Two and a Half Decades after Salamanca: The Status of Inclusive Education in Rural Kenya

Dr. Catherine Nyaguthii Mwarari*

Kenya

Abstract: Although inclusive education has been accepted as the medium through which children with special needs can access quality education, the practice is yet to be fully introduced and implemented in rural public primary schools in Kenya. Inclusive education is embedded on the principle that learners with special needs should be accommodated in neighbourhood age-appropriate regular classes; this being the first placement option. This study aimed at determining the status of inclusive education in public primary schools in a rural county in Kenya taking in cognisance the proven benefits of inclusive education. Cross sectional survey design was adopted for the study and multi stage sampling procedure was utilised to select 462 teachers, 66 head teachers and 8 field officers. Descriptive and inferential statistics were used to analyse quantitative data while content analysis was used for qualitative data from questionnaires, interview guide and observation guide. The study findings revealed that much still remains to be done to realise effectual implementation of inclusive education in public primary schools in rural Kenya. This is attributable to inadequate resources such as trained SNE teachers, in-service trainings, facilities and equipment. Recommendations for future projections of inclusive education in public primary schools in rural Kenya are also discussed.

Key words: Inclusive education, status, public primary schools, rural Kenya

1. INTRODUCTION

The benefits of education for both individual and societal development cannot be overemphasized. Education holds substantial, proven benefits for people in terms of producing appropriate human resource capital that is integral in spurring productivity which is crucial in the elimination of poverty, disease, and ignorance thus ultimately improving human welfare (UNESCO, 2011; World Bank, 2013). From a global perspective, education is acknowledged as a basic human right (UN, 1948). Unsurprisingly then, various global policy frameworks for education which include: UNESCO Jomtien Conference (1990); the Salamanca statement, (UNESCO, 1994) and the resultant Dakar Framework for Action (UNESCO, 2000) have all advocated for access to education by ALL children regardless of individual differences. The Sustainable Development Goals (UN, 2015) and the Incheon Declaration (UNESCO, 2015) were other endeavours by the international community in endorsing the Education for All (EFA) agenda. These protocols reiterated prior determinations in assuring education for ALL and, obligated states towards a target of 2030 of equitable quality and inclusive education as well as lifelong learning for all including those with disabilities and other special needs.

It is estimated that 15% of the world’s population live with a disability and that 80% of that population live in less developed nations (WHO, 2019). Of note is that approximately, 93 million children globally have a disability and that 80% of them are excluded from accessing and participating in education (UNICEF, 2018). Kenya has 1,330,312 (647,689 males and 682,623 females) persons living with disability (Kenya National Bureau of Statistics, 2010). This is the most underprivileged and marginalised group that faces discrimination at every level of the society (Ministry of Education, 2018). A Ministry of Education (MOE) report in 2003 adds that out of an estimated 750,000 children with disabilities in Kenya who are old enough to go to school, only a paltry 12% have been identified and assessed. Further, only 32% (29,228) of those assessed are enrolled in educational programmes. This dire situation has been attributed to interplay between various variables which include negative attitudes, inadequate resources, environmental barriers,
discriminative policies and practices (Korir, Mukuria& Adera, 2007; Kochung, 2011; Manzi, 2011; Muindi, 2009; Munyi, 2012; Mutuku; 2013).

Since independence in 1963, the Kenya government has attempted to provide education as a means of human capital development. Indeed, the various policy documents and reports which dates back to Ominde’s commission (Republic of Kenya, 1964), to the Sector Policy for learners and trainees with disabilities (Republic of Kenya, 2018) have all advocated for provision of quality education to learners with special needs.

Sessional paper 14 of 2012 contends that through education, training and research, it is hoped that the country will meet the challenges in social, political and economic development, industrialize and utilize modern technology to enhance the quality of life for ALL Kenyans (Republic of Kenya, 2012). This is also articulated in the national goals of education which are the foundation upon which curricula for the various levels of education are developed. Indeed, education is regarded as the social pillar of the Vision 2030 (Republic of Kenya, 2007). One of the Vision’s strategies in achieving medium term goals is incorporating special education in the regular school which in essence is inclusive education practices. Further, the constitution of Kenya (Republic of Kenya, 2010) emphasizes the right to free and compulsory basic education for all citizens. The re-introduction of compulsory Free Primary Education (FPE) in 2003 was a key strategy by the government to ensure provision of education to majority of children. This led to a marked improvement in enrolment at the primary level from 5.9 million in 2002 to 7.6 million in 2003 (Republic of Kenya, 2005).

However, enrolment of learners with special needs compared poorly with their regular peers standing at 26,885 in 2003 from 22,000 in 1999 (Ministry of Education, 2009). The Sector Policy for Learners and trainees with disabilities (2018) calls for the recognition of inclusive practices as an overarching principle that aims at ensuring that learners with disabilities access a quality education. Of concern, however, is the lack of recent data on the status of access to and participation of learners with disabilities in education (Bii and Taylor, 2013; MOE, 2009; Njoka, et al., 2011; Republic of Kenya, 2009; Republic of Kenya, 2012). Indeed, a report by UNICEF on the State of the World’s Children rightly observes, “A society cannot be equitable unless all children are included, and children with disabilities cannot be included unless sound data collection and analysis render them visible” (UNICEF, 2013, p.63). Evidently, accurate data on the population of children with special needs is crucial to facilitate planning for provision of their educational and other necessary services. Dyson and Millward (2000) seem to capture the status of inclusive education in Kenya when they note that inclusion in some countries is at least as concerned with finding ways and means of providing basic education for a wide range of marginalized groups as it is with the transfer of pupils from special to mainstream schools in relatively well resourced education systems.

The Kenyan policy and practice in reference to Special Needs Education (SNE) oscillates between integration and inclusion. Funds are availed to improve mainstream schools’ environment to be friendlier to children with disabilities and at the same time, there is mobilisation to set up units in mainstream schools (MOE, 2009; Republic of Kenya, 2013). Murang’a County which is the focus of this study has 117 integrated units. This is paradoxical from policy perspective since in essence the government is running three parallel special needs education systems (inclusion, integration and special schools) which evidently is an expensive venture. Inclusive schools, it is argued, do not only provide an effective education to the majority of children they also improve the efficiency and ultimately the cost-effectiveness of the entire education system. Additionally, inclusive Education has not only been accepted as the most effective means of providing a relevant education to the majority of children, it is also viewed as the key in establishing an inclusive society that welcomes diversity (UNESCO, 1994). A significant body of research globally indicates that there are proven benefits accrued from effective inclusive education practice which include allowing children with special needs enjoy the right to a quality education (Reiser, 2012; Thomas, 2013): academic improvement consequently facilitating them access to opportunities in the larger community that are typically available (Turnbull, 2010); positively impacting on these children psychologically and socially in terms of feeling a sense of well-being and belonging (Lipsky& Gartner, 2013; Preecey, 2011); providing them opportunities to interact in an educational environment that offers real life experiences (Mittler,2000; Fisher, Roach & Frey, 2002; Frostand&Pijl, 2007) and presenting opportunities for all children to interact with and learn from each other thus broadening and strengthening an understanding of the diversity that is inherent in communities (Turnbull, 2010; Black-Hawkins, Florian & Rouse, 2008 ).It whilst acknowledging these benefits and taking it
cognisance that Kenya is a signatory to international protocols on inclusive education that the study from which this paper is derived was conducted. The study aimed at establishing the status of inclusive education in Murang’a county, one of the rural counties in Kenya.

2. METHODOLOGY

The study adopted the cross sectional survey design and utilised multi-stage probability sampling procedures to select teachers and head teachers for the study. Simple random sampling was used to select four educational zones (50%) from Murang’a county, one of the counties in rural Kenya. The four educational zones have 221 public primary schools (Murang’a County Education Department, 2018) and stratified sampling technique was used to get a sample of 66 (30%) head teachers/schools. For the teachers’ sample as well, stratified sampling technique was used where the selected schools were divided into two strata; lower and upper primary. One teacher for the lower primary and six teachers representing subjects taught in the upper primary were selected totalling to 462 teachers. The Quality Assurance and Standards officer (QASO) and the Education Assessment Resource Centre (EARC) officer from each educational zone also participated in the study. A questionnaire, an interview guide and an observation guide were utilised to collect data. Content analysis was used to analyse qualitative data while quantitative data was analysed using descriptive statistics.

3. FINDINGS

The study sought to establish the status of inclusive education in public primary schools in Murang’a County. To determine the status of inclusive education in the county, key indicators of inclusive practices were sought. They were: a) enrolment of learners with special needs in regular schools; b) placement options; c) provision of necessary resources that support inclusion; availability of adapted curriculum and curriculum support materials.

a) Enrolment of Learners with Special Needs

Head teachers and teachers were asked if there were children with special needs in their schools and their responses are shown in Figure 1.

Figure1. Enrolment of Learners with Special Needs in Regular Schools

Figure 1 shows that an overwhelming majority of head teachers (89.4 %) and teachers (83.5%) indicated that they have enrolled learners with special needs in their schools. One salient characteristic of an inclusive school is enrolment of all learners from its locality including those with special needs (Booth & Ainscow, 2011). The presence of learners with special needs in regular schools indicates that there are elements of inclusive practices in Murang’a County. The study further sought to establish which category of special needs was most represented in the sampled schools. Table 1 indicates the representation.

Table 1. Categories of Special Needs Enrolled in Schools

| Categories               | Head teachers (N=66) | Teachers (N=462) |
|--------------------------|----------------------|------------------|
|                         | Yes                  | No               | Not sure | Yes   | No   | Not sure |
| Visual Impairment       | 16 (24.2)            | 41 (62.1)        | 9 (13.6) | 98 (21.2) | 345 (74.7) | 19 (4.1) |

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As shown in Table 1, majority of head teachers (87.9%) reported that the most represented category of special needs was orphans and the least represented (13.6%) was hearing impairments. Teachers on the other hand indicated that learning disabilities were the majority (80.3%) and autism was the least represented category (13.6%). It may appear as though there are some inconsistencies: however, learning disabilities which were the majority according to teachers had also a sizeable majority (74.2%) and was ranked 2nd as per head teachers’ responses. The same applied for orphans who were reported as majority by head teachers. According to teachers report they were also a majority (68.4%) ranking 2nd. Autism which was reported least prevalent by teachers was among the least prevalent according to head teachers at 15.2 % and ranked 2nd from the least. Hearing impairments which was the least prevalent category according to head teachers was also among the least represented according to teachers standing at 11.5%.

To validate the responses of teachers and head teachers’ observations were made on the enrolment of learners with various categories of special needs in the selected schools. The results are shown on Table 2.

Table 2. Observations made on enrolment of special needs categories in schools

| Special Need                          | Present | Absent |
|---------------------------------------|---------|--------|
|                                       | N       | %      | N      | %      |
| Visually impaired                     | 22      | 33.3   | 44     | 66.7   |
| Hearing Impaired                      | 7       | 10.6   | 59     | 89.4   |
| Physically Impaired                   | 32      | 48.5   | 34     | 51.5   |
| Deafblind                             | 1       | 1.5    | 65     | 98.5   |
| Communication Disabled                | 28      | 42.4   | 38     | 57.6   |
| Autistic                              | 8       | 12.1   | 58     | 87.9   |
| Mentally Disabled                     | 47      | 71.2   | 19     | 28.8   |
| Gifted and Talented                   | 17      | 25.8   | 49     | 74.2   |
| Learning Disabled                     | 55      | 83.3   | 11     | 16.7   |
| Those living in difficult Circumstances| 54      | 81.8   | 12     | 18.2   |

Table 2 indicates that learning disabilities were the majority (83.3%) while Deafblind (1.5%) and hearing impairments (7%) were the least and this concurred with teachers and head teachers’ responses. A t-test was used to establish the differences between the responses given by the head teachers and teachers vis-à-vis the observations made. It emerged that there was a significant difference at 95% confidence level between the responses from head teachers and those from the teachers (t=2.42, DF=8, p=.042). A similar test was done to establish if the difference between the head teachers’ responses and the observations made was statistically significant. The result indicated that there was no significant difference (t=.97, DF=8, p=.36). However, the difference between teachers’ responses and observations made yielded a significant difference, t=2.47, DF=8, p=0.04, at 95% confidence. The finding that there was no significant statistical difference between head
teachers’ response on enrolment and observations made may be attributed to the fact that enrolment of pupils in schools is an administrative role and head teachers are better placed to give more accurate information in reference to admissions than teachers.

Overall, the findings indicated that learners with special needs are enrolled in public primary schools in Murang’a County. The categories of special needs identified in the SNE policy (Republic of Kenya, 2009), with the exclusion of children from nomadic communities and those internally displaced, are represented in regular schools in this county. The exclusion of the two categories is expected considering the context of the study. Other studies conducted in Kenya have also found that learners with special needs are enrolled in regular schools (Buhere, Ndiku&Kindiki, 2014; KIE, 2011; Mbogi, 2010; Mwangi&Orodho, 2014; Odongo, 2012). The implication of this finding is that there is presence of one indicator of inclusive practices: enrolment of learners with special needs in regular schools. However, as Dyson Kerr and Wiener (2010) assert, integration of learners with special needs in regular schools may paradoxically promote further discrimination of these learners more so when placed in special units (locational integration). This is due to the fact that they have minimal contact with their regular peers which consequently interferes with their social and psychological development. Consequently, the study sought to determine the placement options for learners with special needs.

b) Placement of Learners with Special Needs

Figure 2 shows that learners with special needs are enrolled in regular classes as reported by majority (71%) of head teachers. This was corroborated by an overwhelming majority (84%) of teachers and observations made which indicated that majority of schools (89%) had learners with special needs in regular classes. The results revealed that more learners with special needs are enrolled in regular classes than in integrated units. This high enrolment rate of learners with special needs in regular classes is consistent with other studies (Odongo, 2012; Peter & Nderitu, 2014). Enrolment of learners with special needs in regular classes is a further indicator of inclusive practices in Murang’a County. However, as Rogers’ theory of diffusion of innovation (Rogers, 2003) avers, a decision unit may decide to adopt an innovation without necessarily involving potential adopters. The theory further posits that potential adopters’ opinions about the innovation are however, essential for successful diffusion of the innovation (Rogers, 2003). Consequently, the study sought teachers and head teachers’(potential adopters) opinions with regards to the placement of learners with special needs in regular classes which is a directive from the MOE as instructed in the Basic Education Act (Republic of Kenya, 2013) and the SNE policy (Republic of Kenya, 2008).

c) Opinions on Placement Options for Learners With Special Needs

Teachers and head teachers were asked about their opinions in reference to having learners with special needs in regular classes. Their responses are shown on Table 3.

| Opinion | Head Teachers | Teachers |
|---------|---------------|----------|
| Yes     | 44            | 211      | 66.7     | 45.7     |
| No      | 18            | 156      | 27.3     | 33.8     |
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|               | Head Teachers | Teachers |
|---------------|---------------|----------|
| Social benefits | 24 (65.95)   | 89 (42.2%) |
| Psychological benefits | 10(22.7%)   | 83(39.3%) |
| Academic benefits | 12(27.3%)   | 39(18.5%) |
| Reasons against inclusion | Head teachers | Teachers |
| Exam oriented education system | 10 (55.5%) | 100(64.1%) |
| Lack of resources | 6(33.3%) | 72(46.2%) |
| Severity of disability | 2(11.1%) | 31(19.9%) |

Table 3 shows that majority (66.7 %) of head teachers are more accommodative to having learners with special needs in regular classes with only 27.3% opining that learners with special needs should not be in regular classes. On the other hand, less than half (45.7 %) of teachers agreed that learners with special needs ought to be in regular classes. The finding on teachers ‘anti inclusion’ stance is in variance with other studies (Khan, 2011; Peter & Nderitu, 2014; Odongo; 2012) who found out that majority of teachers agreed that learners with special needs should be included in regular classes. Peebles and Mendaglio (2014) have suggested that training on inclusive education leads to acceptance of the practice. Consequently, there is need to in-service teachers.

Participants were further asked to give reasons as to why they regard inclusive education as either the appropriate or inappropriate education practice for learners with special needs. Their responses were grouped into themes and they are shown on Table 4.

| Reason for Being for or Against Inclusive Education | Head Teachers | Teachers |
|-----------------------------------------------------|---------------|----------|
| Social benefits                                     | 24 (65.95)   | 89 (42.2%) |
| Psychological benefits                              | 10(22.7%)   | 83(39.3%) |
| Academic benefits                                   | 12(27.3%)   | 39(18.5%) |
| Exam oriented education system                      | 10 (55.5%) | 100(64.1%) |
| Lack of resources                                   | 6(33.3%) | 72(46.2%) |
| Severity of disability                              | 2(11.1%) | 31(19.9%) |

Table 4 shows that benefits of inclusive education were cited as the reasons for viewing inclusive education as the best educational practice for learners with special needs. Barriers facing inclusive education were given as reasons for opposing inclusive practices. Social benefits of inclusive education were mentioned by majority of participants (65%) of head teachers and 42% of teachers (those who reported that they supported inclusive education). A teacher from Educational Zone C observed, “It (inclusion) will enhance their interaction and social skills, isolation will make them feel like social misfits” (Teacher from Educational zone C, Personal Communication, July 20, 2019). Still alluding to social benefits a teacher from Educational Zone A noted “they will understand that they are created the same with others and are accepted by society” (Teacher from Educational Zone A, Personal Communication, July 29, 2019). Frostad and Pijl, (2007) observe that learning in inclusive classes promoted the development of social skills which include forging friendships which serve as natural support systems for learners with special needs even in adulthood.

Academic benefits related to inclusive education was also mentioned. “Inclusive education helps the learners with SEN to catch up things very fast and they learn to do things easily rather than when they learn in their institutions.” (Teacher from Educational Zone D, Personal Communication, July 29th, 2019). This view is given credence by research which has shown that the demands and expectations in regular classes is greater than those in special units or special schools thus contributing to the academic improvement of learners with special needs (Turnbull, 2010).

Participants also cited the psychological benefit of inclusive education as one of the reasons they viewed it as the best educational practice suitable for learners with special needs. A teacher from Educational zone A noted, “It will improve the self-esteem of learners with disabilities”( Teacher from Educational zone A, Personal Communication, July 29, 2019) This is corroborated by Precey (2011) who notes that learning in inclusive settings allows learners with special needs to have a sense of wellbeing and belonging.

Participants also noted that inclusive education does not only benefit learners with special needs but also those without. A teacher from Educational zone A observed, “Regular children will learn to accommodate and appreciate children with special needs” (Teacher from Educational zone A, Personal Communication, July 20, 2019). This remark is given credence by Reiser (2012) who asserted that interaction between learners with disabilities and those without promotes the elimination of prejudices and stereotypes about special needs.
On the other hand, the reasons given by those who viewed inclusive education as an inappropriate system for learners are related to barriers to inclusive education. The examination oriented approach to learning in Kenyan schools was cited by majority of participants (64.1% of teachers and 55.5% of head teachers who indicated that they were not for inclusive education). They felt that learners with special needs may not cope and they may compromise the standards of education in a school. Teacher from Educational zone D (Personal Communication, July 23rd, 2019) said, “Demand to cover the syllabus is unfriendly for learners with special needs and they will be neglected because of M.S.S [Mean Standard Score].” A head teacher from Educational zone D stated “I have not enrolled these learners because they are slow learners, very slow” (Personal Communication, July 23rd, 2019). This evidently portrays a lack of understanding of the educational needs of learners with special needs.

Other reasons given are related to lack of resources such as classrooms, equipment and teaching learning resources. The severity of disability was also indicated as a reason. A participant opined, “Like those with HI [Hearing Impairments] or VI [Visual Impairments] they cannot survive in the regular class (Educational zone D Teacher, Personal Communication, July 23rd, 2019). When asked for the reason the participant said, “I am not trained to teach them...they should have their own classes and trained teachers.”. These are some of the impediments to inclusive education that have been identified in studies carried out in Kenya (Bii& Taylor, 2013; KIE, 2011; Peter& Nderitu, 2014; Njoka et al, 2011).

Interestingly, QASO 4 opined that even though inclusive education is a good system, it was hurriedly implemented (QASO 4, Personal Communication, August 3rd, 2019). This brings to focus the two strategies used to implement a curriculum innovation: grandeur and gradual. In the grandeur approach, the innovation is implemented wholesale while in the gradual method the innovation is implemented in phases (Kamau, 2012). Though the approach utilised to implement inclusive education as a curriculum innovation in the Kenyan education system is beyond the scope of this study, it is an area worthy of further investigation from the foregoing it is evident there is need to address the barriers cited to facilitate change of “anti Inclusion” sentiments. Lack of resources emerged as one of the key factors that lead to the “anti inclusion” sentiments. The following section examines the availability of these resources.

d) Availability of Adapted Facilities and Equipment

 Provision of modified resources and adaptation of the school environment is essential for effective inclusive practices. The study examined the availability of facilities and equipment that support inclusive education. The results are indicated in Table 5.

### Table 5. Teachers’ Responses on Availability of Modified Facilities and Equipment

| Resource                        | Adequately Equipped | Poorly Equipped | No Resource |
|---------------------------------|---------------------|-----------------|-------------|
|                                 | N       | %   | N     | %   | N    | %   |
| Modified Classrooms             | 55      | 11.9| 138   | 29.9| 268  | 58.2|
| Disability friendly playground   | 27      | 5.8 | 132   | 28.6| 302  | 65.6|
| Modified Furniture              | 52      | 11.3| 105   | 22.7| 304  | 66.0|
| Modified Equipment              | 35      | 7.6 | 105   | 22.7| 321  | 69.7|
| Disability friendly school env.  | 54      | 11.7| 145   | 31.4| 262  | 56.9|
| Assistive Devices               | 26      | 5.6 | 67    | 14.5| 368  | 79.9|
| SNE Teachers                    | 94      | 20.3| 128   | 27.7| 239  | 51.9|
| Support Services (G&C department, medical services peripatetic services) | 119    | 25.8| 160   | 34.6| 183  | 39.6|

As shown in Table 5, teachers reported a serious lack of basic resources that support inclusive practices. Assistive devices were reported as the most lacking resource by 79.9% of teachers. Even support services that had the highest number of teachers reporting that they were available were only recounted by less than a third of teachers (25.8%). During observations, when asked about availability of assistive devices a teacher from Educational Zone D remarked, “I have never seen any of them I don’t know even how they look like.” (Teacher from Educational Zone D, Personal Communication, July 31st, 2019). This comment shows the lack of exposure to SNE issues by teachers who have learners with special needs in their classes implying that the learners are not participating in any learning. This then calls for the need to not only equip schools with resources but
to also train teachers on SNE issues. Head teachers’ responses on availability of modified facilities and equipment are shown on Table 6.

**Table 6. Head Teachers’ Responses on Availability of Modified Facilities and Equipment**

| Resource                                | Adequately Equipped | Poorly Equipped | No Resource |
|------------------------------------------|---------------------|-----------------|-------------|
|                                          | N       | %   | N       | %   | N       | %   |
| Modified Classrooms                      | 16      | 24.2| 31      | 47.0| 19      | 28.8|
| Disability friendly playground           | 14      | 21.2| 37      | 56.1| 15      | 22.7|
| Modified Furniture                       | 18      | 27.3| 35      | 53.0| 13      | 19.7|
| Modified Equipment                       | 15      | 22.7| 36      | 54.5| 15      | 22.7|
| Adapted Curriculum support materials     | 22      | 33.3| 28      | 42.4| 16      | 24.2|
| Adapted Reference Books                  | 20      | 30.3| 26      | 39.4| 20      | 30.3|
| Disability friendly school environment   | 22      | 33.3| 23      | 34.8| 21      | 31.8|
| Assistive Devices                       | 18      | 27.3| 21      | 31.8| 27      | 40.9|
| SNE Teachers                            | 17      | 25.8| 23      | 34.8| 26      | 39.4|
| Support Services (G&C department,        | 22      | 33.3| 24      | 36.4| 20      | 30.3|
| medical services peripatetic services)   |         |     |         |     |         |     |

Table 6 shows that of head teachers also indicated that there is an acute shortage of modified facilities and equipment. A third (33.3%) of head teachers indicated that schools have adapted curriculum support materials as well as disability friendly environments. Similar to teachers nearly half (40.9%) of head teachers reported that schools lacked assisted devices. Support services, specifically the guidance and counseling department was the only resource that was reported as adequate as reported by 31.8% of head teachers and 25.5% of teachers. However, one SNE trained teacher from Educational Zone D reported, “This department (Guidance and Counseling department) does not cater for the needs of children with disabilities because the madam who heads is not even trained in G&C.” (SNE Teacher Educational Zone D, Personal Communication, July 31st, 2019). Lack of effective G & C departments in schools is attested to by Njoka (2007) who observed that most primary schools lack trained counselors and the teachers manning G&C departments have no or have inadequate basic counseling skills. Learners with special needs have their unique counseling issues which include self esteem challenges anger, shame and denial which can only be handled by a trained counselor.

Whilst stating that guidance and counseling department is available in their school, SNE Teacher Educational Zone B commented that it is under the deputy head teacher and added that since caning is prohibited the Guidance and Counselling Department handles discipline cases. Probed further on how the department handles discipline for learners with emotional and behavioural difficulties the teacher reported, "we just talk to them and advise then to stop the behaviour” (SNE Teacher Educational zone B, Personal Communication, July 31st, 2019). A number of issues are raised here. Firstly, the ethical consideration in guidance and counseling as regards dual relationships is not observed since disciplining and counseling are two different roles that may not be executed effectively by the same individual(s). Secondly, the widely held perception that G&C can replace discipline in school is erroneous since just “talking” to a learner with behavioural problems is not likely to be effective since what the child needs is behaviour modification which can only be conducted by a trained counselor. The implication of these findings is that schools are not prepared to accommodate learners with special needs considering that they lack such basic resources such as G & C departments.

e) **Availability of Adapted Curriculum Support Materials**

Provision of adapted curriculum support materials is a requisite if the learner with special needs is to participate in quality learning. In this regard, the study sought to establish the availability of adapted curriculum support materials. The results are indicated in Table 7.

**Table 7. Teachers’ responses on availability of adapted curriculum support materials**

| Subject                          | Adapted Syllabus | Adapted books | Reference books | Adapted Textbooks | Adapted Equipment |
|----------------------------------|------------------|---------------|----------------|-------------------|------------------|
|                                   | Available (%)    | Adequate (%)  | Available (%)  | Adequate (%)      | Available (%)    |
|                                  | Not (%)          | Not (%)       | Not (%)        | Not (%)           | Not (%)          |
|                                  |                  |               |                |                   |                  |
|                                  |                  |               |                |                   |                  |
Nearly all teachers indicated that they lacked adapted syllabi for the subjects they taught, adapted reference books, textbooks and equipment. Only a paltry 0.2% reported that they have adapted syllabi for social studies, sciences and P.E; adapted reference books, textbooks for social studies and adapted equipment for social studies and sciences. This acute lack of adapted curriculum support materials was also confirmed by observations made as shown on Table 8.

Table 8. Observation data on curriculum support materials and other facilities

| Teaching learning Resources | Present | Absent |   |
|-----------------------------|---------|--------|---|
|                            | N       | %      | N  | %   |
| Adapted Curricula           | 7       | 10.6   | 59 | 89.4|
| Adapted Course Books        | 5       | 7.6    | 61 | 92.4|
| Adapted Text books          | 2       | 3.0    | 64 | 97.0|
| SNE Teachers                | 12      | 18.2   | 54 | 81.8|
| Support Services            | 7       | 10.6   | 59 | 89.4|
| Resource Room               | 4       | 6.1    | 62 | 93.9|
| G&C Department              | 56      | 84.8   | 10 | 15.2|

Findings as shown on Table 8 indicated that an overwhelming majority of schools (89.4 %) lacked adapted curricula while 92.4 % of schools lacked adapted course books and 97.0 % had no adapted text books. A safe and accessible school environment is essential for effective inclusive practices. The study examined the accessibility and safety of schools’ environment. Findings are shown in Table 9.

Table 9. Observation data on facilities (Total No. observed = 66)

| Facility                | Present | Absent |   |
|-------------------------|---------|--------|---|
|                         | N       | %      | N  | %   |
| Ramps                   | 9       | 13.6   | 57 | 86.4|
| Assistive Devices       | 5       | 7.6    | 61 | 92.4|
| Wide Corridors          | 10      | 15.2   | 56 | 84.8|
| Wide Doors              | 11      | 16.7   | 55 | 83.3|
| Modified Washrooms      | 2       | 3.0    | 64 | 97.0|
| Modified Water Points   | 3       | 4.5    | 63 | 95.5|
| Feeding Programmes      | 27      | 40.9   | 39 | 59.1|
| Obstacle free Environment| 15     | 22.7   | 51 | 77.3|

Table 9 indicates that very few schools 22.7 % had obstacle free environment and only 15 % had constructed ramps. No more than 16.0 % of schools had conducive classrooms with wide doors and wide corridors while only a measly 3.0 % had modified washrooms. Further, feeding programmes which are fundamental in inclusive schools considering that they are a critical intervention for learners living in extreme poverty were lacking with only 40.9% of schools indicating they had feeding programmes. Moreover, SNE teacher from Educational zone B reported that the feeding programme is for the Early Childhood Education learners (SNE Teacher Educational zone B, Personal Communication, July 31st, 2015).

Inadequate resources as a barrier to effective inclusive practices was a factor that featured prominently among the responses of field officers who participated in the study. QASO 4 opined that teaching learning resources were inadequate “even for ‘normal’ learners.” (QASO 4, Personal Communication, August 3rd, 2019). The eight EARC officers suggested that there is need to increase funding to enable school management improve the school environment to make it disability friendly. Lack of teaching - learning resources has been cited among the impediments to effective implementation of inclusive in Kenya (KIE, 2011; Mwangi&Orodho, 2014; Peter & Nderitu, 2014). These findings strongly imply that though learners with special needs are enrolled in regular schools, they are hardly participating in learning due to the acute shortage of resources that support inclusive
education. Adapted resources are designed to specifically compensate for the learning needs of learners with special needs. This consequently offers opportunities for learning experiences which facilitate the development of skills and knowledge. Lack of necessary teaching learning resources is a recurrent barrier to effective implementation of inclusive education in other parts of Africa as observed by Mukhopadhyay, Molosiwa and Moswela (2009) in Botswana, Gous, Eloff and Moen (2013) in South Africa, Nyende, (2012) in Uganda and Charema, (2010) in Lesotho. Undoubtedly, provision of necessary resources then becomes a priority to individual governments if the inclusive agenda is to move forward.

As regards school’s environment this study’s findings are consistent with the results from previous studies (Buhere et al, 2014; KIE, 2011; Njoka et al, 2011). Schools environment are very restrictive and do not accommodate learners with special needs thus becoming a huge barrier to the learners’ ability to participate in learning. This situation has been attributed to inadequate government funding (Njoka et al, 2011; Patrick & Nderitu, 2014).

4. CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS

The present study shows that the pace at which inclusive education is being implemented in public primary schools in Murang’a County is unsatisfactory. Save for enrolment of learners with special needs in regular schools, other major indicators of inclusive learning such as availability of adapted curricula and curricula support materials; adapted facilities and equipment; teaching learning resources and a safe and accessible environment are lacking. There is need to train teachers on inclusive education both at pre-service and in-service level. Further, the resources necessary to facilitate implementation of inclusive education ought to be availed if inclusive education practices are to be a reality in rural Kenya.

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AUTHOR’S BIOGRAPHY

Catherine, has a PhD in Education (Curriculum Studies and Instruction) from the Catholic University of Eastern Africa. Her doctoral research was on the preparedness of teachers and head teachers for implementing Inclusive Education, taking in cognisance that Inclusive Education has been acknowledged as the most effective means of providing education to learners with Special Needs. Catherine has a Masters degree in Counseling Psychology, a Bachelors degree in Education and Post Graduate qualifications in Inclusion and Special Needs Education. She has had a successful career in the Education sector that has span across 28 years where she has worked as a University Lecturer, Curriculum Developer, Examiner and Teacher of Literature and English. Catherine has also authored a number of publications. Her current research interest relates to Curriculum Innovations and Psychosocial support for Persons with Special Needs.

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