawls encompasses and offers consideration towards such influential external factors. On the other hand, it can be argued that those “desires and needs” are judged on the basis of enhancing “efficiency” and therefore, the current policies as developed by policy makers can be considered equal and just since the external factors on budget and sensitivity brings policy makers to decide on prioritization of educational equity concepts and social groups as well as target patterns to enhance efficiency of budget usage and sensitization for better educational development of countries.

Secondly, the question of maintaining the same level of equity across all educational equity concepts and social groups is also largely dependent on the perspectives of target social groups as well as all those stakeholders involved in the demand side of education apart from the policy makers from the supply side of education. With this question in mind, it can be concluded that the “desires and needs” with the purpose of enhancing “efficiency” through the perspectives of actors from the demand side of education are not properly reflected in current intended policies. Hence, the current existing policies across international and national levels cannot be fully considered as equal, just and fair from the eyes of demand side actors and

therefore, the key findings as revealed from this research study on the disparities within policy requires accurate reflections of all stakeholders involved in both the supply and demand sides of education. Only then, can it be stated that the question of equity, fairness and justice is attained or maintained at the policy level. In other words, it can also be concluded that one of the reasons why disparities within policy on educational equity and inclusion (diversity) across international and national levels are existent is due to the fact that even at the beginning stages of policy development, intentions are not proper reflections of the “desires and needs” of each and every stakeholder involved in both supply and demand sides of education. This aspect may also be addressed as an inhibiting factor working in between the levels of policy and policy implementation as intended policies often the case do not work as intended when it gets to the policy implementation level.

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²³ EFA 2000 Assessment Reports and EFA National Plans of Action are listed on p. 274

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EFA 2000 Assessment Reports and EFA National Plans of Action

EESDP Ethiopia

EFA 2000 Assessment Bhutan

EFA 2000 Assessment Botswana

EFA 2000 Assessment Guinea

EFA 2000 Assessment Malawi

EFA 2000 Assessment Mozambique

EFA 2000 Assessment Nepal

EFA 2000 Assessment Niger

EFA 2000 Assessment Sri Lanka

EFA 2000 Assessment Uganda

EFA NPA Cameroon

EFA NPA Chad

EFA NPA China

EFA NPA Gambia

EFA NPA II Bangladesh 2003-2015

EFA NPA India

EFA NPA Kazakhstan

EFA NPA Laos, PDR 2003-2015

EFA NPA Maldives 2001

EFA NPA Myanmar

EFA NPA Namibia

EFA NPA Nepal 2003

EFA NPA Zimbabwe

Appendices

Appendix 1

List of policy reports and plans at the international level

EFA 2000 Assessment Reports and EFA National Plans of Action

Afghanistan- EFA 2000 Assessment: Country Report

Bangladesh- Education for All: National Plan of Action II

Benin- EFA 2000 Assessment: Country Report (French)

Bhutan- EFA 2000 Assessment: Country Report

Bhutan- Education for All Draft National Action Plan

Botswana- EFA 2000 Assessment: Country Report

Botswana- National Action Plan: Education for All

Burkina Faso- Plan d'action national de l'éducation pour tous (French)

Burundi- Plan d'action national de l'éducation pour tous (EPT) (French)

Cambodia- Education for All: National Plan

Cameroon- EFA 2000 Assessment: Country Report (French)

Cameroun- Plan d'action national EPT (French)

Cape Verde- EFA 2000 Assessment: Country Report (French)

Chad- EFA 2000 Assessment: Country Report (French)

Chad- Plan d'action national de l'éducation pour tous (PLAN/EPT) (French)

China- Education for All: National Plan of Action

Comoros- EFA 2000 Assessment: Country Report (French)

Congo, DR.- EFA 2000 Assessment: Country Report- (French)

Congo, DR- Plan d'Action National de l'Education Pour Tous (Projet)- Volume I I: Coûts des actions planifiées (French)

Congo, DR.- Plan d'Action National de l'Education Pour Tous (Projet)- Volume I : Cadre stratégique (French)Congo Republic- EFA 2000 Assessment: Country Report (French)

Congo Republic- Plan national d'action de l'éducation pour tous (PNA/EPT) (French)

Cote d'Ivoire- EFA 2000 Assessment: Country Report (French)

Djibouti- Plan d'action de l'éducation (2001-2005)

Democratic People's Republic of Korea- Education for All National Action Plan

Ethiopia- The Education Sector Development Program

Gabon- EFA 2000 Assessment: Country Report (French)

Gabon- Plan d'action national de l'éducation pour tous (PAN-EPT)

Gambia- EFA 2000 Assessment: Country Report

Gambia- National Action Plan

Ghana- Annual Education Sector Operational Plan

Guinea- EFA 2000 Assessment: Country Report (French)

Guinea Bissau- EFA 2000 Assessment: Country Report (French)

Guinea Bissau- EFA National Plan of Action (French)

India- Education for All: National Plan of Action

Indonesia- Education for All: National Plan of Action

Indonesia- EFA 2000 Assessment: Country Report

Kazakhstan- Education for All: National Plan of Action

Kenya- Education Sector Support Programme

Korea, Republic- EFA 2000 Assessment: Country Report

Laos, PDR- Education for All: National Plan of Action

Lesotho- EFA 2000 Assessment: Country Report

Liberia- EFA National Action Plan

Madagascar- EFA 2000 Assessment: Country Report

Malawi- EFA 2000 Assessment: Country Report

Maldives- Education for All: National Plan of Action

Mali- EFA 2000 Assessment: Country Report

Mauritius- EFA 2000 Assessment: Country Report

Mongolia- Mid-Term Action Plan for Improving Education for All

Mozambique- EFA 2000 Assessment: Country Report

Myanmar- EFA 2000 Assessment: Country Report

Myanmar- Education for All: National Plan of Action

Namibia- EFA 2000 Assessment: Country Report

Namibia- Education for All: National Plan of Action

Nepal- EFA 2000 Assessment: Country Report

Nepal- Education for All: National Plan of Action

Niger- EFA 2000 Assessment: Country Report (Français)
Synthesis of the Pacific- EFA Action Plans
Pakistan- Education for All: National Plan of Action
Pakistan- EFA 2000 Assessment: Country Report
Papua New Guinea- EFA 2000 Assessment: Country Report
Philippines- Education for All: National Plan of Action
Sao Tome and Principe- Education pour tous EPT: Plan National d'action
Sao Tome and Principe- EFA 2000 Assessment: Country Report
Senegal- EFA 2000 Assessment: Country Report
Senegal- Plan national d'action de l'éducation pour tous (PNA/EPT)
Seychelles- EFA 2000 Assessment: Country Report
Somalia- EFA 2000 Assessment: Country Report
Sri Lanka- EFA 2000 Assessment: Country Report
Sri Lanka- Education For All National Action Plan
Tanzania (Mainland)- EFA 2000 Assessment: Country Report
Tanzania (Zanzibar)- EFA 2000 Assessment: Country Report
Togo- EFA 2000 Assessment: Country Report (Français)
Uganda- EFA 2000 Assessment: Country Report
Uzbekistan- National Action Plan on Education for All
Vietnam- EFA 2000 Assessment: Country Report
Zambia- EFA 2000 Assessment: Country Report
Zimbabwe- EFA 2000 Assessment: Country Report

2008 National Country Reports on Inclusive Education

Afghanistan- 2008 National Country Report
Algeria- 2008 National Country Report
Argentina- 2008 National Country Report
Australia- 2008 National Country Report
Austria- 2008 National Country Report
Azerbaijan- 2008 National Country Report

Bahrain- 2008 National Country Report
Barbados - 2008 National Country Report
Belarus - 2008 National Country Report
Belgium (French Community) - 2008 National Country Report
Bhutan - 2008 National Country Report
Bosnia and Herzegovina - 2008 National Country Report
Botswana - 2008 National Country Report
Brazil - 2008 National Country Report
Brunei Darussalam - 2008 National Country Report
Bulgaria - 2008 National Country Report
Burkina Faso - 2008 National Country Report
Burundi - 2008 National Country Report
Cambodia - 2008 National Country Report
Cameroon - 2008 National Country Report
Canada - 2008 National Country Report
Central African Republic - 2008 National Country Report
Chad - 2008 National Country Report
Chile - 2008 National Country Report
China - 2008 National Country Report
Colombia - 2008 National Country Report
Congo - 2008 National Country Report
Cuba - 2008 National Country Report
Cyprus - 2008 National Country Report
Czech Republic - 2008 National Country Report
Democratic People's Republic of Korea - 2008 National Country Report
Democratic Republic of the Congo - 2008 National Country Report
Denmark - 2008 National Country Report
Ecuador - 2008 National Country Report
Egypt - 2008 National Country Report
El Salvador - 2008 National Country Report
Eritrea- 2008 National Country Report
Estonia- 2008 National Country Report

Ethiopia- 2008 National Country Report
Finland- 2008 National Country Report
France- 2008 National Country Report
Gabon- 2008 National Country Report
Ghana- 2008 National Country Report
Greece- 2008 National Country Report
Guatemala- 2008 National Country Report
Honduras- 2008 National Country Report
Hungary- 2008 National Country Report
India- 2008 National Country Report
Indonesia- 2008 National Country Report
Iran (Islamic Republic of) - 2008 National Country Report
Iraq- 2008 National Country Report
Italy- 2008 National Country Report
Jamaica- 2008 National Country Report
Japan- 2008 National Country Report
Jordan - 2008 National Country Report
Kazakhstan- 2008 National Country Report
Kenya- 2008 National Country Report
Kuwait- 2008 National Country Report
Lao People's Democratic Republic- 2008 National Country Report
Latvia- 2008 National Country Report
Lebanon- 2008 National Country Report
Lesotho- 2008 National Country Report
Libyan Arab Jamahiriya- 2008 National Country Report
Lithuania- 2008 National Country Report
Madagascar- 2008 National Country Report
Malawi- 2008 National Country Report
Malaysia- 2008 National Country Report
Mali- 2008 National Country Report
Mauritania- 2008 National Country Report
Mauritius- 2008 National Country Report

Morocco- 2008 National Country Report
Mozambique- 2008 National Country Report
Myanmar- 2008 National Country Report
Namibia- 2008 National Country Report
Netherlands- 2008 National Country Report
Nigeria- 2008 National Country Report
Norway- 2008 National Country Report
Oman- 2008 National Country Report
Pakistan- 2008 National Country Report
Papua New Guinea- 2008 National Country Report
Paraguay- 2008 National Country Report
Peru- 2008 National Country Report
Philippines- 2008 National Country Report
Poland- 2008 National Country Report
Portugal- 2008 National Country Report
Qatar- 2008 National Country Report
Republic of Korea- 2008 National Country Report
Republic of Moldova- 2008 National Country Report
Romania- 2008 National Country Report
Russian Federation - 2008 National Country Report
Rwanda- 2008 National Country Report
Saint Vincent and the Grenadines- 2008 National Country Report
Saudi Arabia- 2008 National Country Report
Serbia- 2008 National Country Report
Slovenia - 2008 National Country Report
South Africa- 2008 National Country Report
Spain- 2008 National Country Report
Sudan- 2008 National Country Report
Suriname- 2008 National Country Report
Swaziland- 2008 National Country Report
Sweden- 2008 National Country Report
Switzerland- 2008 National Country Report

Syrian Arab Republic- 2008 National Country Report

Thailand- 2008 National Country Report

Trinidad and Tobago- 2008 National Country Report

Tunisia- 2008 National Country Report

Turkey- 2008 National Country Report

Ukraine- 2008 National Country Report

*United Kingdom of Great Britain- 2008 National Country Report
and Northern Ireland*

United Republic of Tanzania- 2008 National Country Report

United States of America- 2008 National Country Report

Uruguay- 2008 National Country Report

Uzbekistan- 2008 National Country Report

Venezuela- 2008 National Country Report

Yemen- 2008 National Country Report

Zimbabwe- 2008 National Country Report

Appendix 2**List of publications of the Government of Cambodia²⁴**

- Ministry of Education, Youth and Sport (MOEYS). (1998). Education in Cambodia. Phnom Penh, Cambodia.
- Ministry of Education, Youth and Sport (MOEYS). (2003). Bilingual Education in Cambodia. Phnom Penh, Cambodia.
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- Ministry of Education, Youth and Sport (MOEYS). (2009a). Education Strategic Plan 2009-2013. Phnom Penh, Cambodia.
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- Ministry of Education, Youth and Sport (MOEYS). (2009c). Education for Children with Disabilities (ECWD) Master Plan 2009 to 2011. Phnom Penh, Cambodia.
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- Ministry of Education, Youth and Sport (MOEYS). (2010c). Teacher Development Master Plan (2010-2014). Phnom Penh, Cambodia.

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- Ministry of Education, Youth and Sport (MOEYS). (2012f). Mid-Term Review Report of the Education Strategic Plan 2009-2013. Phnom Penh, Cambodia.
- Ministry of Education, Youth and Sport (MOEYS). (2012g). Policy on Child Friendly School For Basic Education. Phnom Penh, Cambodia.
- Ministry of Education, Youth and Sport (MOEYS). (2012h). Teaching Methods for Students with Visual Impairments in an Inclusive Education Classroom, A Textbook for Trainers. Phnom Penh, Cambodia.
- Ministry of Education, Youth and Sport (MOEYS). (2013a). Annual Operation Plan (AOP) Province of Education (POE) Mondulakiri. Phnom Penh, Cambodia.
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Appendix 3

Pilot-SABER Rubric on Equity and Inclusion

Equity and inclusion for groups of disadvantaged children in policy frameworks at the international and national levels

**The objective of utilizing this rubric is to determine and compare the levels of commitments of the national government in achieving equity and inclusion in policy frameworks, targeting different social groups from five dimensions and from four perspectives.*

***The five dimensions include; gender, ethnicity, disability, income gap and rural/urban.*

****The four perspectives include; equity of access, equity of resource inputs for quality of education, equity of outputs/learning achievement and inclusion (diversity).*

*****The proof and explanation of evidence-based education policies will be judged from sources including; policy documents of the Ministry of National Planning, policy documents of the Ministry of Education, policy documents of the Ministry of Finance concerning budget allocation, policy documents developed in alignment with the international community (e.g. EFA National Action Plan), legal and regulatory instruments referring to international and national laws, whether there are departments or responsible persons in charge of inclusive education within ministries, availability of statistics on the educational situation of disadvantaged groups and the presence of internationally funded projects.*

******If the evaluation you have made is part of a statement included in any of the sources above, please indicate in the proof and explanation column the name of that particular source.*

1. Equity of access					
Name of dimension	Pattern 1	Pattern 2	Pattern 3	Pattern 4	Proof and Explanation
1. Gender	No government policy for gender equity of access.	Gender equity of access is recognized as one of the national policy goals.	Legal and administrative frameworks are structured to promote and achieve gender equity of access.	Allocation of the national budget is assured to promote and achieve gender equity of access. (Or gender equity of access is already achieved.)	
2. Ethnicity	No government policy for ethnic equity of access.	Ethnic equity of access is recognized as one of the national policy	Legal and administrative frameworks are structured to promote and	Allocation of the national budget is assured to promote and	

		goals.	achieve ethnic equity of access.	achieve ethnic equity of access. (Or ethnic equity of access is already achieved.)	
3. Disability	No government policy for disability in equity of access.	Disability in equity of access is recognized as one of the national policy goals.	Legal and administrative frameworks are structured to promote and achieve equity of access for disability.	Allocation of the national budget is assured to promote and achieve equity of access for disability. (Or equity of access for disability is already achieved.)	
4. Income gap	No government policy for income gap in equity of access.	Income gap in equity of access is recognized as one of the national policy goals.	Legal and administrative frameworks are structured to promote and achieve equity of access for income gap.	Allocation of the national budget is assured to promote and achieve equity of access for income gap. (Or equity of access for income gap is already achieved.)	
5. Rural/Urban	No government policy for rural/urban in equity of access.	Rural/urban in equity of access is recognized as one of the national policy goals.	Legal and administrative frameworks are structured to promote and achieve equity of access for rural/urban.	Allocation of the national budget is assured to promote and achieve equity of access for rural/urban. (Or equity of access for rural/urban is already achieved.)	
2. Equity of resource input for education					
Name of dimension	Pattern 1	Pattern 2	Pattern 3	Pattern 4	Proof and Explanation
1. Gender	No	Gender equity	Legal and	Allocation of	

	government policy for gender equity of resource input for education.	of resource input for education is recognized as one of the national policy goals.	administrative frameworks are structured to promote and achieve gender equity of resource input for education.	the national budget is assured to promote and achieve gender equity of resource input for education. (Or gender equity of resource input for education is already achieved.)	
2. Ethnicity	No government policy for ethnic equity of resource input for education.	Ethnic equity of resource input for education is recognized as one of the national policy goals.	Legal and administrative frameworks are structured to promote and achieve ethnic equity of resource input for education.	Allocation of the national budget is assured to promote and achieve ethnic equity of resource input for education. (Or ethnic equity of resource input for education is already achieved.)	
3. Disability	No government policy for disability in equity of resource input for education.	Disability in equity of resource input for education is recognized as one of the national policy goals.	Legal and administrative frameworks are structured to promote and achieve equity of resource input for education for disability.	Allocation of the national budget is assured to promote and achieve equity of resource input for education for disability. (Or equity of resource input for education for disability is already achieved.)	
4. Income gap	No government policy for income gap in equity of resource input	Income gap in equity of resource input for education is recognized as one of the	Legal and administrative frameworks are structured to promote and achieve equity	Allocation of the national budget is assured to promote and achieve equity	

	for education.	national policy goals.	of resource input for education for income gap.	of resource input for education for income gap. (Or equity of resource input for education for income gap is already achieved.)	
5. Rural/Urban	No government policy for rural/urban in equity of resource input for education.	Rural/urban in equity of resource input for education is recognized as one of the national policy goals.	Legal and administrative frameworks are structured to promote and achieve equity of resource input for education for rural/urban.	Allocation of the national budget is assured to promote and achieve equity of resource input for education for rural/urban. (Or equity of resource input for education for rural/urban is already achieved.)	

3. Equity of learning achievement (equity of learning outcomes)

Name of dimension	Pattern 1	Pattern 2	Pattern 3	Pattern 4	Proof and Explanation
1. Gender	No government policy for gender equity of learning achievement.	Gender equity of learning achievement is recognized as one of the national policy goals.	Legal and administrative frameworks are structured to promote and achieve gender equity of learning achievement.	Allocation of the national budget is assured to promote and achieve gender equity of learning achievement. (Or gender equity of learning achievement is already achieved.)	
2. Ethnicity	No government policy for ethnic equity of learning achievement.	Ethnic equity of learning achievement is recognized as one of the national policy	Legal and administrative frameworks are structured to promote and achieve ethnic	Allocation of the national budget is assured to promote and achieve ethnic	

		goals.	equity of learning achievement.	equity of learning achievement. (Or ethnic equity of learning achievement is already achieved.)	
3. Disability	No government policy for disability in equity of learning achievement.	Disability in equity of learning achievement is recognized as one of the national policy goals.	Legal and administrative frameworks are structured to promote and achieve equity of learning achievement for disability.	Allocation of the national budget is assured to promote and achieve equity of learning achievement for disability. (Or equity of learning achievement for disability is already achieved.)	
4. Income gap	No government policy for income gap in equity of learning achievement.	Income gap in equity of learning achievement is recognized as one of the national policy goals.	Legal and administrative frameworks are structured to promote and achieve equity of learning achievement for income gap.	Allocation of the national budget is assured to promote and achieve equity of learning achievement for income gap. (Or equity of learning achievement for income gap is already achieved.)	
5. Rural/Urban	No government policy for rural/urban in equity of learning achievement.	Rural/urban in equity of learning achievement is recognized as one of the national policy goals.	Legal and administrative frameworks are structured to promote and achieve equity of learning achievement for rural/urban.	Allocation of the national budget is assured to promote and achieve equity of learning achievement for rural/urban. (Or equity of learning	

				achievement for rural/urban is already achieved.)	
4. Inclusion (diversity)					
Name of dimension	Pattern 1	Pattern 2	Pattern 3	Pattern 4	Proof and Explanation
1. Gender	No policy discussions on single sex classrooms vs. co-ed classrooms.	Single sex classrooms are chosen by the policy to promote gender equity (protection of rights) in education (<u>special education</u>).	Co-ed classrooms are chosen by the policy to promote gender equity (equal opportunity) in education (<u>integrated education</u>).	Co-ed classrooms are chosen by the policy to promote equal opportunity and also regarded as a positive promotion of diversity and the quality of education for both gender (<u>inclusive education</u>).	
2. Ethnicity	No policy discussions on ethnicity oriented special classrooms vs. non-ethnic and ethnic minorities integrated classrooms.	Ethnicity oriented special classrooms are chosen by the policy to promote equity (protection of rights) of ethnicity in education (<u>special education</u>).	Non-ethnic and ethnic minorities integrated classrooms are chosen by the policy to promote equity (equal opportunity) of ethnicity in education (<u>integrated education</u>).	Non-ethnic and ethnic minorities integrated classrooms are chosen by the policy to promote equal opportunity and also regarded as a positive promotion of diversity and the quality of education for all children, both non-ethnic and	

				ethnic minorities (<u>inclusive education</u>).	
3. Disability	No policy discussions on special classrooms vs. inclusive classrooms.	Special classrooms are chosen by the policy to promote equity (protection of rights) of disability in education (<u>special education</u>).	Integrated classrooms are chosen by the policy to promote equity (equal opportunity) of disability in education. (<u>integrated education</u>).	Inclusive classrooms are chosen by the policy to promote equal opportunity and also regarded as a positive promotion of diversity and quality of education for all children, with and without disabilities (<u>inclusive education</u>).	
4. Income gap	No policy discussions on schools separated by income gap, public vs. private schools.	Schools separated by public and private according to the income level are chosen by the policy to promote equity (protection of rights) of income gap in education (<u>special education</u>).	Integrated schools not separated by income gap (public or private) are chosen by the policy to promote equity (equal opportunity) of income gap in education (<u>integrated education</u>).	Integrated schools not separated by income gap (public or private) are chosen by the policy to promote equal opportunity and also regarded as a positive promotion of diversity and the quality of education for all children, with and without income gap (<u>inclusive education</u>).	
5. Rural/Urban	No policy discussions on rural schools vs. urban schools.	Schools separated by rural/urban are chosen by the policy to	Integrated schools not separated by rural/urban are chosen by the	Integrated schools not separated by rural/urban are chosen by the	

		<p>promote equity (protection of rights) of rural/urban in education (<u>special education</u>).</p>	<p>policy to promote equity (equal opportunity) of rural/urban in education (<u>integrated education</u>).</p>	<p>policy to promote equal opportunity and also regarded as a positive promotion of diversity and the quality of education for all children, those from both rural and urban areas (<u>inclusive education</u>).</p>	
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Appendix 4

Questionnaire/Survey on Pilot-SABER Rubric on Equity and Inclusion

Educational Policy Research on Equity and Inclusion in Asia-Pacific
Educational Policy Mapping/Policy-Goals Rating
Equity and Inclusion Questionnaire/Survey
(based on Pilot-SABER Rubric on E&I of five social groups)
The Case of Cambodia

PLEASE NOTE BEFORE BEGINNING TO RESPOND

1. Please answer every question.
2. All questions refer to activities in both public and private schools in the country.
3. You will need to compile documents that support your responses and refer to them when answering the questionnaire.
4. Please submit the above mentioned supporting documents either by hard or soft copies when you have completed the questionnaire.

Equity: Access to education (Area 1)

Inclusion: Quality of education (Area 2,3,4)

Social groups: gender, ethnicity, disability, poverty, rural/urban

Area 1: Equity of access in legislation, education systems and budget allocation

1. International and national constitutional/legal provision of education for all

1A. When and which international conventions has your country ratified? (Convention against Discrimination in Education (1960), International Covenant on Economic, Social and Cultural Rights(1966), International Covenant on Civil and Political Rights (1966), International Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Racial Discrimination (1965), Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination against Women (1979), Convention concerning Indigenous and Tribal Peoples in Independent Countries (1989), Convention on the Rights of the Child (1989), International Convention on the Protection of the Rights of All Migrant Workers and Members of their Families (1990), Convention concerning the Prohibition and Immediate Action for the Elimination of the Worst Forms of Child Labour (1999), Convention on the Rights of

Persons with Disabilities (2006)

B. In your Constitution and/or education laws, is primary education stated as free and compulsory? If free and compulsory education is provided beyond primary, up to which level?

1C. Does the Constitution specify provision of education for diverse groups of students including gender, ethnicity, disability, poverty and rural/urban?

1D. (If the answer to 1B is yes) Is primary education free and compulsory for children without legal status (e.g., children without birth certificate, children of illegal immigrants)? If not, what are the criteria for the eligibility?

2. Equity of access in national policies and plans

2A. Is there a national policy goal and/or programme specifically addressing needs of diverse groups of students including gender, ethnicity, disability, poverty and rural/urban? If so, please describe.

2B. To what extent does the education sector plan lay out priorities or specific affirmative activities for diverse groups of students including gender, ethnicity, disability, poverty and rural/urban?

3. Equity of access in administrative frameworks

3A. Is there a division or unit in charge of education affairs of the diverse populations including gender, ethnicity, disability, poverty and rural/urban in your government? If so, where is it located (you may wish to attach the organogram if available) and what are the roles and responsibilities?

3B. Is there a division or unit in charge of diverse groups of students at central and sub-national levels of education administration (e.g., Ministry of Education, Provincial, and District governments)? If so, what are their roles and responsibilities?

3C. Are there other Ministries, divisions or units within Ministries other than the Ministry of Education in charge of affairs of the diverse populations including gender, ethnicity, disability, poverty and rural/urban that you closely work and coordinate with? If so, what are their roles and responsibilities?

4. Allocation of the national budget to promote and achieve equity of access

4A. Is there a specifically government allocated budget to create and improve access of education for diverse groups of students including gender, ethnicity, disability, poverty and rural/ urban?

4B. Is equity of access for diverse groups of students including gender, ethnicity, disability, poverty and rural/urban already achieved?

Area 2: Equity of resource inputs for quality of education in legislation, education systems and budget allocation

1. National constitutional/legal provision of equity of resource inputs for quality education

1A. In your Constitution and/or education laws, is equity of resource inputs for quality of education for diverse groups of students including gender, ethnicity, disability, poverty and rural/urban stated or specified? If so, please describe.

2. Equity of resource inputs for quality of education in national policies and plans

2A. Is there a national policy goal and/or programme specifically addressing needs and equity of resource inputs for quality of education of diverse groups of students including gender, ethnicity, disability, poverty and rural/urban? If so, please describe.

2B. To what extent does the education sector plan lay out priorities or specific affirmative activities for equity of resource inputs for quality of education for diverse groups of students including gender, ethnicity, disability, poverty and rural/urban?

3. Equity of resource inputs for quality of education in administrative frameworks

3A. Is there a division or unit in charge of education affairs, in particular, equity of resource inputs for quality of education for the diverse populations including gender, ethnicity, disability, poverty and rural/urban in your government? If so, where is it located (you may wish to attach the

organogram if available) and what are the roles and responsibilities?

3B. Is there a division or unit in charge of diverse groups of students at central and sub-national levels of education administration, in particular, on issues related to equity of resource inputs for quality of education (e.g., Ministry of Education, Provincial, and District governments)? If so, what are their roles and responsibilities?

3C. Are there other Ministries, divisions or units within Ministries other than the Ministry of Education in charge of affairs, in particular, equity of resource inputs for quality of education for the diverse populations including gender, ethnicity, disability, poverty and rural/urban that you closely work and coordinate with? If so, what are their roles and responsibilities?

4. Allocation of the national budget to promote and achieve equity of resource inputs for quality of education

4A. Is there a specifically government allocated budget to develop and improve equity of resource inputs for quality of education for diverse groups of students including gender, ethnicity, disability, poverty and rural/urban?

4B. Is equity of resource inputs for quality of education for diverse groups of students including gender, ethnicity, disability, poverty and rural/urban already achieved?

Area 3: Equity of learning outcomes for quality of education in legislation, education systems and budget allocation

1. National constitutional/legal provision of equity of learning outcomes for quality of education

1A. In your Constitution and/or education laws, is equity of learning outcomes for quality of education for diverse groups of students including gender, ethnicity, disability, poverty and rural/urban stated or specified? If so, please describe.

2. Equity of learning outcomes for quality of education in national policies and plans

2A. Is there a national policy goal and/or programme specifically addressing needs and equity of learning outcomes for quality of education of diverse groups of students including gender, ethnicity,

disability, poverty and rural/urban? If so, please describe.

2B. To what extent does the education sector plan lay out priorities or specific affirmative activities for equity of learning outcomes for quality of education for diverse groups of students including gender, ethnicity, disability, poverty and rural/urban?

3. Equity of learning outcomes for quality of education in administrative frameworks

3A. Is there a division or unit in charge of education affairs, in particular, equity of learning outcomes for quality of education for the diverse populations including gender, ethnicity, disability, poverty and rural/urban in your government? If so, where is it located (you may wish to attach the organogram if available) and what are the roles and responsibilities?

3B. Is there a division or unit in charge of diverse groups of students at central and sub-national levels of education administration, in particular, on issues related to equity of learning outcomes for quality of education (e.g., Ministry of Education, Provincial, and District governments)? If so, what are their roles and responsibilities?

3C. Are there other Ministries, divisions or units within Ministries other than the Ministry of Education in charge of affairs, in particular, equity of learning outcomes for quality of education for the diverse populations including gender, ethnicity, disability, poverty and rural/urban that you closely work and coordinate with? If so, what are their roles and responsibilities?

4. Allocation of the national budget to promote and achieve equity of learning outcomes for quality of education

4A. Is there a specifically government allocated budget to develop and improve equity of learning outcomes for quality of education for diverse groups of students including gender, ethnicity, disability, poverty and rural/urban?

4B. Is equity of learning outcomes for quality of education for diverse groups of students including gender, ethnicity, disability, poverty and rural/urban already achieved?

Area 4(a): Inclusion (diversity) for quality of education in legislation and education systems

1. National constitutional/legal provision of inclusion (diversity) for quality of education

1A. In your Constitution and/or education laws, there are no statements or specifications on schools and/or classrooms that should be separated according to each diverse groups of students including gender, ethnicity, disability, poverty and rural/urban (None).

1B. In your Constitution and/or education laws, there are statements or specifications on schools and/or classrooms that should be separated according to each diverse groups of students including gender, ethnicity, disability, poverty and rural/urban (Special Education).

1C. In your Constitution and/or education laws, there are statements or specifications on schools and/or classrooms that should be integrated for diverse groups of students including gender, ethnicity, disability, poverty and rural/urban so as to promote equity in education (equal opportunity) for each of the vulnerable groups (Integrated Education).

1D. In your Constitution and/or education laws, there are statements or specifications on schools and/or classrooms that should be integrated for diverse groups of students including gender, ethnicity, disability, poverty and rural/urban so as to promote equity in education (equal opportunity) and also promote inclusion (diversity) and the quality of education for all children, both for those with and without special education needs (Inclusive Education).

2. Inclusion (diversity) for quality of education in national policies and plans

2A. There is no national policy goal and/or programme specifically addressing policy on schools and/or classrooms that should be separated according to each diverse groups of students including gender, ethnicity, disability, poverty and rural/urban (None).

2B. There is national policy goal and/or programme specifically addressing policy on schools and/or classrooms that should be separated according to each diverse groups of students including gender, ethnicity, disability, poverty and rural/urban (Special Education).

2C. There is national policy goal and/or programme specifically addressing policy on schools and/or classrooms that should be integrated for diverse groups of students including gender, ethnicity, disability, poverty and rural/urban so as to promote equity in education (equal opportunity) for each of the vulnerable groups (Integrated Education).

2D. There is national policy goal and/or programme specifically addressing policy on schools and/or classrooms that should be integrated for diverse groups of students including gender, ethnicity, disability, poverty and rural/urban so as to promote equity in education (equal opportunity) and also promote diversity and the quality of education for all children, both for those with and without special education needs (Inclusive Education).

Area 4(b): Allocation of the national budget to promote and achieve inclusion (diversity) for quality of education

1A. There is no government budget allocation specifically for the development of schools and/or classrooms that should be separated according to each diverse groups of students including gender, ethnicity, disability, poverty and rural/urban (None).

1B. There is government budget allocation specifically for the development of schools and/or classrooms that should be separated according to each diverse groups of students including gender, ethnicity, disability, poverty and rural/urban (Special Education).

1C. There is government budget allocation specifically for the development of schools and/or classrooms that should be integrated for diverse groups of students including gender, ethnicity, disability, poverty and rural/urban so as to promote equity in education (equal opportunity) for each of the vulnerable groups (Integrated Education).

1D. There is government budget allocation specifically for the development of schools and/or classrooms that should be integrated for diverse groups of students including gender, ethnicity, disability, poverty and rural/urban so as to promote equity in education (equal opportunity) and also promote diversity and the quality of education for all children, both for those with and without special education needs (Inclusive Education).

Appendix 5**Number and Type of Report/Plan by Country in Africa**

No.	Country	Type of Report/Plan
1	Benin	EFA 2000 Assessment
2	Botswana	EFA 2000 Assessment EFA NPA (2002)
3	Burkina Faso	EFA NPA (2002)
4	Burundi	EFA NPA (NA)
5	Cameroon	EFA 2000 Assessment EFA NPA (NA)
6	Cape Verde	EFA 2000 Assessment
7	Chad	EFA 2000 Assessment EFA NPA (2002)
8	Comoros	EFA 2000 Assessment
9	Congo, DR.	EFA 2000 Assessment EFA NPA (2005)
10	Congo	EFA 2000 Assessment EFA NPA (2002)
11	Cote d'Ivoire	EFA 2000 Assessment
12	Djibouti	EFA NPA (2001-2005)
13	Ethiopia	The Education Sector Development Program
14	Gabon	EFA 2000 Assessment EFA NPA (2002)
15	Gambia	EFA 2000 Assessment EFA NPA (NA)
16	Ghana	AESOP 2005-2007
17	Guinea	EFA 2000 Assessment
18	Guinea Bissau	EFA 2000 Assessment
19	Kenya	Education Sector Support Program (2005-2007)
20	Lesotho	EFA 2000 Assessment
21	Liberia	FA NPA (E2004)
22	Madagascar	EFA 2000 Assessment
23	Malawi	EFA 2000 Assessment
24	Mali	EFA 2000 Assessment

25	Mauritius	EFA 2000 Assessment
26	Mozambique	EFA 2000 Assessment
27	Namibia	EFA 2000 Assessment
		EFA NPA (2002-2015)
28	Niger	EFA 2000 Assessment
29	Sao Tome and Principe	EFA 2000 Assessment
		EFA NPA (2002-2015)
30	Senegal	EFA 2000 Assessment
		EFA NPA (2001)
31	Seychelles	EFA 2000 Assessment
32	Somalia	EFA 2000 Assessment
33	Tanzania (Mainland)	EFA 2000 Assessment
34	Tanzania (Zanzibar)	EFA 2000 Assessment
35	Togo	EFA 2000 Assessment
36	Uganda	EFA 2000 Assessment
37	Zambia	EFA 2000 Assessment
38	Zimbabwe	EFA 2000 Assessment
Total		38
Total		48

Note: The year indicated in () for EFA NPA refers to either the year of publication or the year of implementation

Appendix 6 Number and Type of Report/Plan by Country in Asia

No.	Country	Type of Report/Plan
1	Afghanistan	EFA 2000 Assessment
2	Bangladesh	EFA NPA (2003-2015)
3	Bhutan	EFA 2000 Assessment EFA NPA (2001)
4	Cambodia	EFA NPA (2003-2015)
5	China	EFA NPA (2001-2015)
6	DPRK, Korea	EFA NPA (NA)
7	India	EFA NPA (NA)
8	Indonesia	EFA 2000 Assessment EFA NPA (2003-2015)
9	Kazakhstan	EFA NPA (2002-2005)
10	Korea, Rep.*	EFA 2000 Assessment
11	Laos, PDR	EFA NPA (2003-2015)
12	Maldives	EFA NPA (2001)
13	Mongolia	Mid-Term Action Plan
14	Myanmar	EFA 2000 Assessment EFA NPA (2004)
15	Nepal	EFA 2000 Assessment EFA NPA (2003)
16	Pakistan	EFA 2000 Assessment EFA NPA 2001-2015
17	Papua New Guinea	EFA 2000 Assessment
18	Philippines	EFA NPA (2005-2015)
19	Sri Lanka	EFA 2000 Assessment EFA NPA (NA)
20	Uzbekistan	EFA NPA (2002)
21	Vietnam	EFA 2000 Assessment EFA NPA (2003-2015)
22	Pacific	EFA NPAs (2003)
Total		Total
	22	29

Note: *Republic of South Korea is not considered a developing country in terms of income level and is an exception in this research paper. The year indicated in () for EFA NPA refers to either the year of publication or the year of implementation

Appendix 7

Reference to “Disadvantaged Groups” by Country and Report/Plan

No.	COUNTRY	TYPE OF REPORT	Disadvantaged		No.	COUNTRY	TYPE OF REPORT	Disadvantaged	
			Groups/ Vulnerable Groups/ Excluded Groups/ Marginalized Groups					Groups/ Vulnerable Groups/ Excluded Groups/ Marginalized Groups	
1	Afghanistan	EFA 2000 Assessment (E)	✓		27	EFA NPA 2002 (F)		✓	
2	Bangladesh	EFA NPA 2003-2015 (E)	✓		28	Gambia EFA 2000 Assessment (E)		✗	
3	Benin	EFA 2000 Assessment (F)	✓		29	EFA NPA (NA) (E)		✓	
4	Bhutan	EFA NPA 2001 (E)	✓		30	Ghana AESOP 2005-2007 (E)		✓	
5		EFA 2000 Assessment (E)	✓		31	Guinea EFA 2000 Assessment (F)		✗	
6	Botswana	EFA NPA 2002 (E)	✓		32	Guinea Bissau EFA 2000 Assessment (F)		✗	
7		EFA 2000 Assessment (E)	✓		33	India EFA NPA (NA) (E)		✓	
8	Burkina Faso	EFA NPA 2002 (E)	✓		34	Indonesia EFA 2000 Assessment (E)		✓	
9	Burundi	EFA NPA (NA) (F)	✓		35	EFA NPA 2003-2015 (E)		✓	
10	Cambodia	EFA NPA 2003-2015 (E)	✓		36	Kazakhstan EFA NPA 2002-2005 (E)		✓	
11	Cameroon	EFA 2000 Assessment (F)	✓		37	Kenya Education Sector Support Programme 2005-2010 (E)		✓	
12		EFA NPA (NA) (F)	✓		38	Korea, Rep. EFA 2000 Assessment (E)*		NA	
13	Cape Verde	EFA 2000 Assessment (E)	✓		39	Lao PDR EFA NPA 2003-2015 (E)		✓	
14	Chad	EFA 2000 Assessment (F)	✓		40	Lesotho EFA 2000 Assessment (E)		✗	
15		EFA NPA 2002 (F)	✓		41	Liberia EFA NPA 2004 (E)		✗	

16	China	EFA NPA 2001-2015 (E)	✓	42	Madagascar	EFA 2000 Assessment (F)	✓
17	Comoros	EFA 2000 Assessment (F)	✓	43	Malawi	EFA 2000 Assessment (E)	✓
18	Congo, DR.	EFA 2000 Assessment (F)	✗	44	Maldives	EFA NPA 2001 (E)	✓
19		EFA NPA 2005 (F)	✓	45	Mali	EFA 2000 Assessment (F)	✓
20	Congo	EFA 2000 Assessment (F)	✓	46	Mauritius	EFA 2000 Assessment (E)	✓
21		EFA NPA 2002 (F)	✓	47	Mongolia	EFA Mid-term Action Plan 2002 (E)	✓
22	Cote d'Ivoire	EFA 2000 Assessment (F)	✓	48	Myanmar	EFA 2000 Assessment (E)	✓
23	Djibouti	EFA NPA 2001-2005 (F)	✗	49		EFA NPA 2004 (E)	✓
24	DPRK Korea	EFA NPA (NA) (E) The Education Sector	✓	50	Mozambique	EFA 2000 Assessment (E)	✓
25	Ethiopia	Development Program (E)	✗	51	Namibia	EFA 2000 Assessment (E)	✓
26	Gabon	EFA 2000 Assessment (F)	✓	52		EFA NPA 2002-2015 (E)	✓
53	Nepal	EFA 2000 Assessment (E)	✓	68	Tanzania (Mainland)	EFA 2000 Assessment (E)	✓
54		EFA NPA 2003 (E)	✓	69	Tanzania (Zanzibar)	EFA 2000 Assessment (E)	✓
55	Niger	EFA 2000 Assessment (F)	✓	70	Togo	EFA 2000 Assessment (F)	✓
56	Pakistan	EFA 2000 Assessment (E)	✓	71	Uganda	EFA 2000 Assessment (E)	✓
57		EFA NPA 2001-2015 (E)	✓	72	Uzbekistan	EFA NPA 2002 (E)	✓
58	Papua New Guinea	EFA 2000 Assessment (E)	✓	73	Vietnam	EFA 2000 Assessment (E)	✓

59	Philippines	EFA NPA 2005-2015 (E)	✓	74	EFA NPA 2003-2015 (E)	✓
60	Sao Tome and Principe	EFA 2000 Assessment (F)	X	75	Zambia EFA 2000 Assessment (E)	✓
61		EFA NPA 2001 (F)	✓	76	Zimbabwe EFA 2000 Assessment (E)	✓
62	Senegal	EFA 2000 Assessment (F)	X	77	Pacific EFA National Action Plans 2003 (E)	✓
63		EFA NPA 2001 (F)	✓			
64	Seychelles	EFA 2000 Assessment (E)	✓			
65	Somalia	EFA 2000 Assessment (E)	X			
66	Sri Lanka	EFA 2000 Assessment (E)	✓			
67		EFA NPA NA (E)	X			

Total Number of Reports/Plans: ✓:65 X:12

✓: Report/Plan with reference to “Disadvantaged Groups”

X: Report/Plan with no reference to “Disadvantaged Groups”

Appendix 8**A full list of 116 developed and developing countries by respective regions**

Africa	Asia	Eastern European States	GRULAC	WEOG
Algeria	Afghanistan	Azerbaijan	Argentina	Australia
Burkina Faso	Bahrain	Bosnia and Herzegovina	Brazil	Austria
Botswana	Barbados	Belarus	Chile	Belgium
Burundi	Bhutan	Bulgaria	Colombia	
Cameroon	Brunei Darussalam	Czech Republic	Cuba	Canada
Central African Republic	Cambodia	Estonia	Ecuador	Denmark
Chad	China	Hungary	El Salvador	Finland
Congo	DPRK	Latvia	Guatemala	France
Democratic Republic of the Congo	Cyprus	Lithuania	Honduras	Greece
Egypt	India	Moldova Republic	Jamaica	Italy
Eritrea	Indonesia	Poland	Paraguay	The Netherlands
Ethiopia	Iran	Romania	Peru	Norway
Gabon	Iraq	Russia	Uruguay	Portugal
Ghana	Japan	Serbia	Venezuela	Spain
Kenya	Jordan	Slovenia		Sweden
Lesotho	Kazakhstan	Ukraine		Switzerland
Madagascar	Kuwait			Turkey

Appendix 9**A full list of 77 State Parties to the Convention on the Rights of Persons with Disabilities**

Africa	Asia	Easestern	GRULAC	WEOG
European States				
Algeria	Afghanistan	Azerbaijan	Argentina	Australia
Burkina Faso	Bahrain	Bosnia and Herzegovina	Brazil	Austria
Egypt	China	Bulgaria	Chile	Belgium
Ethiopia	Cyprus	Czech Republic	Colombia	Canada
Gabon	India	Estonia	Cuba	Denmark
Ghana	Indonesia	Hungary	Ecuador	France
Kenya	Jordan	Latvia	El Salvador	Greece
Malawi	Korea REP	Lithuania	Guatemala	Italy
Mali	Lao PDR	Moldova Republic	Honduras	Portugal
Mauritius	Malaysia	Poland	Jamaica	Spain
Morocco	Oman	Romania	Paraguay	Sweden
Mozambique	Pakistan	Russia	Peru	Turkey
Namibia	Philippines	Serbia	Uruguay	UK
Nigeria	Qatar	Slovenia		
South Africa	Syria	Ukraine		
Sudan	Thailand			
Swaziland	Yemen			
Tanzania				
Tunisia				
Total 19	Total 17	Total 15	Total 13	Total 13
Total 77				

Appendix 10**A full list of countries grouped according to levels of income**

Low Income	Lower Middle Income	Upper Middle Income	High Income
	Countries	Countries	Countries
Afghanistan	Azerbaijan	Algeria	Australia
Burkina Faso	China	Argentina	Austria
Ethiopia	Ecuador	Bosnia & Herzegovina	Bahrain
Ghana	Egypt	Brazil	Belgium
Kenya	El Salvador	Bulgaria	Canada
Lao PDR	Guatemala	Chile	Cyprus
Malawi	Honduras	Colombia	Czech Rep.
Mali	Indonesia	Cuba	Denmark
Mozambique	India	Gabon	Estonia
Tanzania	Jordan	Jamaica	France
Yemen	Moldova	Latvia	Greece
	Morocco	Lithuania	Hungary
	Nigeria	Malaysia	Italy
	Pakistan	Mauritius	Korea Rep.
	Paraguay	Namibia	Oman
	Philippines	Peru	Portugal
	Sudan	Poland	Qatar
	Swaziland	Romania	Slovenia
	Syria	Russia	Spain
	Thailand	Serbia	Sweden
	Tunisia		UK
	Ukraine		
Total 11	Total 22	Total 23	Total 21

Appendix 11 A full list of countries grouped according to levels of education

NER is lower than 80%	NER is between 80% to 90%	NER is higher than 90%		
Burkina Faso	Afghanistan	India	Chile	Portugal
Ghana	Ethiopia	Malawi	Hungary	Qatar
Sudan	Kenya	Tanzania	Latvia	Slovenia
Pakistan	Lao PDR	Algeria	Oman	Spain
Nigeria	Mozambique	Bosnia & Herzegovina	Poland	Sweden
Mali	Azerbaijan	China	Russia	UK
Yemen	Jamaica	Colombia	Serbia	Ecuador
	Moldova	Cuba	Turkey	Egypt
	Namibia	El Salvador	Uruguay	
	Moldova	Guatemala	Australia	
	Paraguay	Honduras	Bahrain	
	Philippines	Indonesia	Austria	
	South Africa	Jordan	Belgium	
		Morocco	Canada	
		Peru	Cyprus	
		Syria	Czech Rep.	
		Thailand	Denmark	
		Tunisia	Estonia	
		Ukraine	France	
		Argentina	Greece	
		Brazil	Italy	
		Bulgaria	Korea Rep.	
Total 7	Total 13	Total 53		

Appendix 12

Official Letter of Request to MOEYS Cambodia



Ministry of Education, Culture, Sports, Science and Technology (MEXT)

3-2-2 Kasumigaseki, Chiyoda-ku, Tokyo 100-8959, Japan

Center for the Study of International Cooperation in Education, Waseda University

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Asia-Pacific Programme of Education for All (APPEAL) UNESCO Bangkok

920 Sukhumvit Road, Prakanong Bangkok 10110 Thailand

October 1st, 2013

His Excellency Hang Choun Naron, Minister of Education, Youth and Sport

Ministry of Education, Youth and Sport (MoEYS) Cambodia

#80 Preah Norodom Blvd; Phnom Penh, Cambodia

Attention: Mr. Samith Put

Deputy Director General of Education, MoEYS Cambodia

#169 Preah Norodom Blvd; Phnom Penh, Cambodia

Tel: +855 (0) 23 211 217 Fax: +855 (0) 23 220 453

Email: putsamith@yahoo.com

Official Letter of Request for Cooperation

Your Excellency,

Since the year commencing April 1st 2012, the Center for the Study of International Cooperation in Education of Waseda University in Japan is carrying out an international research project on the topic concerning, “Educational Policy Research on Equity and Inclusion in the Asia-Pacific Region”, entrusted and funded by Official Development Assistance of the Japanese National Commission for UNESCO, Ministry of Education, Culture, Sports, Science and Technology (MEXT), Japan. The preliminary stage of this project consists of Japanese researchers undertaking research in South Asian countries including India, Nepal, Sri Lanka, Bhutan and the Maldives in collaboration with researchers and policy makers from these respective participating countries.

However, as the overall scope of this project covers the Asia-Pacific region, we would like to expand target countries to Southeast Asia including Cambodia to initiate research on the theme of inclusive education as we have entered into the second year of this research project. On this special occasion, we would like to enlist your cooperation through research work. Having said that, Your Excellency, we would like to bring to your attention, Mr. Samith Put, Deputy Director General of Education of MoEYS for his cooperation as we have had a very productive discussion on this research project through his participation in the recently held joint meeting with UNESCO Bangkok in Thailand on September 20th 2013 entitled; “Expert Meeting: Educational Policy Research on Equity and Inclusion in Asia-Pacific -Focusing on Children with Disabilities-“. In particular, we would like to seek for your generous collaboration in the collection of policy documents, interviews with policy makers and researchers as well as visits to schools educating children with disabilities during our first visit to Phnom Penh, Cambodia during the period October 6th to October 19th 2013. In addition, we would also like to bring to your attention, Ms. Makiko Hayashi who is currently a research assistant and PhD candidate at Waseda University to undertake this particular field research and work in Cambodia during the above mentioned period.

We hereby enclose a copy of the research project outline which describes the scope of our research work for your reference.

Yours faithfully,



KURODA Kazuo

Professor and Director

Center for the Study of International Cooperation in Education, Waseda University, kakuroda@waseda.jp

Research Project Outline

Organization and Funding: This research project is carried out by the Center for the Study of International Cooperation in Education of Waseda University in Japan through funding received from Official Development Assistance of the Japanese National Commission for UNESCO, Ministry of Education, Culture, Sports, Science and Technology (MEXT), Japan

Research Topic:

Educational Policy Research on Equity and Inclusion in the Asia-Pacific Region

Target Countries:

South Asia: India, Nepal, Sri Lanka, Bhutan, the Maldives

Southeast Asia: Cambodia

Participating Researchers:

- 1) Kazuo KURODA, Professor, Graduate School of Asia-Pacific Studies, Waseda University
- 2) Hiroko FURUTA, Professor, Faculty of Education, Kumamoto University
- 3) Tatsuya KUSAKABE, Associate Professor, Center for the Study of International Cooperation in Education, Hiroshima University
- 4) Riho SAKURAI, Associate Professor, Center for the Study of International Cooperation in Education, Hiroshima University
- 5) Miki SUGIMURA, Associate Professor, Department of Integrated Human Science, Sophia University
- 6) Minoru MORISHITA, Associate Professor, Division of Marine Technology, Tokyo University of Marine Science and Technology
- 7) Jun KAWAGUCHI, Research Fellow, Japan Society for the Promotion of Science
- 8) Yuki OHARA, Research Fellow, Japan Society for the Promotion of Science
- 9) Makiko HAYASHI, Research Assistant, Graduate School of Asia-Pacific Studies, Waseda University

Timetable:

Overall: April 1st 2012 ~ February 28th 2014

Field research (Tentative): June 22nd 2012 ~ February 2014

Expert meeting: September 27th 2012, September 20th 2013

Publication (tentative): 2014~ 2015

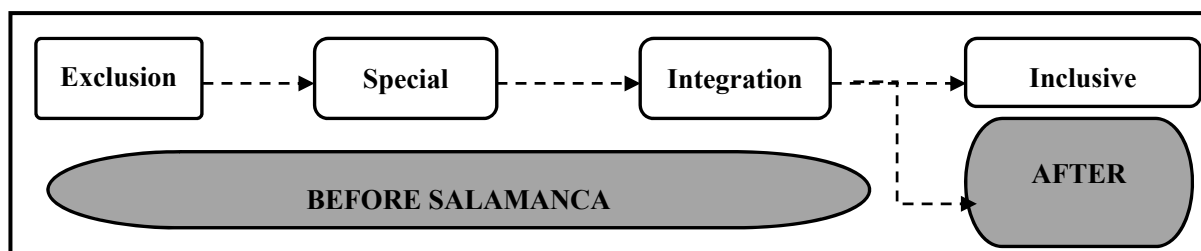
Background:

Ever since the movement was launched at the World Conference on Education for All in 1990 at Jomtien, and the adoption of the Dakar Framework for Action in 2000, national governments have been active towards attaining the broad-reaching six EFA goals. Besides the important framework of EFA, the other over-arching and influential movement is the Millennium Development Goals (MDGs) adopted in 2000 which focuses on universal primary schooling. While much has been achieved by the international community until present, the failure to reach the marginalized has deprived many children from their right to quality education. In other words, the issue of equity encompassing even the last five to ten percent of the population who continue to be disadvantaged and vulnerable remains to be a major constraint in attaining the current post-MDGs agenda.

According to the World Bank (2003), there is an estimated 40 million children with disabilities who are out of school with an estimated total of 115 million out of school children. Moreover, it is estimated that among the 40 million children with disabilities, those who manage to complete primary schooling are less than 5%. UNESCO (2005) estimates a total of 140 million out of school children of which the “majority” are children with disabilities and girls. As for UNICEF, Habibi (1999) estimates that out of the 150 million children with disabilities, only 3% of them from developing countries are enrolled in schools. As clearly indicated in the figures above, a consensus in identifying children with disabilities together with their schooling status itself is a struggle, yet it similarly implies that without educational provision for the disabled can the international community work towards EFA.

Historically speaking, children with special needs were excluded from the educational system itself before the 1960s and 1970s (Balescut and Eklindh, 2006). Physical and social barriers excluded and denied these persons from the society and prevented them from participating within the educational system. A gradual shift from a human rights perspective led to initial efforts which have consisted of specialized

programs, institutions and specialist educators which functioned outside of the mainstream education system. And eventually, dissatisfaction with special education developed a new approach namely as special needs education which consisted of integration, signifying a system of education limited for children with disabilities physically within ordinary schools, but in specialized classrooms with trained teachers or in the form of sharing several hours of the same class with non-disabled children in ordinary schools. But the Salamanca Statement in 1994 has become the impetus to the notion of inclusion suggesting radical changes to the form of integration, which signified a new concept, which was to accept a diverse range of special needs or excluded groups not only limited to the disabled. Furthermore, it explored innovative ways of reforming the school environment to accommodate all needs of children and youth. Moreover, inclusion is regarded as improving and enriching the quality of education in classrooms in a way that children with special needs would stimulate and influence those without special needs in a positive way, learning from one another and eliminating discriminatory attitudes.



It is also crucial to point out that discussions on inclusive education are recently becoming highly progressive in the international agenda, especially since the latter half of the 2000s. Issues on equity and inclusion have been actively presented in numerous policy papers and international conferences including the World Bank Education Sector Strategy Update 2006, recent EFA Global Monitoring reports (2009, 2010) and 2008 UNESCO IBE International Conference on Education.

In spite of the guiding principles and justifications of inclusion, numerous challenges lie ahead of inclusive education, as the relevance of this new approach especially in terms of effectiveness in meeting special education needs of all children and youth have been the question of concern among various stakeholders involved in this field. In the context of developing countries, there are arguments claiming that inclusive education is neither the most cost-effective nor is it quality-effective. For instance, as developing countries already face constraints in providing compulsory education for those without special needs, the

principles of inclusion for those with special needs is not of primary concern or a priority for national governments. In other words, inclusive education is seen as very costly. Secondly, mainstream educationalists have been resistant to the idea and continue to argue that those with special needs or special type of disability can receive better education in special institutions. (Balescut and Eklindh, 2006) In addition to the question of feasibility, comparative situational research and analysis on equity and inclusion at the international and national policy levels have not yet been undertaken at present. On the contrary, only with inclusive education, can countries speak of Education for All in a holistic sense and developing countries must seek for the most innovative ways to pave the path forward towards inclusion of all children and youth with special education needs in the educational system.

Objectives:

The primary purpose of this research project is to undertake comparative policy analysis on the situation of equity and inclusion of education in the targeted countries of the Asia-Pacific region. More precisely, it will determine and compare the level of commitment of the national government in achieving equity and inclusion for disadvantaged groups of children in policy frameworks from four perspectives; equity of access, equity of resource inputs for quality of education, equity of learning outcomes for quality of education and inclusion (diversity). The first perspective, “equity of access” will look at levels of commitments of national governments towards equity of quantitative distributions of educational opportunities for the different social groups. Such an attempt is the most traditional approach used in equity discussions in the field of international educational development. Secondly, the perspective of “equity of resource inputs for the quality of education” will look at commitments of national governments towards attaining equity through school factors such as pupil-teacher ratio, teaching methods and learning materials. Thirdly, “equity of learning outputs for the quality of education” which is relatively a new consideration will look at equity in student performance. And lastly, the fourth perspective, inclusion (diversity) will look at how widespread the notion of embracing diversity in education has become explicit at the national policy level. With reference to the groups of disadvantaged children, it will focus on five dimensions including gender, ethnicity, disability, poverty and urban/rural. Based on the four perspectives targeting five vulnerable social groups, this research will aim to conduct and make an empirical contribution on existing policy gaps at the international and national levels.

The secondary purpose of this research project is to shift the focus of equity and inclusion from the national policy level targeting various disadvantaged groups of children to feature views of school teachers and policy makers who are direct personnel engaged in education for children with disabilities. Specifically, it will look at characteristics on what exactly are the obstacles for learning in school for children with disabilities. Furthermore, evaluation will be conducted to assess and compare views of teachers on the question of what type of education should be provided for children with disabilities.

And lastly, upon thorough research on what has been mentioned above, the ultimate goal of this research project is to first, generate new perspectives and knowledge on equity and inclusion of education taking the case of countries from the Asia-Pacific region to policy makers and researchers of those respective countries and second, examine areas where further studies can be conducted in collaboration with UNESCO.

Framework (methodology):

Concerning the preliminary part of this research objective, the methodology consists of using a rubric (please refer to attachment 1) which has been uniquely developed by JICA Research Institute (Kazuo KURODA, Takako YUKI and Makiko HAYASHI) as part of an original pilot activity in an attempt to contribute to the SABER (Systems Approach for Better Education Results) domain on “Equity and Inclusion”. SABER is an initiative currently being developed by the World Bank along with partners around the world that helps countries systematically examine and strengthen the performance of their education systems to achieve learning for all. SABER is developing diagnostic tools that benchmark education policies according to evidence-based global standards and best practice. (World Bank) With regard to evidence-based education policies, this research will specifically investigate whether the issues on equity and inclusion of five groups of disadvantaged groups of children are addressed and practiced judging from the sources including; policy documents of the Ministry of National Planning, policy documents of the Ministry of Education, policy documents of the Ministry of Finance concerning budget allocation, policy documents developed in alignment with the international community (ex: EFA National Action Plan), legal and regulatory instruments referring to international and national laws, whether there are departments or responsible persons in charge of inclusive education within ministries, availability of statistics on the educational situation of disadvantaged groups, and lastly, presence of internationally funded projects. The usage of such a framework will allow room to see educational policies in the targeted countries by identifying and visibly recognizing policy gaps

among different kinds of disadvantages and different kinds of equity concepts. With this trial, it attempts to contribute to the development of a new policy research tool on equity and inclusion of education.

Secondly, with reference to the secondary part of the objective, the methodology consists of using a survey (please refer to attachment 2) which will be filled out by policy makers and school teachers. A qualitative interview will follow the survey in order to compliment investigation on the situation and meaning of equity for the different disadvantaged groups. The aim is to collect empirical data of surveys and interviews of educators on their perceptions about special education and integrated/inclusive education for children with disabilities. Moreover, it will identify and compare perceptions of educators on the two competing education methods in terms of their potentiality and practicality and thus, identify the balanced views of collaboration on the two methods aiming to make a contribution on the debates surrounding educational methodologies in this field that sometimes become too ideological or too technical.

And finally, it is our aim to conduct a concluding seminar/workshop among a total of roughly 40 participants, including researchers from Japan, ministry officers and researchers from the Asia-Pacific countries as well as UNESCO Bangkok officers and other participants from the international education and development communities such as UNICEF, SEAMEO and NGOs based in Bangkok. In this expert meeting, findings obtained from the entire research will be disseminated to the participants through presentations by researchers who have conducted their research in the field countries of the Asia-Pacific region. And more importantly, it will be succeeded by a session to discuss the preliminary findings, exchange questions and comments on equity and inclusion of education amongst all participants. Such a dialogue will hopefully lead to further discussions and investigation on identifying additional and continuing research possibilities in the future for this research project. And eventually, it is within the intention to address possible follow up actions at the country level in the next stage of this research project. It will be a one day seminar/workshop taking place in Bangkok under the cooperation of UNESCO Bangkok Office.

Expected Outputs:

The final product of this research project will be a publication compiling results and data of research conducted in participating countries of the Asia-Pacific region as well as comments and inputs received during the expert meetings at UNESCO Bangkok Office.